

The SAGE Encyclopedia of

Classroom Management

Edited by

W. George Scarlett



The SAGE Encyclopedia of

Classroom Management

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Tufts University

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SAGE was founded in 1965 by Sara Miller McCune to support the dissemination of usable knowledge by publishing innovative and high-quality research and teaching content. Today, we publish more than 750 journals, including those of more than 300 learned societies, more than 800 new books per year, and a growing range of library products including archives, data, case studies, reports, conference highlights, and video. SAGE remains majority-owned by our founder, and after Sara's lifetime will become owned by a charitable trust that secures our continued independence.

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About the Editor

W. George Scarlett is senior lecturer and deputy chair of the Eliot-Pearson Department of Child Study and Human Development at Tufts University. He received a BA from Yale University, an MDiv from the Episcopal Divinity School, and a PhD (in developmental psychology) from Clark University. He has authored or co-authored six books and co-edited the *Encyclopedia of Religious and Spiritual Development* (published by SAGE). His second most recent book was *Approaches to Behavior and Classroom Management* (also published by SAGE). He has been the lead author or co-author of chapters in *The Handbook of Child Psychology* and *The Handbook of Life-Span Development*—both leading resources for professionals conducting research on children and adolescents. In addition, he has published numerous articles on a variety of subjects pertaining to children,

including articles on behavior management, and he has been on the research teams of several internationally known leaders, including Ed Zigler at Yale (early research on Head Start) and Howard Gardner at Harvard (early research on multiple intelligences). He has served as a consultant to the Cambridge, Somerville, and Lowell Head Start systems in Massachusetts and directed a residential summer camp for children with emotional and behavioral disorders. Currently, he is a regular consultant to reporters and news agencies, communicating to the general public best practices for raising and educating children and youth. At Tufts, in addition to his administrative duties as the department's deputy chair, he teaches courses on approaches to problem behavior, children's play, and spiritual development, and writes a column, "Kids These Days," for *Tufts Magazine*.

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Introduction

Classroom Management—Embracing Complexity

Classroom management is an unusual field, one that presents a number of paradoxes. On the one hand, beginning teachers are apt to be anxious about their felt inability to manage classrooms to avoid chaos. On the other hand, teacher preparation programs often fail to provide the courses and guidance students need in order to manage their anxiety so as to do reasonably well in their beginning efforts at classroom management. In a similar vein, while every educator agrees that classroom management is central to teaching, few leaders in educational research identify themselves as leaders in classroom management. Given these and other paradoxes, it is not surprising that, historically, the field of classroom management has been underdeveloped and misunderstood.

Happily, these past several decades have witnessed positive developments in the field of classroom management. The first major development has been a paradigm shift away from emphasizing methods for controlling (managing) students and toward emphasizing creating positive learning environments. The second major development has been a significant increase in empirical research on topics related to classroom management—as evidenced by such ground-breaking publications as Carolyn Evertson and Carol Weinstein’s *Handbook of Classroom Management: Research, Practice and Contemporary Issues* (2006).

This encyclopedia extends these recent developments that promote the field of classroom management. In its collection of 334 entries, it shows the complexity of the field by the great number of relevant topics that need to be considered when trying to create good learning environments—from figuring out how best to organize space in early childhood classrooms, to figuring out how best to accommodate the cultural diversity found in many urban high school classrooms, to crafting public policies that better ensure that children with special needs are given needed supports to function well

in inclusive classrooms. And so, the message here is for readers to embrace the complexity defined by the wide variety of topics and issues that make up the field of classroom management.

However, considering all the many topics that relate to creating good learning environments can be overwhelming. Therefore, embracing the complexity of classroom management also means taking on the added task of organizing the huge number of relevant topics by grouping them using a limited number of core themes that constitute the components or cornerstones of any classroom management system—themes such as building relationships, organizing time and space, and accommodating diversity. This encyclopedia does just that—as the Reader’s Guide indicates.

But embracing the complexity of classroom management does not stop with considering all the many relevant topics and organizing topics using core themes—because as soon as we try to implement what we know about a topic or core theme, we find (or should find) ourselves having to balance the demands of one topic or theme against the demands of other topics or themes. In so doing, we are almost always faced not with easy, once-and-for-all solutions to problems but rather with our having to *manage dilemmas*, dilemmas that never go away. For example, an elementary school teacher might attend to the organization theme so as to foster cooperative work among students—by arranging desks in clusters of four, with students in each cluster facing one another. However, in doing so, the teacher might find that a good many students become distracted too easily when being instructed by the teacher standing in the front of the classroom. The solution to one problem (how to foster cooperative work among classmates) found under the theme of organization undermines the solution to another problem (keeping students attending to the teacher) found under the theme of instruction.

Conflicts arise also while attending to a single theme. For example, teacher–student relationship building involves showing care, but for many, showing care and controlling children seem to be in conflict with each other. Similarly, instruction that supports long-term development of cognitive and social skills such as scientific thinking and social perspective taking seems to require a progressive approach that runs counter to a more direct approach involving didactic teaching and memorizing. And accommodating linguistic and cultural diversity seems to run counter to socializing children to succeed in a mainstream culture outside the classroom. Managing these and other dilemmas adds considerably to the complexity of classroom management. To help deal with this complexity, we need a good framework for understanding how seeming opposites can be integrated so as to co-exist in harmonious ways.

One excellent framework for integrating opposites and managing dilemmas comes not from traditional Western ways of thinking but from Eastern ways. The Chinese have a long-standing symbol for integrating opposites—the yin-yang circle. As Wilfred Cantwell Smith has pointed out, the yin-yang circle symbolizes the truth that so many of life’s dualities complement rather than conflict with one another—at least in their ideal state.



Let us see how this works—by looking at examples of what at first appear to be conflict dualities but, when reframed using the yin-yang way of thinking, later become complement dualities.

As a first example, take the core theme of building relationships. Discussions of building relationships reveal two dualities in particular. The first has to do with building teacher–student relationships where the duality, often experienced as a conflict duality, is that between caring for students and challenging students while maintaining control through being assertive. However, though these two may be seen as in conflict with each other, they can be made to complement each other. We see this in the way that many teachers from minority cultures adopt authoritarian styles normally associated with discipline but not with caring. Take George Noblit’s work as an example. Noblit observed an African American teacher for over a year in a predominantly African American school and found that her approach of teacher centeredness and use of personal power worked well in helping her students succeed in schools. She expected a lot from her students and

in turn her students performed. She, like many African American teachers, gave directives in a direct and explicit fashion, for example, by saying, “I don’t want to hear it. Sit down, be quiet, and finish your work now!” This directive was given in a style that commanded respect by exhibiting personal power—power that, to white, middle-class, progressive educators, may appear to be cold and uncaring but, because of the teacher’s subtle (often nonverbal) ways of communicating, was experienced by the children as showing care. This teacher is what some call a *warm demander*—an apt phrase that captures well how care and being controlling and demanding can co-exist as a complement duality.

Take another example of how a seeming conflict duality can be reframed to become a complement duality that invites better ways to manage dilemmas. When accommodating diversity based on differences in ability, the main duality has been between children with and without special needs—as well as the related duality between children with and without a diagnostic label (attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder, specific learning disorder, autistic disorder, etc.). However, when we realize that every student has special needs and that diagnostic labels, when used correctly, describe syndromes, not people, we then realize that children designated as having special needs and disabilities are first and foremost children—thus echoing the psychiatrist Harry Stack Sullivan’s famous observation that we are all more similar than otherwise. The dualities referring to distinctions based upon ability are, then, best conceived of as complement dualities—no need for separate theories of human development when accommodating diversity based upon ability and no need to put aside the supports given to typical children when thinking about the supports needed for children with special needs.

All this is to say that when it comes to classroom management, the central dualities are not dualities referring to *this versus that*, nor even to *this and that*, but rather to *this together with that*—the overarching duality being managing classrooms while showing care. The time is ripe for showing how the central dualisms in classroom management are complement, not conflict, dualisms, and for showing how *managing classrooms and showing care* together form the central, overarching complement dualism, one that allows us to take on the complexity so as to develop classrooms and the field of classroom management.

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A

ABILITY GROUPING

The term *ability grouping* is somewhat problematic, as its use includes groupings based on achievement or attainment, as well as groupings based on measures of general ability. In practice, schools generally form classroom groupings with reference to tests of attainment or achievement, not ability, in one or more areas of the curriculum. Moreover, other factors may influence the composition of classroom groups, such as teachers' judgments of student behavior and motivation. However, because the term is so widely used, it will be adopted here with the understanding that the term may, at times, be referring to measures of attainment or achievement and not to valid measures of ability.

Many education systems group students by making ability a criterion for admission to particular schools, for assigning students to classrooms, and for assigning students to groups within the same classroom. This entry provides an overview of the most common forms of ability grouping within schools and evaluates the effects of different types of ability grouping on students' educational, social, and personal outcomes.

Types of Ability Grouping

The four most common types of ability grouping are ability grouping by school, streaming (tracking), setting (regrouping), and mixed-ability grouping (heterogeneous grouping).

Ability Grouping by School

Ability grouping by school groups students for assigning them to different schools on the basis of their ability as measured, usually, by examinations set

at a national or regional level or by individual schools. Commonly, this form of grouping occurs at the transition between the primary and secondary phases of education, although in some systems it may occur at other points. Selective schools generally offer a more academic curriculum geared toward university entrance.

Streaming (Tracking)

Ability grouping by streaming (United Kingdom) or tracking (United States) refers to the most rigid form of ability grouping within schools, whereby students of different ability levels are taught in separate groups for most, if not all, academic subjects. Typically, students spend most of the day within their ability-based class, which means there is a high level of segregation within the school and limited social mixing. In the United Kingdom, streaming was widespread during the 1960s and 1970s, after which its use has declined.

Setting (Regrouping)

Ability grouping by setting (United Kingdom) or regrouping (United States) offers greater flexibility as students may be regrouped on the basis of attainment in different subjects. In the system of regrouping, students often have some subjects in a mixed group and then are regrouped for specific subjects as determined by the school, for example, mathematics, where students may be functioning at a lower or higher level than the average. Some secondary schools use regrouping in the first year, whereas others delay doing so until later years. In the United Kingdom, grouping patterns are varied and include fine setting, whereby students are in a series of finely graded sets, as well as classes with a broader spread with respect to ability or attainment.

Mixed-Ability Grouping

Mixed-ability or heterogeneous grouping offers a wider range of abilities in each class. With this grouping, there may be an attempt to achieve gender or ethnic balance within the class. Mixed-ability grouping may also refer to cross-age or cross-grade grouping, which is often found in primary (elementary) schools, particularly in smaller schools where there are insufficient children in an age group to fill a complete class.

Within-Class Groupings

Within-class groupings are found mainly in the elementary phase where children across ability groups, mixed-ability groups, or friendship groups may be within the class for all or part of the school day. Here a teacher can work with a group of children rather than individually. Some teachers organize children in relatively stable groups based on ability, whereas others group the children into mixed-ability groups or regroup them for certain subjects or topics, such as reading. An advantage of within-class grouping over setting or streaming is that it reduces the chances of children being labeled, although much depends on the ethos of the school and how grouping arrangements are explained to the children.

Judging the Effectiveness of Grouping Arrangements

The effectiveness of ability grouping is frequently considered in terms of its impact on student attainment. International research comparing the effects of ability grouping on attainment in different countries generally focuses on two main indicators: the average attainment of students and the spread of attainment or range. An ideal outcome for a country as a whole would be to achieve high average attainment with a small spread, as this would indicate that the vast majority of students benefit from the way ability grouping is used within an education system. A large spread of attainment indicates that the system works well for some students at the expense of others and thus raises equity issues.

A number of international studies have compared the impact of ability grouping on academic achievement in schools. Findings indicate that heavy use of ability grouping in schools does not improve average student achievement. Instead, ability grouping tends to be associated with lower achievement overall. Moreover, studies conducted by the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) suggest that ability grouping increases the gap between children from high and low socioeconomic status (SES) groups.

Although the PISA studies are large scale and carefully controlled to account for a number of potentially confounding variables, they have limitations. Data from these studies were collected at one point in time, which limits the conclusions that may be drawn about causal relationships. Also, the nature of international surveys is such that they are not sensitive to local variations in education systems. In contrast, within-country studies are more detailed and may be more tightly controlled.

A substantial amount of within-country research has been carried out, mainly in the United States and United Kingdom. Reviews of this research have been undertaken using methods of best-evidence synthesis and meta-analysis, whereby studies were included only if they met stringent quality criteria. The overall general conclusion drawn from these reviews is that there are no consistent effects of ability grouping on student achievement. Some studies show positive effects of specific programs for gifted students, but these appear to have resulted from the enriched curriculum offered in the programs rather than the specific grouping arrangements. Other studies show positive effects for students with low ability if they were put in mixed-ability groups where they benefit from being helped by high-ability students. In some of these studies, medium-ability students have been found to function poorly in mixed-ability groups and better in homogeneous-ability groups.

Relatively few studies have examined the effects of setting or regrouping, as this type of grouping is less prevalent in the United States. In the United Kingdom, setting is frequently found in secondary schools and also in some large primary schools. A longitudinal study of the effects of setting in secondary schools demonstrated that when students' prior achievement and SES are statistically controlled, setting has little impact on results on the national examinations (General Certificate of Secondary Education [GCSE]) at the end of compulsory schooling. However, setting did affect scores when students at the same level of achievement are divided into those going to lower and those going to higher "sets"—with those going to higher sets achieving higher GCSE grades. Findings from other studies also confirm those of the PISA studies, showing that ability grouping in mathematics tends to increase the gap between students in high and low groups.

One of the concerns associated with high levels of stratification in schools is that there may be negative impacts on the social adjustment, motivation, and behavior of students, particularly those in low groups. Observational studies suggest that when students spend most of the school day in structured ability groups, those in low groups may receive negative messages about their position relative to others and become more disaffected as they progress through school. This can lead to a drop

in engagement in learning, behavioral problems in the classroom, or truancy from school.

Within-class grouping offers a flexible approach that has been used mainly in primary (elementary) schools. Evidence suggests that ability grouping may be beneficial when work is aligned with specific curriculum objectives, for example, reading. Mixed-ability groups may be beneficial for cooperative and collaborative learning and for peer co-learning, all of which provide valuable opportunities for peers to support each other's learning.

Classroom Pedagogy

In the classroom, teachers tend to adjust their teaching practices according to the composition of the class. When teaching a class grouped by ability through streaming, setting, or tracking, the activities undertaken in the classroom for high-, middle-, and low-ability students differ considerably. There is greater adjustment of the curriculum by content, depth, activities undertaken, and resources. Students in high groups benefit from enhanced opportunities and more discussion. Students in low groups tend to be given more structured work that involves more rehearsal and repetition and fewer opportunities for discussion. In mathematics, low-ability groups are rarely involved in the use of analytical skills or activities that foster creativity and independence. Grouping arrangements influence teachers' expectations and their teaching practices. Teachers who have experience of teaching both heterogeneous and homogeneous classes deploy different practices depending on the type of class they are teaching.

In more heterogeneous or mixed-ability classes, all students have the opportunity to take part in a wider range of activities and thus have greater access to the curriculum. Teaching a class with a wide range of abilities is demanding, and teachers may have a tendency to teach an imaginary average child, with the result that higher-achieving students get bored and lower-achieving students have difficulty keeping up. In some cultures, the expectation is that the class will move through the curriculum together, whereas in other cultures, more emphasis is on teachers setting appropriate work for students who are progressing at different rates.

Mixed-ability teaching may be better suited to certain curriculum areas. In the United Kingdom, teachers generally believe that certain subjects such as mathematics and modern foreign languages are difficult to teach in mixed groups, particularly at advanced levels. Clearly, these views might be challenged by teachers in countries where mixed-ability classes are the norm, even at secondary level. Moreover, research demonstrates that effective mixed-ability teaching is possible, provided appropriate training and support is given to teachers. Pedagogic

practices such as peer-assisted learning, collaborative learning, and differentiated instruction may be helpful.

Organizational Issues

Ability grouping brings with it a number of practical issues, including fair and accurate placement of students in groups, opportunities for movement between groups, and allocation of teachers to groups. Schools use a variety of assessments to place children in ability groups, including standard tests of general cognitive ability, examination results, and class tests. Schools may also take account of other factors such as effort and motivation, which play an important part in student achievement but may be more difficult to measure with accuracy.

Mobility between groups is seen as desirable, yet tends to occur infrequently. Movement into a higher group may be challenging for a student if that group works at a faster pace and covers more topics in the curriculum, leaving additional ground to be made up. Such organizational issues mean that even supposedly homogeneous groups will contain students with a spread of attainment and motivation. The implication is that when teaching a class grouped by ability, teachers should recognize the range and be prepared to deploy a repertoire of activities and pedagogic practices.

Conclusions

Highly structured ability grouping does not meet the criteria of achieving high average attainment with a small spread. This may be due, at least in part, to the social and psychological concomitants of stratified systems that increase the salience of perceived ability. More flexible grouping arrangements may reduce some of the negative impacts on low groups when combined with appropriate pedagogies, greater emphasis on effort, and school ethos that values all young learners.

Judith Ireson

See also Classwide Peer Tutoring; Cooperative Learning Groups; Management of Student Grouping; Managing Classroom Discussions; Managing Groupwork

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ACADEMIC DISCIPLINARY PRACTICES

This entry discusses disciplinary practices in the sense of *academic* discipline, in other words, the ways of working and interacting that people think are helpful to achieving a discipline's goals. Disciplinary practices focus on, for example, science, but all disciplines have practices associated with them.

Disciplinary Practices of Scientists

Scientists pursue knowledge and understanding of the natural world, including both empirical knowledge of the phenomena and the conditions under which they occur, and theoretical understanding of why those phenomena occur. A great deal of their training is in how to engage in that pursuit. Put another way, scientists are professional learners, and much of their learning involves *how to learn* about the natural world. They learn to suppose and invent, to identify gaps or inconsistencies in their knowledge and understanding, and to articulate questions. They learn to devise and conduct experiments, to control potentially causal variables, and to try to systematize and mathematize ideas.

The community of scientists develops particular ways of going about its work—*practices* of inquiry, investigation, assessment, and argumentation. These vary across the sciences—for example, practices of realistic sketching and taxonomic classification are more central in botany than in physics—and for this reason it may be better to think of the sciences as a set of disciplines although, of course, there are commonalities as well.

The meaning of the word *discipline* here is different from that used elsewhere in this volume, but it shares a sense of learned control. The control here refers to

the control over the experience students are having, which increases the likelihood of their thinking like a professional in some discipline (e.g., a professional physicist). Budding scientists learn to *discipline their thinking* in the interest of obtaining better knowledge and understanding. They learn not to let themselves trust casual observations or first impressions. They learn to check their own and others' ideas and reasoning for clarity, for inconsistencies or unsupported assumptions, and for fitting them with evidence. They learn to assess ideas for predictive power: A prediction if confirmed can both support an idea as valid and make productive use of it.

Much of this is affective: Part of learning science is learning to get excited with a new idea, the motivating (and somehow pleasant) irritation of an unsolved mystery. It also means learning to tolerate frustration, to manage the feelings of having one's ideas challenged or disproven, and to anticipate the joy of a successful experiment.

The important points here are that disciplinary practices are essential aspects of what educators think of as subject matter, and that they are *ways of behaving*. In recent years, science educators have become aware that science instruction needs to focus more on students' taking up the pursuit and engaging in the practices of science. This is a shift from the traditional (and still predominant) emphasis on content as the body of knowledge scientists have already developed to students' *doing science* themselves. This change in emphasis, clearly highlighted in the recently released Next Generation Science Standards, presents significant new complexities for instruction. Some of the complexities concern the ways of coordinating these different objectives, raising students' disciplinary practices, and teaching traditional content. Others are about classroom management.

Tensions Between Objectives

From taking up the pursuit of scientific knowledge to arriving at canonical understandings, there are many objectives of a student that a teacher has to coordinate. Genuinely to take up the pursuit, students need the freedom to come up with ideas and try them out and assess the merits of those ideas in the ways scientists do—that is, for clarity, for fit with evidence, for explanatory and predictive power. Much as professional scientists, historically, have come up with ideas that did not end up being accepted, so too will students. A wrong idea, one counter to the results of professional scientists' efforts, can reflect excellence in students' beginning scientific practices; for example, a student might believe that global warming is not a problem but proceed to try to prove it by referring

to measures of temperature change over thousands of years, which provides at least a pattern that shows how one might come to the conclusion that global warming is not a problem. What needs supporting is this process of drawing conclusions from data, patterns, and the construction of evidence. Thus, a teacher seeing students drawing incorrect conclusions based on their own compelling evidence and reasoning can experience tension between objectives—will they arrive at the correct ideas and will they take up and develop practices in the pursuit of scientific knowledge?

That tension centers on the *epistemology* of science: Ideas come to be accepted as correct because they fit with the available evidence and reasoning. Authority plays little role in the assessment of ideas. But that is in contrast to what students typically experience in traditional practices of instruction, where correctness is decided by teachers and textbooks. Some curricula work to guide students to follow the coherence, to see how the evidence and reasoning lead to the accepted ideas, but they do well only at anticipating what students think, and so students who are taking up the pursuit often ask questions the curriculum materials do not address.

This creates another tension between teaching the lesson as planned and taking up students' questions and ideas. Traditionally, professional norms (including assessment rubrics to evaluate teacher performance) favor well-structured lesson plans; teachers who deviate from their plans lose points. On their side, students who hear an idea and think it does not fit with their experience would be *doing better science* to contest that idea based on what they know and have seen than to accept it as true on the authority of the teacher.

Disciplinary Practices and Classroom Management

To engage in science as inquiry, as well as to take up the pursuit and learn disciplinary practices, students need *autonomy*. They need *intellectual* autonomy consistent with the practices of science, in which ideas are good if they make sense and fit with the evidence and reasoning scientists have. But intellectual autonomy interacts, in some measure, with behavioral autonomy. To some extent at least, students need freedom to decide when to ask questions, raise objections, consider evidence, and so on.

In essence, the disciplinary practices of science are not authoritarian; obedience is not a disciplinary virtue. As nascent scientists, students should be able to question their teachers' authority, in particular with respect to claims about phenomena and how to understand them. If an idea does not make sense to a student, it is better disciplinary practice for him or her to argue against it.

But this has implications for behavior: When, for example, is a student allowed to contest an idea the teacher has presented? If that idea is part of what motivates the day's activities, may a student contest it before those activities begin?

The point here is that choices of classroom management are very often entangled with and have implications for the substance of instruction. Among other things, progress in approaches to classroom management can support progress in approaches to subject matter. Approaches to classroom management that afford student autonomy make room for student ideas and questions. When students experience respect as people and as thinkers, they can take up the pursuit that is science and become invested as *agents* of the intellectual work that is taking place.

Rather than think of teaching as primarily a matter of imparting information, practitioners who foster disciplinary practices think of it as beginning with watching students and listening to them. This comes with the challenge of understanding what students mean, what they are trying to convey, because part of what students need to learn is to be more articulate in expressing their ideas. It means cultivating students' initiative with respect to matters of knowledge.

In sum, the challenges of teaching to promote academic disciplinary practices are challenges to promote students' initiative, attend to and understand the substance of students' thinking, and adapt and respond to their thinking by continuing to support their thinking in ways essential for success in an academic discipline.

David Hammer

See also Constructivist Approaches; Curriculum and Classroom Management; Interactive Teaching; Progressive Education

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ACTIVE LISTENING AND I-MESSAGES

Active listening and I-messages are communication skills developed by the psychologist Thomas Gordon. Gordon was trained in the client-centered approach to clinical work, developed by his mentor Carl Rogers. A client-centered approach emphasizes the importance of communicating one's understanding and acceptance of the client as a foundation in helping them to solve their problems dealing with their own feelings and relating to others. Gordon is best known for his books *Parent Effectiveness Training*, *Leader Effectiveness Training*, and *Teacher Effectiveness Training*.

According to Gordon, active listening skills and I-messages, which use nonconfrontational methods to resolve conflict, can be used to establish meaningful dialogs between teachers and students—dialogs that help teachers foster a relationship of understanding with their students. Developing strong teacher–student relationships, suggests Gordon, should be at the center of approaches to behavior and classroom management. This entry explains the elements of active listening and I-messages and concludes with a brief summary of current research.

Active Listening

Active listening is a communication skill that involves truly hearing what students are saying, understanding them, and providing meaningful responses. There are three main components of active listening: *analyzing student statements*, *giving feedback*, and *receiving student acknowledgment of feedback*.

Gordon observed that students often do not communicate their feelings directly. Rather, they send out codes. For example, a code for feeling rejected might be stated as, “Marcia is a stuck-up snob!”; a code for test anxiety might be stated as, “Are we going to have a test real soon?” Thus, the first component of active listening is decoding. Teachers must train themselves to hear the underlying feelings students are trying to express in their statements. Additionally, teachers must restate students’ feelings in order to check if their decoding was accurate.

Feedback is the most central component of active listening. Gordon exemplifies feedback well in the following examples:

Example 1:

Student (first grade): Sally tore up my drawing [sobs].
Teacher: You’re disappointed at losing your drawing and angry at Sally for tearing it up.
Student: Yeah. Now I’ll have to do it over!

Example 2:

Student (high school): I don’t know what to take next semester.
(high school): I’d like to take wood shop, but my mother wants me to take algebra.
Teacher: You’re torn between what you want and what your mother wants for you.
Student: Uh-huh.

These examples illustrate the important aspects of feedback. First, Gordon believes active listening can be used both with young children and with adolescents. The child in the first example and the adolescent in the second example both communicate their feelings in code statements, which the teacher then analyzes and responds to. Second, it is important to note that the teacher’s feedback is a statement, not a question. The teacher is not asking, “Do you feel this way?” Rather, the teacher is reflecting what he or she understood back to the student. Third, the feedback is perceived by the student as judgment-free because it is presented in a way that communicates that the teacher genuinely accepts the feelings the student has expressed.

The examples also illustrate the third component of active listening, namely, student acknowledgment. Both the students affirmed that the teacher understood correctly—with “Yeah” and “Uh-huh.” In other examples from Gordon’s work, the teacher had understood inaccurately and the students then corrected the teacher. In these instances, there is a back-and-forth quality in the communication between the teacher and the student. After the student provides further information, the teacher adjusts the feedback given until the student acknowledges that the teacher has understood him or her correctly.

Gordon describes many positive effects of active listening for students, such as students solving problems independently and expressing or releasing strong emotions. However, active listening is essential, believes Gordon, because of its positive effects on the teacher–student relationship and in which students feel being heard and understood, leading to a student being more cooperative, thoughtful, and sensitive in relating to others. Students who are heard by their teachers invariably experience a sense of greater self-worth and importance. The satisfaction of being understood, coupled with increased self-esteem, makes students feel warmly toward their teachers. Teachers too are affected by active listening—as they come to feel a similar warmth and closeness and as they get a broader understanding of their students and begin to see things in their perspectives.

Active listening gives students proof that the teacher has really heard and understood their inner feelings. The students feel *known*. Teachers who develop active

listening skills will be better able to understand their students. This mutual understanding and caring, suggests Gordon, can help with behavior problems and classroom management.

I-Messages

I-messages, also called I-statements, were developed in the 1960s by Gordon to provide clear and effective interpersonal communication, particularly about an area of conflict. They usually center on a person's feelings, beliefs, or values and always begin with the word *I*. They are used to provide constructive criticism in a nonconfrontational manner, as the person doing the criticizing is able to *own* the problem. They are frequently used to resolve conflicts in schools and workplaces across the United States. There are three parts to any I-message:

- The speaker begins by stating his or her feeling, saying "I feel . . ."
- Next, he or she will describe the behavior without blaming the receiver of the statement, saying "when" (description of behavior).
- Finally, the speaker asks for help, saying "I would like" (how the speaker would like to have the problem solved)."

When giving an I-message, the speaker is delivering information about himself or herself rather than about the listener. In addition, it must contain true information. Gordon describes three categories of I-statements:

- Positive (used to strengthen relationships): "I love talking together in the morning. I hope we can do this every day."
- Preventive: "I am going to be teaching a small group a reading lesson. I will need everybody else to read independently so that I can teach the small group."
- Declarative: "I feel hurt when pencils are missing from my desk. I hope that you can help me find the pencils that are missing."

Gordon developed I-messages in an effort to provide an effective method of negotiating conflict. By *owning* the problem, the speaker does not place the blame on the recipient but instead asks for help in solving the problem. In the classroom, this places the responsibility on the students themselves to solve the problem rather than requiring a teacher to provide the solution. In addition, it is less confrontational because the student scarcely feels being attacked by the teacher; the teacher is simply asking for help with a problem he or she is experiencing. One place where this can be helpful is in the context of classroom arguments. For example, a third-grade student complained that another child was doing things that

prevented him from doing his work. Instead of separating the two or asking the other child to stop his distracting behavior, the teacher asked the complaining child to use an I-message to share how he was feeling.

Child A: I feel frustrated when you don't play the math game because it means that I can't do my work.

Child B: I'm sorry. I can play the game. But you wouldn't stay with me!

Teacher: Could you say how that made you feel?

Child A: I felt mad when I didn't know how to play the game, and you kept walking away from me!

Child B: I'm sorry.

Teacher: Can you tell each other what you need to be successful partners?

Child A: I need you to play faster.

Child B: I need you to stay with me, and help me when I don't know what to do.

In this situation, using I-messages prevented the conversation from devolving into an endless round of accusations. Because neither child felt attacked, they were able to solve the problem with minimal teacher support. In fact, when faced with partner work the next day, they were able to work together successfully with just a quick reminder of the agreements they had made the previous day.

While this situation is fairly straightforward, Gordon advocated for the use of I-messages in more complex situations as well. For example, a teacher might use I-statement in a situation where a child's feelings have been hurt by another child. Here the situation is more delicate, and Gordon suggests that the success of I-message will be greatly enhanced if a teacher pairs it with *active listening* so that both parties feel their concerns are being heard and understood.

Conclusion: Current Research

While studies have not always shown I-statements to be effective, when I-statements are used properly and in ways that prevent listeners from feeling attacked and becoming defensive, they can be highly effective in promoting cooperation between teachers and children (see the references below). Studies seem particularly positive among early elementary students. Messages that include emotional distress were the most likely to receive a positive response from the receiver.

Studies that did not find I-messages effective attributed this chiefly to the fact that students continued to feel personally attacked whether or not the message was phrased in a way that did not appear to blame them. They associated being asked to change their behavior with negative feelings, which made it less likely that the change being requested would happen. There is some evidence that younger students positively interpret I-statements, but that effectiveness diminishes as the child grows older. Overall, it seems that research supports the use of I-messages as a worthwhile communication tool with greater effectiveness for younger students in particular.

Jessica Davis and Jennifer Gehling

See also Gordon, Thomas; Mindfulness Practices for Teachers; Relationship-Based Approaches to Classroom Management; Teacher–Student Relationships; Teacher–Student Relationships and Behaviorally At-Risk Students; Warmth and Classroom Management

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ACTIVE STUDENT RESPONDING

One of the most consistent and robust findings of educational research over the past 40 years is the correlation between increased student participation during instruction and improved learning outcomes. Researchers have also measured the effects of student participation on student deportment, and the nearly universal finding of these studies is that actively engaged students not only learn more but also misbehave less. Given these findings, it is essential that educators understand how to measure and increase student participation.

Educational researchers have developed a variety of concepts for measuring the form and extent of student engagement with instruction, most notably *on-task behavior*, *academic learning time*, *opportunities to respond*, and *active student response* (ASR). This entry describes the advantages of ASR as a metric for

student participation, identifies challenges posed by group instruction, and describes two research-based techniques for increasing student engagement during group instruction.

Defining and Measuring ASR

ASR occurs when a student emits a detectable response to ongoing instruction. What student responses are counted as ASR is determined by each lesson’s learning objective(s). Thus, the range of student responses that might qualify as ASR is as broad as the lessons teachers teach. A brief list of potential ASR examples include words read, sentences written, algebra problems answered, lengths and weights measured, musical notes played, historical figures named, and chemical compounds analyzed. ASR is measured by counting the number of lesson-related responses emitted by a student in a given period of instruction.

As a general rule, lessons in which students make many relevant responses are more effective than lessons in which students make few responses. There is, of course, a point at which more responses yield no more learning, and ASR-rich lessons help teachers detect it. Students’ responses reveal their relative mastery of each learning objective, providing teachers real-time feedback on when instruction can shift most efficiently to the next objective or part of the curriculum.

As a metric of student engagement, ASR offers several advantages:

- Because ASR is a direct measure of the primary behavior of interest—student responses to the lesson/curriculum, it is superior to proxy measures such as on-task behavior.
- ASR data are easy to obtain: teachers—or students themselves—simply count the number of responses.
- ASR data are collected and reported as *frequency* measures (typically, number of responses per minute). Frequency (also called *rate of response*) is both sensitive to changes in instructional practices and unlimited by ceilings as are time-based measures of engagement reported as the number of minutes or the percentage of observed intervals. A lesson resulting in 100% on-task behavior cannot be improved by that measure, whereas any lesson in which students make nearly any number of responses might be revised to yield even more ASR.
- ASR can be measured within any instructional format (e.g., teacher-led whole-class or small-group lessons, peer tutoring, computer-assisted, self-study), setting (e.g., academic classroom, science lab, music room, gymnasium, community-based instruction), or curriculum content.

When teachers use high ASR instructional tactics, their students are less off-task and disruptive, sometimes markedly so. Researchers have replicated this finding in pre-K through secondary classrooms in urban, rural, and suburban schools, and with typically developing students and students with disabilities.

Challenges Posed by Group Instruction

Teachers know the importance of student participation. Ask any group of teachers whether learning is enhanced and deportment better when their students are actively engaged with the lesson. Overwhelmingly they will answer with a “yes.” The stumbling block is having to teach groups of students, which presents five major challenges: maintaining students’ attention, giving each student sufficient opportunities to respond, providing feedback for students’ responses, monitoring students’ learning, and preventing and dealing with disruptive behavior.

Meeting these challenges can be so difficult that when students just pay attention (i.e., are on-task and do not act out) it is accepted as evidence of an effective lesson. But students are often judged on-task, even while making few, if any, lesson-related responses.

Recitation by one student at a time is the most common method of student participation during teacher-led group instruction: The teacher poses a question or problem to the class, students who wish to answer raise their hands, and the teacher selects a student to answer. While the technique provides an active learning opportunity for the student who is called upon, his or her classmates are usually passive observers at best.

Calling upon individual students to respond is problematic for another reason: high-achieving students happily answer most questions, while low achievers, for whom active participation is most needed, respond infrequently.

Increasing ASR During Group Instruction

A technique that allows each student in the class to respond to every question and with which the teacher can provide effective feedback for all that ASR would help solve the problems inherent with group instruction. Two such techniques are choral responding (CR) and response cards. Each has been featured in classroom experiments, demonstrating a strong relationship between high rates of ASR and reduced off-task and disruptive behavior (see research cited in the Further Readings).

Choral Responding

CR (students orally responding in unison to a series of questions presented by the teacher) is the simplest and quickest way to increase student participation during group lessons. CR can be used to teach new knowledge and skills or to review previously taught concepts in any curriculum content that meets three criteria: (1) each question has only one correct answer, (2) each question can be answered with a brief response, and (3) the material is suitable for a lively paced presentation.

Guidelines for CR

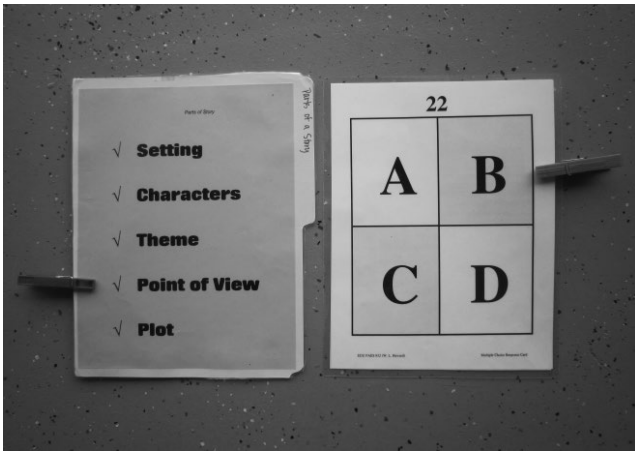
Give clear directions and model the activity: Tell students the types of questions to be asked and demonstrate one or two trials by acting out the roles of teacher and students. For example, “How many hydrogen atoms in a molecule of methane?” [pause briefly, give signal for students to respond] “Four.”

Provide a brief thinking pause before signaling students to respond: Let the complexity of the question/problem and students’ relative level of mastery determine the duration of the pause. If a thinking pause of more than 4 or 5 seconds is required for students to answer, break the content into smaller chunks and students’ prerequisite skills or background knowledge.

Signal students to respond: Use a clear, consistent auditory and/or visual signal for students to respond. For example, “class,” “how many,” a finger snap, a hand or arm movement. Saying “Get ready” immediately before signaling the students’ response promotes unison responding.

Provide feedback: When only correct answers are heard, (1) give confirmation and/or praise (e.g., “Yes! All right!”, “You got it”, “Great!”) and (2) present the next question, item, or problem. When one or two incorrect responses are heard, (1) confirm the majority response and restate the correct answer in context with the question for the students who erred (e.g., “Yes. A molecule of methane contains four hydrogen atoms.”) and (2) a few trials later present the same question again. When more incorrect responses are heard, (1) state the correct answer with a *brief* explanation, (2) immediately repeat the same question and signal a choral response, and (3) several trials later present the same question again.

Intersperse individual turns: Now and then, instead of signaling a unison response, call upon an individual student to answer the question. Present the question before calling a student’s name, and do it randomly so students cannot predict when they will be called upon. Individual turns can give low-achieving students opportunities to shine in front of their classmates. After a target student chorally voices a correct response, the teacher repeats the question several trials later and calls upon that student to answer individually.

Photo A Preprinted Response Cards

Maintain a lively pace: When teachers conduct CR at a fast pace, students make more responses (i.e., more ASR), respond with higher accuracy, and engage in less off-task behavior compared to slow-paced CR. Preparing questions and examples prior to the lesson enables the teacher to focus on students' responses and move without hesitation from one learning trial to the next.

Response Cards

Response cards are cards, signs, or other items simultaneously held up by students to display their answers to teacher-presented questions. There are two basic types: preprinted and write-on.

When using *preprinted response cards*, each student selects from a personal set of cards the card with the answer he or she wishes to display, for example, a card with *Yes/True* printed in green on one side and *No/False* in red on the other, colors, geometric shapes, traffic signs, anatomical structures, and parts of speech. Instead of giving each student a set of cards, teachers can distribute a single preprinted response card containing multiple answers. For example, a card with clearly marked sections identified as *proteins*, *fat*, *carbohydrates*, *vitamins*, and *minerals* for use in a lesson on healthful eating habits. In its humblest form, the preprinted response card with multiple answers is a *pinch card*: students hold up their cards with fingers pinching their answers. Students can also identify their answers with colored clothespins (see Photo A). Preprinted response cards may also have built-in devices for displaying answers, such as a card-board clock with movable hour and minute hands.

When using *write-on response cards*, students mark their answers on blank cards that they erase after each learning trial. A set of 40 durable 9-by-12-inch write-on response cards can be cut from a 4-by-8-foot

sheet of white laminated bathroom board (available from builders' supply stores). It costs about \$25. Dry-erase markers can be purchased at a discount at most office supply stores. Old washcloths and socks make excellent response card erasers; though not as *green*, paper towels and napkins will easily wipe response cards clean as well.

Customized write-on response cards provide structure for curriculum-specific responses. For example, music students might mark notes on treble and bass clef scales drawn in permanent marker on their cards; students in driver education class could draw where their car should go on response cards with permanent streets, roadways, or intersections.

Guidelines for All Types of Response Cards

- Model several question-and-answer trials and let students practice using their response cards.
- Maintain a lively pace; prepare a list of questions/problems and keep intervals between trials brief.
- Use clear, consistent signals to cue students when to display their response cards (e.g., “Cards up”; “Cards down”).
- Do not let students think it is cheating to look at classmates' response cards. Students can learn from watching others.

Guidelines for Preprinted Response Cards

- Make them easy to see (e.g., consider size, print type, color codes).
- Make them easy for students to manipulate and display (e.g., put answers on both sides; attach a set of related cards to a ring [see Photo B]).
- Begin instruction on a new content area with a small number of fact/concept cards (perhaps just two). Gradually add cards as students' knowledge/skills improve.

Guidelines for Write-On Response Cards

- Limit language-based responses to one to three words.
- Keep a few extra markers on hand.
- Students worried about making spelling mistakes may hesitate to participate. Have students practice spelling of new terms on their response card before the lesson begins; write new terms on the board and tell students to copy the spellings as needed during the lesson; and/or use the don't worry technique, tell students to try their best and that misspellings will not count against them.
- Students enjoy doodling on response cards. After a good lesson, let students draw on the cards for a few minutes.

Photo B Preprinted Response Cards

Conclusion

Good classroom management rests on a foundation of effective instruction, and effective instruction calls for active student responding. It does so both for purposes of learning and for purposes of maintaining good student behavior. Two methods for increasing active student responding during group instruction—choral responding and response cards—are discussed here. These and other research-based methods for promoting active student responding should be part of every teacher's repertoire.

William L. Heward

See also Applied Behavior Analysis; Choral Response; Conditions for Learning; Instruction and Cognitive Load; Interactive Teaching; Student Interest, Stimulating and Maintaining; Whole-Class Methods

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ADHD

See Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder

AFRICAN AMERICAN STYLES OF TEACHING AND DISCIPLINING

Closing the *achievement gap* between Caucasian students and students from other backgrounds has caused many teachers to reexamine their practices. To that end, a reexamination of African American styles of teaching and disciplining students has shown that certain approaches to teaching and disciplining are more successful with African American children. These approaches demonstrate awareness and appreciation of African American styles of relating African American traditions and African American students' needs for mentoring and being nurtured.

Furthermore, this reexamination of teacher practices has revealed that certain methods of disciplining are more effective with African American students and help them feel more a part of the learning community. In particular, there is now an appreciation by teachers and administrators that African American students, especially males, are often unduly and more severely treated than their Caucasian counterparts—leading to the realization that changing ordinary ways of disciplines is needed in order to allow many African American children to succeed in school. Programs that encourage cross-cultural competence have had the most success in attaining these goals.

Teaching African American Students

While nearly half of the students served by public schools are children of color, approximately 85% of the teachers serving them are Caucasian, and a similar percentage of them females. These disparities are believed by many to contribute to the discipline gap, as the social and cultural differences between teachers and students create situations that result in conflict and disagreements.

Discrepancies between the cultural constructs of teachers and African American students are believed to be a significant explanatory factor in both achievement and discipline gaps. Many teachers, for example, view the parenting practices of African American parents of low socioeconomic status as different from and worse than those of middle-class Caucasian parents. Cultural differences result in situations that create differential student treatment, conduct that leads to the systematic marginalization of nonmainstream children, especially African Americans. Inattention to the learning styles of African American children further exacerbates this situation, especially among non-Black teachers.

Studies that have examined the learning styles of African American children suggest that differences exist between Black students and their Caucasian age peers. For example, the African American community often values forms of nonverbal expression such as animation, displays of emotion, movement, and spontaneity more than does mainstream culture. African American children also often display culturally based traits such as open and unalloyed exuberance, bravado, and playful aggression when not directed to behave otherwise. Other differences relate to confident interpersonal styles, display of distinctive forms of dress, and increased body ornamentation. These differences in nonverbal expression have also been found to be more distinctive among African American males.

Differences also exist in verbal exchanges among African American children. Studies have suggested that

African Americans engage in unique expression patterns, many of which are misunderstood by non-Black teachers. African American speech has been organized into distinct categories that represent departures from the communication patterns of other groups. These categories are call-and-response, narrative sequencing, signification, and tonal semantics. For example, many African American children expect communication between a speaker and listeners to be interactive, anticipate stories to be less linear in form, use symbols to convey a message, and vary tone to relay meaning. As some observers have pointed out, greater understanding and appreciation of African American students' verbal and nonverbal communication styles, and of behaviors associated with the formation of oppositional identities (the desire to avoid *acting White*), increases the chance of success of African American children.

Differences in teaching styles of non-African American teachers and their Black counterparts may also contribute to achievement and discipline gaps. While Caucasian teachers tend to utter instructions and commands in the form of questions, African American teachers are more likely to use a directive approach. This direct and authoritative approach more closely approximates the communicative styles used in the African American children's homes and leads to a better understanding of and compliance with teacher directions than does indirect speech.

Non-Black teachers' knowledge of cultural differences in interpersonal interactions also reduces potential conflict between themselves and African American children. Differences in cultural norms related to body ornamentation, eye contact, gestures, proximity (body space), and styles of dress between non-Black teachers and their African American students often interfere with Black children's learning. Teaching styles that permit greater student-directed physical movement and displays of emotion on the part of children increase the success of African American children in the classroom.

For optimal learning to occur in classrooms serving African American children, changes must also occur in the curriculum to better ensure increased motivation and a resolution of student identity issues. Teachers who utilize a balanced curriculum have found that when children study situations and individuals that are relevant to them, their interest in studies increases, as does their time on task. Biased curriculum resources should be avoided, and mentoring and relationship-building activities between African American children and adult mentors also serve to increase Black students' success.

Providing a classroom culture that supports collaboration can greatly contribute to a perspectival shift that results in high expectations and the elevation of

academic performance. Providing the appropriate level of scaffolding that allows African American children to access rigorous curriculum is also vital, as are out-of-school learning experiences that suggest some of the rewards of academic success. Teachers who concentrate on student strengths while also attending to students' learning needs also permit African American children to more fully benefit from classroom instruction. Making many of the hidden rules of schooling explicit also assists African American children to better negotiate their academic journeys.

Disciplining African American Students

It is widely recognized that teachers and administrators discipline African American students at rates that are disproportionately high in relation to their statistical representation in American public schools. This discipline gap is present in all major school districts across the United States. Children who come from homes of low socioeconomic status are also more likely to be disciplined, as are male students.

Certain changes in practice around discipline can prevent many of the disparities that negatively affect African American children. Providing *all* students with a welcoming, pleasant learning environment, both in the classroom and in the school as a whole, is one of the best ways of reducing the discipline gap between Black and other children. Allowing African American children opportunities to connect with their community will also increase their sense of belonging to the school community and reduce feelings of isolation and separation. Additionally, teachers who are able to enlist adults from the community to support African American children outside of instruction increase the opportunities available to those children for academic reinforcement. All of these steps are likely to increase the motivation of African American children, leading to increased engagement and fewer disciplinary problems.

Recognizing that many disciplinary infractions result from African American children's lack of understanding of certain cultural norms can also assist teachers and administrators who wish to reduce the discipline gap. By explicitly teaching African American children the behavioral expectations of the school, teachers and administrators can build consensus regarding how best to handle school issues and increase the sense of school unity. When inequitable discipline of African American students occurs, increasing the consistency and accuracy of the application of the school's code of student conduct can help to reduce this disparity. Care must be taken to eliminate rules and procedures that stereotype certain cultures, and a regular faculty review of the code

of student conduct can assist in ensuring more equitable disciplinary results.

Increasing the non-African American teachers' knowledge of the community in which they serve and of the students with whom they work can also assist in reducing the discipline gap. Encouraging networking activities between teachers and members of the community can increase the opportunities for African American students, as well as build the competencies of the teachers who work with them. Teachers who get to know their students outside of class also have fewer disciplinary problems with the children with whom they work. This interaction may occur through attendance at sporting events or cultural activities at school, via the sponsorship of student clubs and organizations, or as the result of informal dealings. In certain cases, providing teachers with racial/cultural sensitivity training might be necessary to build the competencies needed to reduce inequities in the discipline of African American students. Such training often results in an increased appreciation for racial/cultural similarities and differences.

When interacting with African American students, certain practices seem to reduce the number of disciplinary incidents. Teachers who adopt an assertive discipline approach to classroom management have fewer behavioral problems with African American students. To implement such a program, teachers and schools need to formulate and disseminate a code of conduct that all constituencies understand.

Concluding Remarks

Successful teachers model responsibility and respect and positively reinforce good behavior. When sanctions for misbehavior are applied, these should be suitable for the infraction and neutrally applied. At all times, misbehavior should be contextualized, so that African American children understand that they are responsible for their actions and that changing their behaviors will result in fewer problems. Better student behavior, and not retribution or humiliation, should be the goal of the disciplinary system. When such changes have been implemented, perceived problems with African American students have decreased significantly.

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See also Active Student Responding; Approaches to Classroom Management: Types; Authority, Children's Concepts of; Choral Response; Climate: School and Classroom; Culturally Pluralistic Classrooms; Culturally Responsive Classrooms for African American Students; New Teachers in Diverse Classrooms; Underachievement and Culturally Different Students; Urban Schools

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AGE AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Of all the variables influencing how classroom management is defined and carried out, considerations regarding age and developmental level are among the most important, so it is crucial that educators understand relationship of age with classroom management. From preschool through high school, students undergo considerable social-emotional, cognitive, and linguistic development. This development across the school-age years has implications for classroom management and how best to match classroom management strategies to a student's age and developmental stage. Acquiring an understanding of normative development allows educators to view student behavior through a lens that enhances understanding, problem solving, and subsequent intervention.

Age changes and typical developmental changes do not always coincide perfectly, or even imperfectly, as is the case with children with disabilities. Nonetheless, it is helpful to view classroom management within the context of normative development. That is, in most cases, we can expect that age brings predictable changes in development; so in this entry, for efficiency's sake, the authors review the two as if they are one and the same. Furthermore, conceptions of normative development may take on different meanings across different cultures. However, there are universal developmental trends that are applicable across cultures. Here, the focus will be on those universal themes related to social-emotional, cognitive, and language development—and on their significance for how educators design and manage classrooms so as to create optimal learning environments.

Developmental Considerations and Implications for Classroom Management

For the purpose of linking age to the school context, this discussion groups student development into the following categories: *preschool years*, *elementary school*

years, and the *middle school and high school years*. In each age period, one can trace the common themes of social-emotional, cognitive, and language development—and note their implications for classroom management. In discussing each of these age periods, the authors focus on teacher–student and peer relations, learning, and language as they reflect development and as they relate to classroom management.

The Preschool Years

With respect to children's social-emotional, cognitive, and language development, in the preschool years major themes involve maintaining secure attachments, symbol formation (as evidenced especially in make-believe play and language development), and emerging abilities to decenter (taking another's point of view) that make possible emerging friendships.

Preschoolers' attachment concerns are perhaps most evident when separating from their primary caregiver upon arrival at school or day care. Thoughtful preschool programs usually set up routines for helping the caregiver and the child to separate as smoothly as possible and for a child to begin to function independently of the caregiver. While routines may differ from program to program, they often include an agreed-upon time to say good-bye, to wave from a window, and to be led gently (if necessary) and by a soft-spoken, nurturing teacher to some interesting play material or play activity, that is, they often include thoughtful supports for making separation easier for the child.

Once in the classroom and fully engaged, young children often develop attachments to their teacher—as evidenced by the way they look up from their play or work to check in and communicate what they are doing and accomplishing (e.g., “I made a castle!”). Skilled teachers respond by reflecting back in ways that communicate to the child that he or she is seen, heard, and known (“I see you made a castle!”), thus maintaining and reinforcing the attachment between the teacher and the child. Attachments between the teacher and the child are also shown in the way that young children ask for help (e.g., with putting on a jacket) and in the way they treat teachers as allies in times of trouble (e.g., when another child has grabbed a toy). And, more obviously, attachments are shown in the way preschoolers seek physical proximity and touch—as when a preschooler crawls into a teacher's lap at meeting time. If this connection is made with respect to young children feeling at least somewhat attached to their teacher, confidence grows and learning opportunities expand greatly. Skilled early childhood educators understand that this is all part of the job of managing classrooms—to be the *in loco* attachment figure so that

young children can feel secure enough to explore the world around them.

Preschoolers' peer relationships are sometimes characterized negatively as being egocentric, compared with those of older children. Nevertheless, in a well-managed classroom with opportunities for meaningful interactions around play, preschoolers can show remarkable motivation and competence in becoming cooperative friends with one or more peers. When structured well, classroom environments support these positive interactions with rules the children internalize to ensure good social play ("No hitting," "Ask, don't grab," etc.) and with systematic ways of settling disputes.

During this time, classroom management should also support such emerging friendships—and helping those children who have difficulties forming friendships and developing social skills. One way of helping those children having difficulties forming friendships is for teachers to co-play with a child who is either isolated (watches and wanders and plays alone or in parallel) or who is bossy and friendless—so that a child experiences success as part of a healthy cooperative play relationship and then can better adapt when the partner is a peer.

Preschoolers' cognitive development can be seen not only in changes in their ability to communicate, self-regulate, and reason but also in features of their play styles, including their emerging skills at make-believe. Make-believe play is a form of symbolizing—symbols that represent to the child and increasingly to others what the child experiences. These symbols start as simple acts representing familiar events (such as stirring a pot to pretend to cook) but increasingly become organized to create more elaborate narratives. Early childhood educators often encourage this developmental skill by creating environments that facilitate symbolizing (e.g., symbolizing with dolls so as to create narratives, symbolizing with markers and paper so as to create two-dimensional representations of three-dimensional scenes). Additionally, tasks and activities are often structured with consideration to preschoolers' cognitive development. Children at this age are very physically active and have a low frustration tolerance. Therefore, frequent breaks, shorter tasks, and a larger proportion of varied activities are needed during the day in order to accommodate shorter attention spans.

With respect to language and language development, one of the most prominent features of the preschool years is that young children develop a remarkable capacity to use language to communicate and think. However, close inspection shows that their understanding of others' language is limited by their need to have language to be concrete and specific. The implications for classroom management are clear: Teachers must speak differently from the way they speak to older children and adults.

For example, instead of using abstract language such as "You need to behave yourselves" or "You need to control yourselves," teachers of young children might say, "You need to sit on your bottom during circle time" and "Keep your hands and feet to yourselves."

In addition to these receptive language considerations, it is important to also recognize that, owing to emerging expressive language skills throughout early childhood, behavior often serves a communicative function to the child. Thus, often young children use their behavior to communicate their unmet wants or needs or to express emotions (e.g., having a tantrum to express frustration, hunger, etc.). Skilled educators view student behavior through this lens; they understand that the child is often trying to communicate something through his or her behavior.

The Elementary School Years

In the elementary school years, development is marked by further increases in self-control and self-regulation, as well as by a heightened emphasis on achievement and on peer relationships governed by rule systems concerned with fairness. With respect to teacher-child and peer relations, during the elementary school years children increasingly look to their peers in developing a sense of security and forming attachments while depending relatively less on teachers. In particular, children at this age seek increased independence and friendship groups where shared interests (e.g., games with rules, sports) can be played out cooperatively and without much adult interference. Therefore, classroom management for this age period should focus on cultivating positive teacher-child relationships that show care and concern (and humor), as well as respect children's need to find their main supports in cooperative friendships.

For some teachers, helping children listen to one another and teaching them how to show respect for one another becomes a central part of the curriculum and a central theme in classroom management. For example, in elementary classrooms, it is not uncommon to find teachers holding open discussions that have children reflecting on ways to show respect to their peers. Similarly, they may have classwide discussions about disruptive behavior, what it looks like, and how it impacts the classroom environment.

Finally, there are teaching devices, such as grouping children into cooperative learning groups, that exemplify how classroom management and children's emerging social-emotional skills for functioning in peer groups go hand-in-hand. But again, these emerging social-emotional skills need active support. So, for example, it is often not enough to assign children to groups and have them work cooperatively. They must be

closely monitored (see entries on Monitoring, Proximity Control) with a teacher not only close by but also ready to provide prompts, if prompts are requested or needed.

Students can attend to tasks for longer periods of time and take pride in achieving on assigned academic tasks and on work (not simply play) that is sometimes carried out cooperatively with classmates. Further, their receptive language skills facilitate understanding and comprehension of language (e.g., from didactic lectures), and they develop the capacity to learn about invisible realities (historical figures and events, germs that affect the body, etc.). Thus, during the elementary school years, lessons begin to span longer periods of time and refer to that which cannot be understood simply by reflecting on one's own experience or by observing the immediate context.

However, these emerging cognitive abilities to imagine that which cannot be perceived or grasped directly are only just emerging, and so classroom management for this age period entails providing lots of support for sustaining attention and helping children understand. For example, books still have pictures and narratives are still straightforward in their meaning (with meaning derived from actions, not from allegories, implied associations, etc.). In other words, in matching classroom management to children's emerging cognitive skills, teachers introduce academic subjects (reading, writing, math, science) but in ways that respect the need for showing and not just telling, because having visuals and narratives support ideas in ways that better ensure that children will understand—quality instruction at students' instructional level is an essential component of good classroom management.

The Middle School and High School Years

While the differences between the middle and high school years may appear to be greater than the similarities, with respect to classroom management they share important features. First and foremost, these are years when students wrestle with identity issues and feelings related to their gender, racial and ethnic identity, personal beliefs and religious affiliations, sexual orientation, and even physical characteristics such as being short or tall; the list can be incredibly long. Those feelings tied to the formation of an identity are evidenced in the ways adolescents often become hypervigilant about appearances—their dress, their ways of speaking and others' ways of speaking to them, and so on. Psychologically speaking, they are faced with a new developmental task, namely, the task of defining for themselves who they are or should be, and not letting others do this for them. This is a formidable task, one that individuals often pursue long into adulthood.

With respect to classroom management, identity issues may present themselves in ways that challenge teachers, as exemplified by the ways adolescents are humorous or respond to humor—especially to humor that pokes fun at societal conventions and that, for a moment, embraces what is *inappropriate* or absurd. Sexual and racial/ethnic humor can become common even among the well-behaved—and may vary in terms of malicious intent or simply trying to gain attention and acceptance by their peer group. Adolescents are experimenting with identities not found in the identities imposed on them by parents and teachers. Skilled teachers of adolescents understand and manage their classrooms with a certain mindfulness that also shows respect and care, as opposed to becoming shocked, reactive, and harsh in their discipline. Instead, planned ignoring is often used when behavior is perceived as attention-seeking and mildly inappropriate.

With respect to development and developmental tasks, during the middle and high school years, intimacy and the capacity to form intimate relationships is the complement to identity formation and the capacity to define and accept oneself. Intimacy may include romance and lust, but the issue of intimacy is much larger, and we see this in how young adolescents become friends in new ways—dressing alike, talking similarly, talking and texting endlessly, and sharing with one another not only their time out of school but also their thoughts and feelings just about everything.

Skilled teachers understand that adolescents need to focus on this task of becoming intimate with their peers, and so for the first time, perhaps, the teacher becomes not an attachment figure but a mentor who understands the inner struggles students face, as well as someone who has high expectations that challenge students to become the adults they secretly want to become. In other words, sound classroom management at this age involves showing genuine understanding for the struggles around identity and intimacy issues while simultaneously challenging students to act responsibly and build skills that prepare them for adulthood.

In the middle and high school years, we can expect classroom and schoolwide management to include systems and methods that give more voice and responsibility to students themselves, as evidenced in group projects that require independent research on the part of the group, both within and outside of school. We can expect introducing curriculum that, for the first time, demands serious involvement on the part of students and that demands or encourages student autonomy, such as conducting independent inquiry into the causes of climate change, or taking responsibility for learning how to do library and Internet searches independently. During these years, then, classroom management

involves careful scaffolding so that students can participate in increasingly independent ways—ways that are considered to be responsible, creative, caring, and valued in a democratic society.

Because adolescents are in the process of establishing their own identity, actively working to develop a sense of autonomy and independence, these developmental processes can result in boundary testing and normative questioning of rules and boundaries. Physical changes associated with puberty also impact student behavior. It is also important to note that, because of developmental changes during puberty, adolescents require greater amounts of sleep than other children. In a survey conducted by the National Sleep Foundation in 2006, it was found that 45% of adolescents did not obtain adequate sleep on school nights. Insufficient amounts of sleep can impact student behavior as evidenced by lethargy, inattention, and/or irritability.

As highlighted above, developmental changes impact student behavior. Not only are developmental considerations important for our understanding of behavior and classroom management, but problem behaviors also tend to change over time. For example, when we consider maladaptive behavior at the elementary level, we may think of hyperactivity or aggression. Or when we consider maladaptive behavior at the high school level, we may think of truancy or theft. The topography of behavior often changes as students grow older. Thus, it is beneficial to view behavior through a developmental lens in order to better understand the behavior and to adapt classroom management approaches based on developmental needs and challenges.

Developmental Trajectories

In addition to considering developmental stages, understanding normative developmental trajectories is also important so that educators can understand how behavior changes over time. Substantial research has been undertaken in an effort to better understand how behavior changes as children grow. Research in this area often focuses on two broad classes of behavior: internalizing and externalizing behavior. Internalizing behavior refers to behaviors that are directed inward, such as withdrawal or anxiety, and externalizing behaviors such as verbal aggression or noncompliance are directed outward.

Multi-year studies of student behavior often show normative decreases in externalizing, aggressive, and disruptive behavior as children grow. These findings are consistent with research regarding normative child development, specifically that self-regulation skills improve with time and children become increasingly self-aware as they grow. Conversely, there is also evidence to suggest that there are normative increases

in internalizing behavior over time as children grow. Thus, educators should also be aware how issues such as depression and anxiety impact student behavior and how developmental trends suggest increases in these issues with age. While externalizing behaviors are often more readily apparent in classroom settings, internalizing behaviors are equally problematic and warrant immediate attention, evaluation, and intervention.

In addition to general normative trends in student behaviors as they age, research has also supported gender differences in behavioral trajectories. In particular, boys tend to exhibit higher rates of externalizing behaviors compared with girls over time. Conversely, girls tend to exhibit higher rates of internalizing behaviors compared with boys. Additional factors have also been found to influence behavioral trajectories, such as race, socioeconomic status, and risk factors. By understanding normative trends in behavior and contextual factors influencing such trends, educators can more readily identify students who may be at risk for behavioral difficulties. Early identification permits early intervention, and by intervening early, lasting impacts can be made in improving student outcomes.

Shifting Expectations and Instructional Practices

When considering developmental changes in student behavior during the school years, it is also important to understand how teacher expectations change as children age. When children begin to attend school, they must adapt to new rules and expectations and learn how to become students. By the time students reach high school, the assumption is made that students know what is required of them in terms of behavioral rules and expectations. Thus, adult tolerance for disruptive behavior tends to decrease as children age. Relatedly, disciplinary practices change as students get older, with a higher tendency to utilize punitive approaches such as suspensions and expulsions in middle and high school settings. Increasingly, however, there is consensus among educators that punitive approaches to school discipline should be avoided at all grade levels. Instead, positive approaches should always be utilized for classroom behavior management.

Kathleen Lane and colleagues have undertaken research aimed to better understand how teacher expectations of students change across grades. In their work, they have found relatively stable patterns in expectations across grade levels. Specifically, most teachers, regardless of grade level taught, rated self-control and cooperation skills as highly important for success. One notable exception was the tendency for high school teachers to rate assertion skills as less important than do

elementary or middle school teachers. Although teachers may value similar skills across grades, the extent to which teachers expect mastery of these skills likely differs by grade level. Intuitively, one can presume that as academic expectations increase with age, behavioral expectations increase as well, though little research has examined this assertion empirically.

Relatedly, there is evidence to suggest that teachers utilize different classroom management approaches as a function of student grade level. In a seminal study related to classroom instructional practices across grades, Mary White found declining rates of teacher-delivered praise across each grade, starting at first grade and ending at 12th grade. Conversely, she also discovered increasing rates of teacher disapproval across second grade through 12th grade. While these trends are hopefully diminishing in recent years with the advent of schoolwide positive behavior support initiatives, it is important that educators engage in self-evaluation regarding classroom management practices; praise is important at all age levels.

Universal Approaches to Classroom Management

While it is important to adopt a developmental perspective about student behavior and to adjust approaches based on developmental level, a number of classroom management strategies are relevant to all grade levels. It is important to note that the majority of research on classroom management has been conducted in elementary level, with comparatively little research conducted at the secondary level. Yet, there are classroom management strategies that have applications across grades. Here, the authors present an overview of several strategies that are relevant for students of any age.

Effectively managed classrooms begin with a high degree of structure and organization. Lessons are delivered at the students' instructional level and at a relatively brisk pace, and transitions are also made efficiently. Materials are well organized and teachers utilize an authoritative approach to teaching by demonstrating warmth and concern for their students, as well as consistency, high expectations, and firm boundaries. In well-managed classrooms, teachers also deliver high rates of praise and provide high rates of student opportunities to respond. Teachers effectively communicate expectations to students and actively supervise them by using strategies such as proximity control to support student engagement and participation in classroom activities.

In addition to structure and organization, research also suggests that teachers of well-managed classrooms explicitly teach, review, and reinforce classroom expectations. This process tends to be less explicit in upper grades, but given differences in rules and expectations

between different teachers, this process is especially important at upper grades where students are instructed by multiple teachers throughout the day. By developing, communicating, teaching, and consistently reinforcing clear rules and expectations, teachers create learning environments that support student learning.

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See also Developmental Approaches; Developmental Discipline; Developmentally Appropriate Practice; Early Childhood Education and Classroom Management; Elementary Education and Classroom Management; Expectations: Teachers' Expectations of Students; High School and Classroom Management; Kindergarten and Classroom Management; Middle School and Classroom Management

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AMERICAN INDIVIDUALISMS

U.S. culture is often defined in terms of its fostering a particular way of thinking about optimal development, one that focuses on the individual and helping the individual *stand out* and be the best that he or she can be. This contrasts with other cultures that focus on helping the individual *fit in* and define himself or herself more in terms of primary connections, especially connections to family.

However, close observation of American individualism reveals not one but two different styles of individualism: a *soft* upper-middle-class individualism, which focuses on the cultivation and expression of unique feelings, thoughts, ideas, and preferences, and a *hard* working-class individualism, which focuses on the cultivation of self-reliance, perseverance, determination, protectiveness, stoicism, and toughness. These two styles of individualism are by no means rigid boxes; people of all social classes can and do fluidly use each style. However, these two styles do, in general, line up around social class and partially explain different conceptions of self

and different kinds of individualism practiced and cultivated by parents and teachers in the socialization of their children. They also help explain the ways in which different individualisms can sometimes clash, like two different cultures, in certain school settings.

The two different types of individualism can be called *hard* and *soft* individualism as ways to capture important, distinguishing features of each (see Table 1). On the one hand, the soft psychologized individualism of the middle and upper middle class focuses on the cultivation and expression of unique feelings, thoughts, ideas, and preferences. This emotion-focused style of individualism is what sociologist Steven Tipton called psychologized individualism. On the other hand, the hard working-class individualism focuses on the cultivation of self-reliance, perseverance, determination, protectiveness, street smarts, stoicism, and toughness.

Hard and soft individualisms not only reflect class differences in material worlds and everyday realities but also shape parents', teachers', and children's everyday attitudes and habits. They correspond to the class-based futures that parents and teachers envision for their children—trajectories that are seen as normal and natural, the *of course* obvious choice.

Insofar as children internalize these different styles of individualism, social inequality is reproduced, generation after generation, despite the myth of American mobility. For example, both individualisms have very different conceptions of self—the world the child will one day encounter and the type of future the child will have. Both use extremely different metaphors to describe, envision, and guide the self of the child. Each derives from the fabric, demands, and concerns of its local, wealthy or working-class environment.

Laying a cookie-cutter version of individualism on America ignores, then, the very fiber of the social classes and subcultures in which these two individualisms flourish. The following sections explore in greater detail the contrast between these forms of individualism, the specific ways in which they manifest themselves within the context of education, and their implications for classroom practice.

Soft Versus Hard Conceptions of Self

Soft individualism thrives in relative safety, comfort, and affluence. Most important for a soft individualism way of raising children are the child's emotions and personal opinions, which are thought to be the markers of the idiosyncratic true self. Parents adopting soft individualistic ways often link the careful cultivation of psychologized individualism to their children's eventual achievement. These parents assume that children can find in their interior well of emotions and thoughts both

the uniqueness that will set them apart from their peers and the motivational fuel to propel them ahead of their peers. Hence, the values of psychologized individualism are often linked with success, achievement, and leadership in a competitive society. As one father said, "It gives them more of an ability to be a leader, self-starter, to stand out." Being true to the self's genuine idiosyncrasies is thus tied to taking risks, being unique, standing out, and having creativity. Psychologized individualism is tied to ensuring that the child opens out into the world and finds the right societal outlet, into a successful career that capitalizes on his or her best qualities.

Parents embracing soft individualism also emphasize the delicacy and uniqueness of the child's self—the extreme care, resources, wide canvas, and gentle touch needed to help the child's fragile self unfold and realize its full potential. One of the most common metaphors used to describe the child's unfolding is that of a flower growing, blossoming, and blooming to reveal its unique contents—its feelings, desires, talents, tastes, imagination, and creativity. And in schools where soft individualism is the norm, protecting the self-esteem of the child and encouraging the child to open up are common themes.

Saving face: Teachers make an effort not to look bored, angry, or frustrated.

Saving voice: Soft, gentle tone that avoids whining, frustration, or anger aimed at the child.

Verbal stimulation: Talking, avoiding silence; stimulating the child by making observations, lessons out of any given moment; encouraging questions, stories, and opinions; *opening* the child up.

Child-appropriate dress: Worn by teachers (flowers, children's drawing/cartoon-type patterns).

Child-appropriate styles of communication: Talking at the eye level of the child, bending down to sit near them so that the teacher's eyes are at the level of the child's eyes.

Physical affection: Cuddling the child, allowing the child to sit on the teacher's lap, rubbing the child's back.

In lower socioeconomic and blue-collar neighborhoods, harder realities give rise to harder individualisms. For parents in these neighborhoods, hard individualism comes from their tough environment (gangs, illicit drugs, racism, violence), from their often difficult pasts (child abuse, alcoholism, drug addiction, divorce), and from their belief that the future holds struggle and hardship.

Phrases like "staying put," "standing your ground," "minding your own business," "keeping up your pride," and "not letting others get under your skin" are common. Parents promoting hard individualism imply that

Table I Comparing Soft and Hard Individualisms

| | <i>Soft</i> | <i>Hard</i> |
|---------------------|--|--|
| Individualism means | emotional expression creativity, uniqueness | emotional control self-reliance toughness perseverance |
| The self is | delicate, full of promise like a flower | hard, protective like a fortress, rocket, Superman |
| Caregivers should | give praise, encouragement, mirror emotions, foster creativity | tease, discipline, toughen nurture without spoiling |
| World is | safe and welcoming competitive open to uniqueness | potentially dangerous forbidding filled with ups and downs |
| Jobs demand | thinking out of the box creativity | discipline, hard work working with others |
| Future holds | success, personal achievement job that fits your personality/interests | uncertainty, struggle fulfillment with hard work compromise, structure |

tougher boundaries for a dense, resilient self are better for keeping away from the negative influences of the street (gangs, peer pressure, violence, alcohol, drugs). Hence, individualism in the form of “not relying on or trusting anyone else,” self-determination, privacy, and self-reliance are seen as ways of surviving a bad system, a system that cannot be trusted.

Raising a child with a hard individualism approach to self-development requires different techniques than does raising a child with a soft individualism approach. Teasing, yelling, spanking, issuing direct commands without a *please* or *thank you*, openly expressing one’s annoyance or boredom with a child, directly contradicting a child’s story, and not immediately responding to a child’s questions or crying—these are all practices adults use more regularly and with less guilt and trepidation in the neighborhoods where hard individualism is the norm. Through these practices, parents reveal not only that they want their children to become tougher and more resilient but also that they believe their children to be tougher and more resilient *to begin with*. Parents following a hard individualism approach often use phrases like “tough guy,” “sturdy kid,” “solid,” “rough

it through”—in fact, statements about physical punishment are rarely paired with any kind of worry or rumination over whether physical punishment might bring about a more fragile, impaired, less confident child with lower self-esteem. Unlike parents in soft individualism neighborhoods, hard individualism parents do not wait around after they lose their temper or scan the child’s face for signs of less confidence or a deep wound to their self-esteem as many soft individualism parents do. While soft individualism parents are more apt to ask a child how did this make him or her feel, or cuddle a child if he or she seems hurt by a direct command, saying something like “You know you aren’t bad; it’s what you did that was bad,” working-class parents are apt to continue with adult conversations or make dinner without visually turning to their child to scan for possible wounded reactions.

From a hard individualism perspective, children by their very nature are sturdy. Physical punishment, not saving face or voice to spare the child, all make perfect sense given that the child is tough to begin with; hence with hard individualism parents there is often no need to check in with the child and see if he or she

has been hurt by direct commands, slaps, or expressed annoyance. Given the notion that these hard behaviors bounce off the child more readily without impairing his or her self-esteem, hard individualism parents spank or yell and move on, feeling assured that the child's self is resilient and, in fact, meant for such parental discipline.

Home/School Dissonance in Relation to Psychologized Individualism

Despite popular belief that the school is the ultimate neutral ground where classless, unbiased texts and classless, culture-free pedagogies are doled out to every child in equal measure, the school has proven to be one of the main sites for producing social inequality. School is most often predicated on the values and practices of the middle and upper middle classes, and so it should not be surprising that teachers with backgrounds in a soft individualism way of raising children privilege soft individualism despite the hard individualism background of the children they teach. In such circumstances, there can be a kind of dissonance between two kinds of individualism, one promoted by the middle class-informed Board of Education, the other lived in the homes and streets of the working class. This dissonance raises questions, in particular "What disadvantages confront a working-class child in school, when asked to learn and perform a different kind of individualism?"

In some Head Start programs, for example, the clash of working-class hard individualism with the more softly individualistic psychologized culture of Head Start often manifests itself with the lower-working-class children simply being silent, as if mystified by the fairy-like teacher who moves around the classroom with a constant glow and smile, showering praise upon them. Many of these children come from families where conformity to group life is taught more through practices such as teasing, public shaming, blaming, direct commands, and threats. The processes of handling and crafting the self of the child have distinctly different qualities, namely of loosening and blunting the self.

Another striking difference occurs in what is seen as damaging to the child's self. The common Head Start teaching practice of kneeling down next to a child to be at eye level so as to support a child better is not seen as necessary by many of the parents for a child's self-esteem. Nor is the practice of teachers pointing out interesting objects and events that adult and child can comment on and discuss together seen as necessary in order for children to learn. In contrast to their children's teachers, hard individualism parents show confidence in their children being plucky and inclined to develop on their own.

With their hard parenting practices, hard individualism parents do not see themselves as mowing over delicate flowers; rather, they view their hard practices in the context of the presumed healthy, spunky, self of the child, resilient as a weed. Furthermore, hard individualism parents often see their hard practices as causing their child's self to thicken in preparation for life's tumblers. That is, they see themselves as helping their child to adapt and grow. In Adrie Kusserow's 2004 study of child-rearing practices, one hard individualism mother, Sara, talks about how silly and soft was the way another mother disciplines her child: "She's into all that time-out stuff. She says to her kid, 'You're not bad, what you've done is bad.' I mean, give me a break. Of course the kid is bad sometimes." Sara talks about how her mother used to sit in the corner with her coffee, and if Sara did something wrong, she would get a spoon thrown across the room at her. She also talked about how her mother was afraid her father was getting too soft with the kids. Despite her shy personality, she often switches suddenly into loud, harsh yells and screams at Sara. Neither the child nor Sara seems overly affected by these outbursts. After an outburst from Sara, both mother and child resume normal play or conversation, as if it were part of the natural ebb and flow of life. When asked about what can giving a child too much attention lead to, Sara replied, "You shouldn't pay too much attention to any emotion, and you shouldn't baby them (children) too much, give them too much praise. You don't want them to be too soft."

Discipline

When children raised in hard individualism homes scuffle with each other in classroom, they can look confused when their middle-class teachers take them aside and ask them to explain *why* they wanted to hit each other and how it made them feel. Furthermore, asking a child to stop doing something by asking "Could you please stop bouncing that ball?" rather than issuing a command ("Stop bouncing that ball!") is foreign to many children raised in homes adopting a hard individualism approach.

Creativity

Working-class children may also be flummoxed by some of the more softly individualistic academic requirements and pedagogical practices. One teacher in Kusserow's study said, "I tell these kids to use their imagination, and they say, 'What do you mean? I don't have imagination.'" Children raised in soft-individualism homes are used to daily rituals involving verbal self-expression in

front of an audience, elaboration of personal stories about experiences outside of school, art projects based on imagination, use of emotion words to describe inner states, as well as asking questions and being curious, inquisitive, and precocious. This identification of soft individualism as natural and innate further hides the process middle-class children go through to learn what they have learned, making soft individualism seem even more ungraspable and mysterious to working-class children.

Conclusion

The stark contrasts between hard and soft American individualisms create potential mismatches between the ways children are accustomed to being treated, taught, and managed at home and at school. The mismatches are seen in several negative reactions to school, including confusion, withdrawal, and lessened ability to engage in what is taken to be appropriate behavior. All this suggests that teachers who believe that soft individualism is the only way or the best way may have to rethink their practices and make greater accommodations to the hard individualism defining their students' upbringing—all while showing care for their students.

Adrie Kusserow

See also Culturally Pluralistic Classrooms; Haitian Students; Urban Schools; Warm Demanders

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AMERICAN SIGN LANGUAGE

Created in the United States in the early 1800s, American Sign Language (ASL) is the main language of the Deaf community, in both America and Canada. There are also several ASL dialects used across the world. Because it is derived from French sign language, ASL is not interchangeable with the sign languages of other English-speaking countries. Further, the ASL syntax is not the same as that

of English grammar. ASL has various phonological features depicted by shape, placement, and movements of the hand, face, and/or upper body.

Use of ASL and Its Positive Effects

Originally, ASL was used mostly within the Deaf community. More recently, it has come into use also by individuals who have different degrees of hearing loss and by those who have normal hearing. ASL has been proven useful by facilitating communication between very young children and their caregivers. It has also been shown that using sign language reduces disruptive behaviors and inattention in those with typical hearing and those with hearing loss, apparently by lessening the need for verbal interruptions in the communication process and by focusing individuals on the physical movements of signing.

Children with various types of special needs often use ASL in place of or as an adjunct to verbal communication. Recently, it has become a feasible treatment option for students with autism spectrum disorder, language disorders, intellectual disorders, and for students causing disruption in classrooms. Thus, ASL has an empirically supported and viable place in the educational setting, especially as it functions to reduce classroom disruption and facilitate teacher–student communication.

ASL can promote communication (verbal and nonverbal), social skill use, and on-task/nondisruptive behaviors. In terms of language acquisition and academic achievement, finger spelling and formal ASL have been associated with improved overall expressive and receptive language development, nonverbal gesturing, cognition, written expression, and reading skills.

Research shows that ASL leads to speech and does not impede it. Research findings also suggest that the earlier ASL is introduced, the better the language and reading outcomes, especially when paired with spoken language. These results were upheld for monolingual and bilingual hearing children and adults, the Deaf, and those with hearing loss. Thus, the fear on the part of some that using ASL can cause harm or impede development needs to be tempered in light of new research outcomes showing the positive results of learning and using ASL.

Problems With Assessment and Treatment

Approximately 40,000 Americans who are deaf have a psychological disorder. Unfortunately, only about 2% are in treatment. Complicating the picture is the fact that assessment and diagnosis are difficult to accomplish unless the person doing the assessment is fluent in ASL. Therefore, many deaf persons who might

otherwise be diagnosed go undiagnosed due to the evaluators not being able to get the information needed to make a formal diagnosis.

It has also been found that those having a hearing impairment and needing to use ASL do not always make full working use of ASL and, as a result, suffer in terms of psychosocial skill acquisition. Fortunately, with further ASL training, ASL appears to facilitate communication and the acquisition of social skills. Further, cognitive behavior therapy can improve the social and pragmatic skill set of those using ASL.

ASL and Foreign Language Requirements

Relative to public school and college educational programming ASL can, in some states, be counted as fulfilling a foreign language requirement. Major linguistic societies and government regulations advocate that ASL should receive the same treatment as any other foreign language in colleges and universities. ASL is, then, an alternative that should be carefully considered for those with hearing loss, learning disabilities, or language disorders that get in the way of successfully completing a foreign language course at the high school or college level.

Conclusion

ASL is a valid and reliable formal language system. It has a legitimate and empirically supported research base to encourage its use for communication. It is useful not only for the deaf and those with hearing loss but also for those with special needs and for the hearing population. Recent research is lending more support to ASL for varied roles in education. It is certainly a language system that should not be marginalized, but carefully considered for use. Unfortunately, fears still exist that using ASL will impede the acquisition of spoken language and effective ways of communicating. Also, there is anxiety surrounding stigma related to its use. Fortunately, the dissemination of current research findings is combating these fears.

Adaline Bray and Shamin S. Patwa

See also Assistive Technology; Deaf Students; Language Differences

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ANTI-BIAS EDUCATION

In the early childhood community, anti-bias education (ABE), developed by Louise Derman-Sparks, is understood as a culturally responsive and social justice approach to teaching. This entry presents and explains ABE for young children by describing anti-bias teachers’ beliefs, values, and approaches to curriculum and building an anti-bias classroom community.

What Is ABE?

ABE is an inclusive approach that encourages young children to see difference as natural within the context of classroom life. Effective ABE is used to support positive identity development, to teach children to be proud of themselves and their families, to respect a range of human differences, to recognize unfairness and bias, and to speak up for what is right. ABE is based on the principle that every child deserves to develop his or her potential to the fullest, and this can only be achieved by recognizing human difference and promoting equity.

During the early childhood years, children first receive and perceive messages about their identities and how others see them and their families. Throughout this period of identity development, anti-bias teachers work to ensure that all children see themselves and their families reflected and respected in the early childhood classroom, so that they receive maximum support in laying the foundation for developing strong, positive identities.

ABE focuses, in particular, on embracing human differences with respect to culture, race, language, ability, learning styles, ethnicity, family structure, religion, sexual orientation, gender, age, and socioeconomic status. It does so by adopting a very different approach from what is sometimes referred to as a tourist approach. In a tourist approach to teaching diversity, teachers might focus only on holidays and heroes as opposed to diversity in everyday life. ABE teachers avoid a tourist approach by making diversity a regular part of the learning environment and experiences. ABE teachers take action to legitimize differences and to support children in ways that help them recognize unfairness and act responsively to reduce discrimination.

Goals for Children

Louise Derman-Sparks describes how anti-bias teachers can help children achieve the following ABE goals:

- *ABE goal 1:* Each child will demonstrate self-awareness, confidence, family pride, and positive social identities.
- *ABE goal 2:* Each child will express comfort and joy with human diversity, accurate language for human differences, and deep, caring human connections.
- *ABE goal 3:* Each child will increasingly recognize unfairness, have language to describe unfairness, and understand that unfairness hurts.
- *ABE goal 4:* Each child will demonstrate empowerment and the skills to act, with others or alone, against prejudice and/or discriminatory actions.

Teacher Beliefs and Teacher Development

Teachers who hold an anti-bias perspective commit themselves to self-reflection and ongoing learning and development. In order to develop an anti-bias stance, teachers first work to increase awareness and understanding of their own social identities. By recognizing their own cultural contexts, anti-bias teachers work to uncover their own ways they stereotype, their own feelings of discomfort around diversity, and, in general, their own biases with respect to diversity.

In addition, anti-bias teachers work to examine how institutional forms of prejudice or internalized privileges might impact interactions with families, colleagues, and children. Through dialog with families and colleagues, anti-bias teachers actively seek to understand perspectives that are different from their own. They believe that conflict and disagreement are a necessary part of a continual dialog on social justice.

In particular, teachers who see ABE as a form of activism believe that ABE can help protect children against prejudice and discrimination. Doing so is their primary goal and they believe that it is best achieved through establishing an anti-bias community in the classroom.

Establishing an Anti-Bias Community in the Classroom

A community that supports ABE involves a particular kind of consideration for the classroom materials and environment, as well as a particular way of fostering positive interactions with children and families.

Classroom Materials and Environment

In an ABE classroom, the environment is set up with materials and posters that encourage children to investigate similarities and differences. Teachers with an

anti-bias perspective use a range of environmental images to counter stereotypes within and between groups. These images influence what and how children learn about differences within the classroom community.

The ABE environment reflects, represents, and affirms the family cultures of the children in classroom by what is exhibited visually—for example, through displaying family photographs to honor the children and family members of the classroom community. An ABE classroom also includes nonjudgmental materials that recognize and dignify diversity in developmentally appropriate ways. Books and images in an ABE classroom represent families from various racial and ethnic groups, families with disabilities, multilingual speakers, diverse family structures, families from various economic groups, and social justice leaders. Art materials with skin tone colors, multicultural puzzles, heterogeneous people dolls or figurines, and diverse music can reinforce an exploration of diversity.

Positive Interactions

Anti-bias teachers try to infuse the language of diversity and fairness into the classroom community of children. Through daily interactions with children, teachers listen and suspend judgment. They look for teachable moments to respond to children's curiosity about differences and to engage in positive exchanges about diversity. They honor children's feelings of discomfort and recognize that children are also navigating stereotypes.

Anti-bias teachers listen for entry points (such as incidents of gender exclusion, or teasing a child with leg braces) and follow up in supportive, developmentally appropriate ways. They help children explore fairness and unfairness by translating ideas into concrete language. Teachers in ABE classrooms work to respect children's cultural interaction styles and their learning process.

Anti-bias teachers believe that every family offers expertise, resources, and opportunities to enrich all children's learning. And so, teachers work to welcome and support families.

Positive interactions with families occur through such practices as conducting an intake interview, equitable communication, making the classroom accessible, and paying attention to power dynamics. ABE supports collaboration with families by learning about family goals for children, seeing differences as opportunities for learning, and connecting families with one another.

In a diverse community, it is inevitable that there will be varying viewpoints, cultural conflicts, and differences in values. While ABE does not offer simple solutions for when such conflicts or differences in expectations arise, it supports open dialogs and opportunities to engage with differences rather than ignoring or minimizing them.

Anti-Bias Curriculum Planning

Anti-bias curriculum topics come from the children, from families and teachers, as well as from historical or current events. ABE curriculum is planned within the structure of the day, and it evolves from naturally occurring opportunities to make use of children's conversations and play to foster the knowledge and values central to ABE. ABE does not necessarily occur at a certain time of day or month of the year, but is infused through the classroom in everyday activities. By adopting an ABE approach to curriculum planning, teachers balance purposeful experiences, such as mixing paint to match skin colors and reading the story of Rosa Parks, with seizing emergent opportunities by responding to children's needs.

ABE can be integrated into emergent curriculum, theme-based curriculum, or skill-based curriculum. Some anti-bias teachers find *webbing* a useful brainstorming and planning technique for ABE. By creating a visual map or web of curriculum, anti-bias teachers can find entry points for ABE and connect content to issues of identity, diversity, and equity. For example, in a districtwide study of community helpers, an anti-bias teacher might see an opportunity for learning about the abilities or family structures of helpers in the community.

Storytelling is another way to introduce aspects of diversity and engage children in problem solving. Some teachers use persona dolls and develop the dolls' particular identities in order to tell stories that relate to children's lives. For example, in an effort to help children understand that unfairness hurts, a teacher might use a persona doll, Deshawn, to describe how Deshawn is teased because of his glasses. The teacher could then engage the children in a conversation about how to help Deshawn.

Some anti-bias teachers find it useful to document entry points, reflect on their own feelings, and think about how to respond to children's questions and curiosities before implementing formal curriculum. Anti-bias curriculum looks different depending on the particular interests and development of the children in the classroom community.

Concluding Remarks: Challenges for Anti-Bias Educators

Without support, ABE can be challenging to implement. Sometimes, children's comments can baffle teachers, even those who support social justice and cultural diversity. Louise Derman-Sparks notes that it is not unusual for young children to talk about topics such as race, language, physical abilities, family structure, religion, sexual orientation, gender, or socioeconomic differences. Because these topics are historically value-laden, teachers can feel that, without appropriate support,

these topics are too risky and too confusing to take on with young children. Teachers may feel that they need allies and family support and feedback to help them stay accountable to the goals of ABE.

But with sufficient support, teachers can use ABE to create a diverse and caring classroom community, one that affirms and supports the emerging identity of each and every child, one that has both short- and long-term benefits for those children, and one that provides one more way to create a truly democratic society for all.

Maggie Beneke

See also Cultural Diversity; Culturally Pluralistic Classrooms; Culturally Responsive Classrooms; Inclusive Classrooms

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ANTISOCIAL BEHAVIOR

See Conduct Disorder

APPLICATION OF POSITIVE BEHAVIORAL INTERVENTIONS AND SUPPORTS TO SCHOOLWIDE AND CLASSROOM SETTINGS

Positive behavior intervention and supports (PBIS) is a data-driven framework for enhancing social and academic outcomes of students. PBIS offers schools and educators a way to systematically apply evidence-based practices that have measureable outcomes and that lead to the improvement of the overall climate of schools and classrooms. PBIS is rooted in response to intervention logic that draws from the literature on creating

multi-tiered support systems aimed at designing universal, targeted, and individualized interventions to meet the needs of all students.

Research has shown that implementing PBIS leads to a more positive school climate by providing students with more frequent and positive adult interactions/connections and by enhancing feelings of safety within the school environment. Additionally, implementing PBIS has led to tracking inappropriate student behavior, which in turn has led to significant reductions in office discipline referrals.

PBIS is often divided into schoolwide (SWPBS) and classwide positive behavior supports (CWPBS). This entry explains the application of PBIS to schoolwide and classwide settings—by defining the underlying core features of SWPBS and CWPBS implementation.

Core Features of SWPBS Implementation

George Sugai, Brandi Simonsen, and Madeline Negron have defined the core features of SWPBS implementation as follows:

- Establish a small number of positively stated expectations.
- Define the expectations in the context of routines/settings.
- Develop scripted lesson plans to teach expectations.
- Increase active supervision in classroom/nonclassroom settings.
- Establish a continuum of strategies to acknowledge appropriate behavior.
- Establish a continuum of strategies to respond to inappropriate behavior.
- Develop a staff reinforcement system.
- Develop an action plan to roll out and implement.

The practices demand that staff develop a common vision, language, and plan of action for approaching schoolwide behavior support. Practices include providing students messages about what is expected of them and that such messages should be brief, positive, and consistent across all settings (e.g., “Be Safe,” “Be Responsible,” “Be Respectful”). These expectations are defined in observable and measurable terms (i.e., operationally defined) within each setting/routine throughout the school (e.g., *Being Respectful* in the cafeteria includes talking quietly, recycling, and following directions).

To ensure that students and staff know the expectations in each setting, explicit social skills lesson plans (similar to those used to teach academic skills) are developed and implemented using direct instruction to teach behavior. These lesson plans are implemented on a regular schedule at the start of new school year and when re-teaching is needed, thus ensuring that students

are taught how to behave within the school setting rather than assuming that students have this knowledge already.

To increase the likelihood that students will follow expectations, SWPBS leads to increased adult supervision (i.e., staff moving, scanning, and interacting with students) and creates a continuum of options to reinforce appropriate student behavior (e.g., using a schoolwide token economy to earn access to special events such as school dances contingent on the demonstration of appropriate behavior). SWPBS also leads to schools determining how staff will respond to inappropriate behavior and distinguish between major (office-managed) and minor (classroom-managed) offenses. Again, an established continuum of responses implemented by all staff ensures that students are able to know the consequences of their behavior and helps to eliminate differential treatment by individual staff. Developing staff reinforcement systems and plans for implementation helps to support staff behavior by reinforcing consistency across implementers. For detailed information about SWPBS implementation, including implementation blueprints, training resources, examples, and information on training/conferences, go to www.pbis.org.

Core Features of CWPBS Implementation

Similar to SWPBS implementation, CWPBS comprises a few core features that promote positive student outcomes and create a consistent classroom environment. From a review of empirically supported classroom management practices, Brandi Simonsen and colleagues have identified 20 discrete practices that can be grouped into the following five critical features of CWPBS:

- Maximize structure and predictability.
- Post, teach, review, monitor, and reinforce expectations.
- Actively engage students in observable ways.
- Use a continuum of strategies to acknowledge appropriate behavior.
- Use a continuum of strategies to respond to inappropriate behavior.

Maximizing structure and predictability encompasses the organization of the physical classroom environment, scheduling across days/weeks/activities, and the development of routines around common classroom procedures (e.g., transitions, requesting assistance, obtaining materials). *Posting, teaching, reviewing, monitoring, and reinforcing expectations* refers to the establishment, communication, and implementation of three to five positively stated expectations that span all common classroom settings. *Actively engaging students in*

observable ways focuses on the presentation of multiple opportunities for students to respond through various modalities across instructional activities to ensure that students are engaged. These opportunities may include teacher-directed individual or choral responding, direct instruction, classwide peer tutoring, use of guided notes, computer-assisted instruction, and other empirically tested strategies for actively engaging students. *Using a continuum of strategies to reinforce appropriate behavior* requires the nonnegotiable use of specific and contingent praise for all students and may also incorporate a variety of other strategies (e.g., classwide group contingencies, behavioral contracting, token economies). Finally, *using a continuum of strategies to respond to inappropriate behavior* begins with consistent behavior-specific and contingent error correction and includes other consequence strategies (e.g., performance feedback differential reinforcement, planned ignoring plus contingent praise, and/or instruction of classroom rules).

Although the exact way each teacher implements CWPBS and the specific practices he or she chooses may differ, the five core features above provide a blueprint for factors that must be in place within all successful classroom environments. For more information on CWPBS, see the entry Evidence-Based Classroom Management in this encyclopedia.

Synthesis of SWPBS and CWPBS

For both SWPBS and CWPBS, critical implementation features run parallel, and all involve developing consistent systems so that both students and staff understand what to expect and what is expected of them. Common features of both SWPBS and CWPBS include

- structured communication (e.g., between staff, students–staff, administration–staff);
- explicit positive expectations (that are established, operationally defined across settings/routines, posted publicly, taught, monitored, and reinforced); and
- continuums of response to behavior (both to reinforce appropriate and respond to inappropriate).

Research has demonstrated that implementation of SWPBS correlates with positive school climate and that the application of empirically supported classwide management practices may facilitate the establishment of positive classroom environments. Therefore, by providing individuals within schools with consistent school and classroom environments, both behavioral and academic outcomes can be optimized.

These common features can also be applied to home–school connections. MacSuga-Gage and colleagues suggest that teachers can facilitate positive home–school connections by taking the following four steps:

- Maximizing structure of and for communication
- Offering both positive and corrective behavior-specific communication around both academic and social performance
- Creating opportunities for reinforcing interactions
- Integrating culturally responsive practices

Teachers (and schools) can make concerted efforts to determine modalities of communication that are functional for parents/guardians (e.g., via phone calls or email). Also, teachers can establish specific guidelines for communicating so that individuals at home have a clear understanding of when and how to access desired information (e.g., the teacher can offer either office hours once per month when parents can drop in for communication, or parent–teacher conferences at varied times). Further, communication should include both positive and corrective feedback that informs those at home about what their child is doing and what he or she needs to work on. Finally, it is important that teachers and schools are well versed in the culture of the individuals within their classroom/school. Educators can establish opportunities for students and families to share their culture through after-school events and by integrating activities and assignments that facilitate communication of culture into regular classroom practice.

Suggestions for Practice

Teachers should consider conducting a self-audit at the beginning of any new teaching assignment (e.g., at the start of new school year or when moving to a new school/grade level within the same school). Teachers can use premade assessments available at www.pbis.org, such as the Classroom Management Self-Assessment, revised by Simonsen, Fairbanks, Briesch, and Sugai. Alternatively, teachers may review the critical features described above and create a list of practices they are currently doing that fit within each area. Given the results of premade or teacher-made assessments, educators can then target specific areas to improve and create an action plan. For example, if expectations are not currently posted or vary across activities, teachers can create a list of three to five positively stated expectations for their classrooms (using either schoolwide or self-created expectations) and teach students what those look like during common class routines such as whole-class instruction, independent seat-work, and so on.

Conclusion

The creation of positive school and classroom environments can be achieved through consistency. By approaching behavior supports with a clear and explicit plan for communication, expectations, and continuums of reinforcement/response to behavior, it is possible for teachers to establish school and classroom environments that set students up for success. Teachers should consider conducting a self-audit to determine what practices are in place within their classroom, including home–school connections, and to use this information to target areas for improvement. With each new group of students or school environment, specific practices may change to best meet the needs of specific contexts. However, regardless of context, through implementing the basic features of SWPBS and CWPBS, educators can establish positive school/classroom climates.

Ashley S. MacSuga-Gage

See also Evidence-Based Classroom Management; Schoolwide Positive Behavior Supports; Systematic Approaches to Problem Behavior

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APPLIED BEHAVIOR ANALYSIS

Applied behavior analysis (ABA) is a scientific discipline devoted to understanding and improving human behavior. While numerous social sciences and helping professions share similar aims, ABA's focus, behavior change interventions, and evaluation methods distinguish it as a unique discipline.

Applied behavior analysts target behaviors that improve the quality of people's lives, alter environmental antecedents and/or consequences to change the behavior,

and employ methods of scientific inquiry (e.g., objective measurement, controlled experimentation) to seek functional relations between interventions and behavioral improvements. In short, ABA is a scientific approach for discovering environmental variables that reliably influence socially significant behavior and for developing a technology for behavior change based on those discoveries. Strategies and tactics for effective classroom management are prominent components of that technology.

This entry describes the defining dimensions and characteristics of ABA, provides a brief history of ABA as it relates to classroom management, and outlines the basic elements of classroom management practice guided by ABA.

Defining Dimensions and Characteristics of ABA

ABA should be viewed in the context of the philosophical and basic research foundations from which it developed and remains interrelated. ABA is the applied branch of *behavior analysis*, a natural science approach to understanding and changing behavior. *Behaviorism* and the *experimental analysis of behavior* are the philosophical and basic research domains of behavior analysis. As investigators and practitioners in other natural sciences (e.g., biology, physics) explain their respective subject matters, behavior analysts rely on physical processes and natural events to explain behavior. Metaphysical entities and hypothetical constructs (e.g., free will, readiness, storage and retrieval mechanisms for memory) have no role in a behavior analytic account.

In two classic papers published in 1968 and 1987, Donald Baer and colleagues proposed seven criteria for ABA that have defined and guided the field since its inception.

Applied

The *applied* in ABA signifies the field's focus on changing behaviors that improve people's quality of life. Learning to read, to interact effectively with peers, and to play a musical instrument are obvious examples of behavior changes that meet the applied criterion.

An intervention that turns a noncompliant, acting-out student into a quiet and passive one would fall short of the applied standard because reducing talk-outs and other kinds of disruptions, albeit important, is insufficient. A more meaningful—and thus more applied—intervention would also increase the frequency with which the student emits desirable, alternative behaviors such as asking questions during lessons and contributing to class discussions.

Applied also means that the methods used to change behavior are practical and acceptable to the practitioners and satisfactory to the participants and significant others affected by them.

Behavioral

That ABA must be *behavioral* would seem self-evident, but this dimension entails three important criteria. First, an actual behavior must be targeted for change. Behavior is the interaction between an individual and his or her environment. Targeting the absence of responding such as *not hitting others* does not meet this criterion. Ogden Lindsley proposed the *dead man test* to check if an objective is truly behavioral. Any goal a dead person could achieve fails the test. A dead man could “not hit others.” A more meaningful behavior would be “interact with others by sharing materials.”

Second, the behavior must be measured directly. For example, direct observation and measurement of students’ interactions with classmates during recess would meet the behavioral criterion for an ABA intervention intended to increase students’ prosocial interactions. However, data from sociograms, questionnaires, or interviews asking students’ opinions of how they are getting along with their peers would not. Such measures are at best proxies for the socially significant behavior changes sought.

Third, the target behavior must be defined precisely so that accurate, reliable measures of its frequency, duration, latency, topography, and/or magnitude can be made.

Analytic

Measurement provides evidence of the existence, direction, and extent of behavior change, but measurement alone cannot reveal why the change occurred. Applied behavior analysts use a variety of *analytic* tactics, commonly known as single-subject, single-case, or intrasubject experimental designs (e.g., reversal, multiple baseline, alternating treatments, changing criterion), to pursue and identify what Baer called the acid test proof of an intervention’s effectiveness. An *analysis* has been achieved when a functional relation between the intervention and a reliable change in the targeted behavior has been demonstrated. In effect, the analyst is able to turn on and turn off the behavior change with the systematic manipulation of the intervention.

Technological

No matter how robust its effects in an experimental study, an intervention will be of little value if practitioners are unable to replicate it. A *technological* description

of an ABA tactic specifies in clear language everything a practitioner should do, and not do, under all likely conditions. Detailed and unambiguous procedural descriptions make ABA interventions replicable and teachable.

Conceptually Systematic

An ABA intervention is *conceptually systematic* when the procedures and the interpretations of how or why those procedures were effective are described in terms of the basic principle(s) from which the intervention was derived. The requirement to be conceptually systematic yields two important outcomes for ABA. First, relating behavior change procedures to basic principles enables practitioners to derive similar and potentially equally effective interventions from the same principle(s). Second, ABA’s conceptual system of integrated principles and tactics that can be taught and systematically advanced distinguishes it from a collection of tricks with limited utility.

Effective

To be considered *effective*, an ABA study must produce behavior changes that reach clinical or social significance. Statistical significance—the standard by which research in the social sciences is typically judged—plays no primary role in ABA. An investigation can yield statistically significant results but may have limited clinical or social significance for the participants.

For example, assume that a student’s profanity-laced outbursts decrease from 30 to five per hour. While this may be a statistically significant behavior change, it is clinically insufficient. A student who swears five times per hour will continue to experience trouble at school. How much a given behavior must change to be considered clinically significant is a practical question—one best answered by those directly affected by the intervention.

Capable of Producing Generalized Outcomes

Behavior changes that vanish after treatment has ended, that fail to occur in relevant settings and situations beyond where the intervention was implemented, or that do not spread to relevant behaviors have limited impact on a person’s quality of life. Thus, a major focus of ABA is the experimental demonstration and refinement of strategies and tactics that reliably promote the maintenance and generalization.

Brief History

Psychologist B. F. Skinner’s laboratory experiments in the 1930s demonstrating how consequences select and

maintain behavior laid the empirical foundations for ABA. Skinner showed that what had traditionally been considered voluntary or willed behavior could be understood as learned (operant) behavior. ABA's conceptual underpinnings can be seen in Skinner's publications describing how positive reinforcement, extinction, stimulus control, and other principles of operant conditioning might be used to improve human performance (e.g., *Science and Human Behavior* [1953]).

Early Field-Based Demonstrations of the Power of Reinforcement

Many historians trace the beginning of ABA to a 1959 article by Ted Allyon and Jack Michael, "The Psychiatric Nurse as a Behavioral Engineer," that described how training hospital staff to use operant-based procedures (e.g., providing social attention for desired behavior, ignoring maladaptive behavior) produced remarkable reductions in the persistent problem behavior of psychiatric patients.

In the late 1950s, Sidney Bijou transformed the Institute for Child Development at the University of Washington into a behaviorally based center investigating the application of Skinner's ideas to the problems of children. At this center in the early 1960s, Montrose Wolf conducted the original experimental demonstrations of the power of social attention as reinforcement for children's behavior. Wolf taught nursery school teachers to use differential attention to reduce children's crying and isolate play and increase their social behavior, gross motor play, and walking.

Pioneering Classroom Applications

Among the earliest classroom applications of operant principles was a series of studies by Vance Hall and colleagues at the University of Kansas showing that skillfully delivered teacher praise and attention produced marked improvements in student behavior. One of those studies was the lead article in the inaugural issue of the *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis (JABA)*.

The first three volumes of *JABA* contained 22 articles reporting the effects of operant procedures on classroom deportment. The foundation of contemporary classroom management practices consists of three basic strategies discovered in these early studies: (1) attend to and reinforce desired behaviors, (2) ignore disruptions as much as possible, and (3) have students come into contact with positive reinforcement often and easily.

Although much of the early ABA work in classrooms was aimed at modifying the disruptive, noncompliant, and aggressive behaviors of the most unruly children, the discipline evolved to encompass proactive classroom

management for all students, as well as instructional methods for a wide range of academic, social, vocational, and self-management skills.

Promoting Generalization and Maintenance

The early practice of ABA was criticized (understandably) for its failure to demonstrate lasting behavior change following intervention. In a 1978 review of 270 ABA studies, Trevor Stokes and Don Baer concluded that the most common technique for promoting postintervention change was the nonstrategy *train and hope*. In 120 of the studies, however, these authors found evidence of an *implicit technology* for promoting generalized outcomes that included strategies such as *aim for natural contingences of reinforcement*, *teach multiple exemplars*, *program common stimuli*, *train loosely*, and *program indiscriminable contingencies*. Stokes and Baer reminded applied behavior analysts that generalization and maintenance of behavior change must be the gold standard for success and inspired a multilayered research agenda that continues today.

Functional Behavior Assessment

The *topography* or form of a behavior often reveals little about the conditions that account for it. Two students shout out, bang their desks, and refuse to comply with their teacher's instruction to start working on a set of math problems; one does so because attention from teacher or classmates usually follows, the other student does so because he has learned that such behavior is a surefire way to put off doing the requested task. The students' outbursts may look the same, but positive reinforcement accounts for the former case and negative reinforcement (escape from aversive task demands) accounts for the latter.

A groundbreaking research program spearheaded by Brian Iwata and his students in the early 1980s showed that brief experimental comparisons of a client's behavior under alternating conditions—typically contingent social attention, contingent tangible items/activities, escape from task demands, and alone—often identified behavioral function when other methods failed. While experimental analysis had been the primary method for discovering functional relations between behavior and its controlling variables in behavior analysis since the field's inception, conducting a *functional behavior analysis* as preintervention assessment advanced classroom management practices tremendously.

Two additional forms of functional behavior assessment (FBA) emerged from classroom-based research and practice. *Indirect FBA*, the quickest and least

time-consuming method, uses interviews, checklists, rating scales, or questionnaires to obtain information from third parties to identify conditions in the natural environment that correlate with the problem behavior. *Descriptive FBA* entails direct observation of the problem behavior under naturally occurring conditions to determine antecedent conditions that trigger the behavior and the consequences that maintain it. Interventions based on FBA alter antecedent events that occasion the behavior (e.g., access to attention, provide choices), change the consequences for the problem behavior, and/or teach alternative behaviors that obtain the same reinforcer maintaining the problem behavior.

Growth of ABA

Widespread recognition of ABA as a distinct discipline began in 1968 with the publication of *JABA*. While *JABA* remains the field's flagship journal, ABA articles are published in other behavior analytic journals (e.g., *Behavioral Interventions, Education and Treatment of Children, Journal of Behavioral Education*) and in some general and special education journals (e.g., *Exceptional Children, Intervention in School and Clinic, Journal of Evidence-Based Practices for Schools*).

Behavior analysis and ABA have experienced tremendous growth in recent years. The Association for Behavior Analysis International has more than 20,000 members and affiliate members in 44 countries, the majority of whom work in the applied domain. The Behavior Analyst Certification Board has credentialed more than 14,000 behavior analysts, many of whom are employed by public schools to help teachers design, implement, and evaluate interventions to prevent and reduce classroom behavior problems.

ABA in Practice

Principles and Tactics

Effective and ethical use of ABA for classroom management requires a solid understanding of basic principles of behavior and evidence-based behavior change tactics derived from those principles. A *principle of behavior* describes a fundamental functional relation between behavior and one or more controlling variables. Principles of behavior (e.g., reinforcement, punishment, extinction, stimulus control) are empirical generalizations inferred from the results of hundreds of basic research studies in the experimental analysis of behavior. In other words, principles are general laws that explain how behavior works, such as how consequences select and strengthen behavior, how behavior comes under control of antecedent stimuli, how behavior is more or

less likely to occur as a function of specific motivating operations.

A *behavior change tactic* is a specific method for changing behavior derived from one or more basic principles. Research in ABA has shown each behavior change tactic to possess sufficient generality across individuals, settings, and/or behaviors to warrant being codified and recommended to practitioners. Examples of frequently used ABA tactics for classroom management include *contingent praise and attention, self-monitoring, contingency contracting, planned ignoring, response cost, and time-out from positive reinforcement*. ABA-based classroom management interventions can be conceptualized as preventive, classwide, and individualized.

Preventive Interventions

Skilled teachers prevent most behavior problems by using positive, proactive classroom management strategies; key among them are establishing clear rules and expectations, reinforcing appropriate behaviors, and delivering effective instruction. A small number of brief, positively framed rules such as “Be respectful of self, others, and surroundings” should guide students' behavior. The behavioral expectations stated in each rule are clearly defined and specific examples provided (e.g., “Being respectful in class means raising your hand when you want to speak or get help”). Each rule is explicitly taught with a systematic format: (1) present the rule and its rationale, (2) describe and model positive examples (*right way*) and negative examples (*wrong way*), and (3) have students practice the right way until they demonstrate fluent performance. When students break a rule, teachers show them their behavior was unacceptable and prevent unacceptable behavior from resulting in inadvertent rewards.

“Catch 'em being good” is more than a slogan. Numerous studies have shown repeatedly the positive effects of contingent teacher attention on student behavior. The systematic use of contingent praise and attention may be the most powerful, generally useful classroom management tool available to teachers.

Superior classroom management rests upon a foundation of effective instruction. Numerous ABA studies have found that students are more on-task and less disruptive during fast-paced lessons in which they make many active responses.

Classwide Interventions

ABA classwide interventions are based on one of three types of group contingency: *independent*, in which students receive rewards contingent upon their individual

behavior meeting a standard performance criterion for the class; *dependent*, in which all students in the class receive a reward contingent on the behavior of one or more students; and *interdependent*, in which all students in the class receive a reward contingent on the behavior of everyone (or randomly selected group of students). Examples include the *good behavior game*, *mystery motivators*, *clocklight*, *token economies*, and level systems in which students gain or lose privileges as they move up or drop down levels based on their daily behavior.

Individual Interventions

Although preventive and classwide interventions are effective for most students, individualized interventions are needed to help some students learn appropriate behavior. And while each ABA-based intervention for an individual student is unique, all follow a similar sequence: (1) identify and define the target behavior (if the goal is reducing the frequency of a problem behavior, an alternative behavior should be targeted to take its place); (2) conduct health, environmental, and functional behavioral assessments to identify variables responsible (most behavior problems that warrant individualized interventions are long-standing, resistant to previous attempts to change them, pose real risks to the student's success in school, and thus deserving of thoroughgoing assessment of all relevant variables); (3) design an evidence-based intervention that takes advantage of assessment data and inform administrators, parents, colleagues, and the student of the plan; (4) implement the intervention with consistency; (5) use direct and frequent measurement to evaluate and modify the intervention; and (6) withdraw the intervention and probe for maintenance and generalization.

Concluding Remarks

ABA offers educators a pragmatic, scientific approach to understanding and changing behavior. At times, ABA-based interventions quickly yield striking improvements in student behavior. More often, however, significant improvement is the cumulative result of incremental behavior change. All elements of ABA—theoretical concepts, basic principles, behavior change tactics, and methods of measurement and analysis—are accessible to practitioners. ABA's full potential for improving learning and behavior occurs when practitioners adopt a spirit of inquiry, a commitment to consistent implementation of principles and tactics, and a willingness to let the results of direct and frequent measures of student behavior guide decision making.

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See also Behavior Support Plans; Behavioral Approaches, Foundations of; Differential Treatment and Reinforcement; Extinction; Functional Analysis; Functional Behavioral Assessment; Negative Reinforcement; Planned Ignoring; Praise and Encouragement; Punishment; Reinforcement; Target Behaviors; Token Economies

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APPROACHES TO CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT: TYPES

The term *approaches* may be indispensable to understanding classroom management, although its meaning and application can vary from individual to individual.

Here, the term refers to overall approaches that include not only specific methods, tactics, and strategies for managing behaviors and situations but also teaching styles, theories of change, emphases, and values. Defined broadly, the term *approaches* becomes perhaps the central term for discussing classroom management.

Types of Approaches

Approaches to classroom management can be organized according to types—using different ways of organizing for defining types. One way is to organize types according to the degree to which teachers and students share control. This way of typing approaches has yielded distinctions between *authoritarian*, *authoritative*, and *permissive* types—following the same typology used by developmental psychologist Diana Baumrind for distinguishing parenting styles.

Another way of typing approaches has been to type by implicit or explicit theories of change—using the most common psychological theories. So, for example, one might type approaches as behaviorist, psychodynamic, cognitive-developmental, ecological, sociocultural, and other oft-used terms for capturing broad theoretical orientations to human development and human behavior.

Still another way of typing approaches, one that is less common but nevertheless quite useful, is by distinguishing them on the basis of what is *emphasized* or featured when attending to the tasks and challenges all educators should attend to regardless of approach. For example, all educators understand that classroom management requires attending to relationship building (teacher–student relationships and the relationships needed to build a classroom community), teaching for learning (providing an engaging curriculum, teaching good behavior, etc.), supporting long-term development (e.g., supporting students to become critical thinkers, empathic friends, active citizens), being organized (e.g., organizing classroom space to improve traffic flow), establishing good interpersonal systems (e.g., ensuring that no child with special needs becomes the designated problem child), and accommodating diversity (both diversity around culture and diversity around ability)—to name a few of the central components or building blocks of good classroom management. By categorizing according to emphasis, we find that some put more emphasis on relationship building than on being organized, while others do just the opposite, and still others emphasize using curriculum to manage classrooms.

Finally, there are approaches defined by their being caring or by their focusing on building a *just community* or a *democratic classroom*. Such approaches are defined by their taking an ethical stance toward classroom management, one that emphasizes central values that give an entire approach its meaning.

There are advantages and disadvantages to each of these ways of categorizing approaches. However, whichever way one adopts, they all require making a choice. They do not allow for being eclectic and picking from each category or type in order to come up with one super approach that will work well with every child in every situation. After all, one cannot simultaneously be authoritarian and permissive, a behaviorist and a cognitive-developmental, or take emphasis out of the equation of what characterizes one's approach. (Even the absence of emphasis is itself a type of emphasis and distinct approach.)

With this way of thinking about approaches, the only meaningful use of the term *eclectic* occurs when an educator drops one approach and adopts another that is better suited to helping a particular student or group of students—as when one might move to feature organization when moving from teaching typically developing children to teaching children with extreme issues around maintaining attention. In other words, there is no one-size-fits-all approach. Rather, there are a variety of approaches that succeed if they are well matched to the students and settings where classroom management takes place. This brings us to the issue of what it means for an approach to be well matched.

The Problem of the Match

With a greater appreciation of the needs of children with special needs and the needs of students from diverse cultural-linguistic backgrounds has come a greater appreciation of the *problem of the match*. Problems once defined as problems students *have* (as if the problems are inside them) are more and more being defined as problems of match. We see this most clearly in today's discussions of classroom management where students from culturally different backgrounds present mismatches with the culture of their teachers.

With this newfound appreciation for diversity has come a heightened awareness of the problems that can occur when a teacher's approach is not well matched to the students being taught. A common example can be a teacher relying on good relationship-building skills and good pedagogy but not understanding the extra ways a classroom needs to be organized in order to support a child with serious problems staying on task.

Mismatches also occur around behavior management with culturally diverse groups. For example, Cynthia Ballenger (see the entry on Haitian Students, this encyclopedia) has shown that the approach most White, middle-class teachers take is not well suited to helping many Haitian students when they behave in ways that disrupt classrooms. Adopting a traditional Haitian way of managing by reminding students who they are

connected to—the persons who care about them (e.g., parents)—can be a way of managing more effectively. This is just one of a host of ways in which culture figures into classroom management and into how classroom mismanagement can occur when a teacher's approach is not well matched to the needs and nature of a student or group of students with different cultural backgrounds.

Implementing an Approach

Approaches are tools for problem solving and acting. As tools, they can be used skillfully and effectively, or the opposite. Therefore, on their own they do not ensure effective classroom management—even when a given approach is the right approach for a particular student or classroom.

One pervasive problem accounting for why approaches often fail is the problem of an *undeveloped* approach, one that reveals a teacher or educator has understood only partially what the approach entails. For example, when implementing a behaviorist approach, many fail to understand that reinforcement is anything that functions to increase behavior, that is, reinforcement is defined by its function. Therefore, offering rewards for behaving well is not the same as reinforcing students for behaving well. After all, rewards do not necessarily lead to an increase in behaving well. Unfortunately, some who adopt a behaviorist approach continue to confuse rewards with reinforcements and so continue to rely on rewards to change behavior.

Or take another common mistake among those who adopt a relationship approach to classroom management, one that emphasizes the centrality of building good teacher–student relationships. Thinking that relationship building entails only showing empathy, being warm, and acting in other positive ways, some teachers fail to understand that making demands and having high expectations for students are also part of relationship building—and for some students, this may be the most important part.

Approaches and Methods

When approaches are defined broadly and in the way they are here defined, no single method belongs to a particular approach. For example, time-out as a method for managing misbehavior can be used within any of the approaches mentioned. One need not be a behaviorist.

However, the meaning and use of a particular method may change with changes in approach. For example, time-out used within a behaviorist approach might be explained as removing what is reinforcing misbehavior, whereas time-out used within a psychodynamic approach might be explained as helping a child regain control over his ego or ability to self-regulate. The

surface treatment of the child may be essentially the same, but the underlying reasons are different. And, over time, the differences will matter—because they will dictate when a particular method is or is not used, as well as dictate subtleties in the way a teacher communicates and behaves (in a neutral way to ensure that during time-out there is no unintended reinforcement, in a guiding way to ensure that during time-out new learning occurs, and so forth).

Also, approaches are likely to differ in the total package of methods used and in the frequency of using any one method. For example, a behaviorist is likely to use time-out more frequently and in conjunction with other planned consequences for when a child misbehaves, whereas a cognitive-developmental may use time-out only occasionally and in conjunction with guidance methods such as getting children who are fighting to talk about their different perspectives and wishes.

Conclusion

Defined broadly, approaches include just about everything we bring to bear to create good learning environments—including our value systems and theories of change. One implication is that to some extent our approaches are who we are as educators, that is, they define our goals, assumptions, and who we are or would like to be as persons. No wonder, then, that it is difficult to understand one's own approach and that of others—let alone change one's approach to accommodate the specific needs of an individual student or a group of students.

But however difficult it may be to identify, understand, and implement approaches, the task of doing so is essential. It is essential for being able to grow as an educator and become better able to educate diverse groups of students. It is essential too in order to appreciate the value of approaches different from one's own and those times when one might need help because one's own approach is not doing the job. Understanding approaches to classroom management is, then, central to meeting the many challenges all educators face in order to create good learning environments, not just for a few students but for all students.

W. George Scarlett

See also Behavioral Approaches, Foundations of; Caring Approaches; Constructivist Approaches; Developmental Approaches; Methods for Managing Behavior: Types and Uses; Styles of Teaching

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ART: STUDIO APPROACHES TO LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS

A classroom's ambiance communicates a philosophy of schooling, one that can often marginalize students in our climate of standardization and surveillance. Teaching spaces must be reenvisioned to counter the forces that marginalize and breed student resistance—by silencing students' voices and by favoring institutional authority. Authentic studio approaches offer one such reenvisioning—by the way they empower students and lead to classrooms being more generative and inclusive.

The Context of Art in Schools

Studio approaches are embedded in authentic arts education, a field that is complex and underinvestigated. Arts education has long required definition and defense in U.S. public schools, especially in today's climate of standardization with its emphasis on achievements in reading and in STEM (science, technology, engineering, and math). Rationales for the arts have been presented and contested, and an already marginalized field of learning has suffered from continual debate as to its meaning and usefulness. In this climate of debate and standardization, arts education has been especially reduced for urban students of color.

Arts as a Means Versus Arts as an End

Many arts advocates justify arts education in relation to academic performance—saying the arts foster math, science, and academic performance in general. However, the research supporting these claims is spotty. Nevertheless, the claims continue to be made for arts education promoting academic performance—because doing so engages with today's language of accountability.

Lois Hetland and Ellen Winner challenge this standard way of justifying arts education as a means—by justifying the arts *in their own right*. Their work is indispensable in describing the true nature of teaching and learning in the art room. They delineate key dispositions that the visual arts require. Their work sets the foundation from which we can build more authentic arguments to maintain spaces for the arts in schools.

Social Justice Art Education

Not all arts education programs demonstrate the practices for student empowerment described below. It is the particular work of Social Justice Art Education (SJAE) that can lead us to inspire healthy, inclusive classrooms. This work strives to develop student empathy and engagement through art experiences. SJAE moves beyond technical skill building in favor of conceptual challenges engaged with the surrounding world.

SJAE challenges students to make work that *matters*—work that holds social significance and that strives to improve the human condition. Students' artwork nourishes their expression of freedom and personal voice so that arts programming has the potential to transform experience by developing the artistic wisdom and commitment to telling one's story and engaging with the world as a maker. Classrooms that support such goals serve as sanctuaries. They provide a necessary antidote to the invisibility and disempowerment inherent in the climate of standardization.

Art and Spaces for Learning

Few classroom teachers have the flexibility and resources to structure their spaces adequately, and few are exposed to alternative specialized spaces such as studios and laboratories, particularly in urban schools. However, many teachers devise ingenious solutions to make their spaces effective and inspiring, such as making wall color decisions, configurations of furniture, and gestures of décor charged with philosophical meaning that leads to a better climate for learning.

That better climate often has to do with changing power dynamics. Power dynamics are physically present in the spaces of classrooms, and this impacts students' sense of being valued. Ideally, students should feel a sense of ownership over their learning spaces. Ideally, they should have an internalized commitment to the collective maintenance and contribution to learning spaces. To foster student ownership and commitment requires a disruption in traditional classroom structures in which teachers are relegated to a dominant position and students are made uniform and anonymous.

Elementary teachers with a discrete classroom and the usual one-desk-per-student configuration have the opportunity to encourage and nourish the individuality of students' assigned spaces. Small artworks or photographs of the individual can adorn each desk and celebrate the unique identity of its occupant. Regular art opportunities can reinforce the dynamic presence of each student in the class to underscore that the space would not be the same without him or her.

There are other methods to generate a sense of inclusion and individualized presence. A monthly

art wall that allows open or curricular contribution, student-curated art pieces hung in a mini-gallery, and student-generated graphics to support course content—all communicate the message that classroom space is collectively owned and that student work is celebrated (not simply assessed and graded).

Ideally, students of all ages should feel that resources are at their disposal and materials are at the ready. Each artist constructs his or her studio differently to facilitate productivity. Setting a space to be fruitful for a variety of learners takes ongoing refinement, and a flexible space continually is informed by student interests. The ultimate goal is to build an inspiring environment that honors students through the creation of ennobling spaces of learning. Once honored, students engage with appreciation, and behavioral interventions are unnecessary.

Sensory Engagement With Materials for Making Art

Studio art practice requires *sensory engagement*, that is, making learning physical through exploration using materials. Educators can include art materials as tools of learning in any context. Providing a range of tools for inquiry and expression can open up modes of learning otherwise untapped. Students' varied dispositions and facility with materials should be legitimized through learning opportunities as makers.

Some materials require specialized equipment or resources, and dedicated educators can leverage ways to gain access to them. Clay, for example, is among the most responsive to student manipulation and is elemental and familiar. Its use yields phenomenal opportunities for engaging even the most rambunctious learners. There are few sensations more satisfying than pounding, kneading, and ultimately transforming clay into an intended form.

Access to materials such as clay is an issue of equity for diverse learners and underresourced students. Determined educators can commit to its availability through obtaining special grant funding, mobilizing parent advocates, and experimenting with new air-dry clay products now widely available.

Fine art materials are deluxe in their capacity to elicit beautiful products that make students proud. Yet, following the efforts of resourceful educators, almost any item can be transformed into an art material. Magazine images, collections of synthetic or natural objects, and neighborhood artifacts all can be used to create art and elegant works. The act of gathering and transforming these commonplace materials into meaningful objects is empowering and can profoundly support learning goals in a variety of domains. In doing so, students can become captivated by the physical process of hunting

for material objects and by the creative process of transformation with alertness and intention.

Self-Driven Inquiry

Effective studio practices require self-driven inquiry. For students engaged in authentic art making, the motivation to realize a vision flows from internal sources. As in project-based curricula, studio projects follow the student's *métier* and the project's needs and require the license to veer from artificial time confinements. Once internally motivated, engaged students maximize class time, even returning to complete work after school. When students are allowed to drive content, when the singular answer is the one only *they* can concoct, the job of the responsive educator is to simply get out of the way.

Classrooms that nurture self-driven inquiry inspire student self-management. In these environments, students are often so engaged in generative exploration that the only disruptive behavior is that of the teacher who must interrupt students to end the class. One can witness this state often in the healthy elementary art room, in which students present an inexhaustible sense of direction for their work.

High school educators can generate such environments by allowing students to make their personal learning goals curricular. They can also pose engaging problems and allow students to hone and demonstrate their unique strengths as solution makers. The studio model is useful to consider here as an ideal as one can imagine practical ways to simulate the creative independence artists celebrate in their private studios.

Cross-Cultural Celebration

Classrooms can become dynamic and relevant by including a variety of cultural influences. This inclusion can be in the visuals adorning a classroom, in the content of curriculum, and in activities on field trips.

Educators can move beyond a multicultural inclusion that frames diversity in sound bites for easy digestion by introducing the timely and provocative work of global contemporary artists. There is limitless opportunity to connect any discipline's content with this work, as it is idea-based and of the world. Consider the work of Colombian artist Doris Salcedo as one example among the endless possibilities. She makes objects that hold the eerie presence of those lost to civic violence. This work could obviously breathe life into any sociopolitical or historical discussion, yet it could also be connected in unexpected ways to concepts of geometric volumes or voids or to the use of silence in poetry—the opportunities for cross-disciplinary prospects are vast.

In school or in cultural settings, contemporary art encounters allow students and their teachers to experience learning in situated ways that align their humanity and bridge generational experience. Power status is equalized when these encounters are skillfully presented as shared experiences for common growth. Trusting students to be part of a civic dialog sends the message that their contribution is indispensable and that knowledge is not finite or resolved. Experiencing important artworks that enlist their critical thinking and attentive presence guides students toward behaviors that are conscientious and empathetic.

Local cultural wisdom should also hold a place of critical importance in any classroom. Family expertise, student social festivities, and the work of community artists reflect the livelihood of student worlds and should be required material for learning. The arts play a key role in maintaining the flavor of communities. Schools, never neutral, can allow the beauty found outside their buildings to infiltrate into the too-often alienating habitat of school. The inclusion of community artists in school learning can make classrooms an extension of local student worlds. Student behaviors reacting to the irrelevancy of schooling will dissolve when local cultural wisdom is celebrated.

Conclusion: The Studio as a Space of Freedom

Often the art classroom operates as a counterculture to the larger school environment, providing solace for students emerging from the social margins. Even a healthy school climate that embodies shared values can perpetrate conditions that silence dissent. Many art teachers describe a benefit to their curricular invisibility—the ability to work with relative autonomy out of the limelight. This can exempt them from the pressures associated with a high-stakes testing environment and other factors that compromise their ability to nurture the gifts of students.

When open expression is valued and dissent is affirmed, true transformation is possible in any classroom. This occurs when educators require unique student *authorship*, embracing the very opposite of standardization. Students must be goaded to take risks in style and approach and to voice their counternarratives. They must be linked to their rightful legacies of greatness, to artistic resistance, and to that which is exceptional. Ultimately, educators must generate conditions that honor each student's artistic sovereignty, and when they do so, the classroom manages itself.

Beth Balliro

See also Arts for Learning Environments; Climate: School and Classroom; Democratic Practices in Classrooms and Schools

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ARTS FOR LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS

In recent years, arts education in U.S. schools has been viewed by many as an enhancement rather than as an essential component of education for children and youth. The *arts-as-enhancement paradigm* suggests that participation in arts learning can be offered through an elective status intended for only those who possess a talent or affinity for engaging in the arts. When the arts are seen as only serving as enhancement, a school's core curriculum centers on proficiency in those disciplines that are considered essential, namely language, science, and mathematics. Furthermore, when there are budget constraints, the adoption of a paradigm of arts-as-enhancement leads many schools to single out arts programs as the first programs to be eliminated from the school curricula.

This entry calls for a paradigm shift from *arts-as-enhancement* to *arts-as-essential*. It does so not from sentimental affection for the arts but from the results of research and close observation of highly successful schools whose success has been derived from an adoption of an *arts-as-essential* paradigm. Based on literature from leading researchers and thinkers, this entry is intended to illuminate how an *arts-as-essential* paradigm can lead to the creation of positive learning environments and what those learning environments look like. Although we cannot assume that all learning environments for the teaching of arts are optimal, our focus here is on arts learning environments that foster creativity and expressivity.

The Value of an Arts-as-Essential Paradigm

Historically, the *arts-as-essential* paradigm has been the rule and not the exception. The paradigm is not new. For

example, ancient Chinese and Greek civilizations viewed the learning of music, theater, poetry, painting, sculpture, and dance as necessary integrative experiences for the preparation of future citizens. The fact that modern-day cultures throughout the world still draw upon and are enriched by these art forms bears witness to the importance of the arts. An educational philosophy that views the arts as essential challenges the assumption that the complexity of human behavior can be understood and expressed through an atomistic, mechanistic view of the nature of development. The arts are essential because they include forms of expression and thought that are characteristically unique to human beings, that is, the abilities to become self-aware, reflective, and creative.

In more recent times, findings from research reports have demonstrated that, compared to students in programs without arts programs, students in schools with active arts programs report higher levels of satisfaction in school and eagerness to come to school. Among researchers who study arts in education, the developmental, educational, and social benefits of arts education are widely known. The integration of arts into the curriculum allows students and faculty to step away from linear and highly structured approaches to learning and to embrace arts-based approaches that provide both structure and flexibility in guiding students toward open-ended, imaginative responses to problem solving.

Unlike other subject areas where students engage in working on a common problem with a common solution, and where students are encouraged to find the one right solution to a given problem, students in arts-based classrooms learn that there are often several right answers to a given problem. Through a transdisciplinary approach that breaks through the boundaries of traditional disciplines, the arts use the media and tools of theater, story, poetry, music, visual arts, dance, and creative writing to expand ideas and to reach a variety of possible endpoints.

The integration of arts into the teaching of other subject areas enriches the entire curriculum. Lessons in social studies can be made more memorable by learning the songs from a particular culture or era; exploring how artists have developed pigments for a painting may offer concrete and interesting perspectives to a science lesson on colors. Finally, participation in the arts requires that students confer and collaborate in ways that draw on the strengths of each student, and that push and pull on the skills and creativity of each individual participating. Arts educational environments, therefore, require a different set of guidelines and perspectives that frame the learning environment.

Optimal Learning Environments in the Arts

Arts educators and researchers agree that learning environments in the arts should not have as their sole

purpose the promotion of learning of skills, techniques, and theory that lead to the production of a work of art. The processes related to the development of individuals and to the community are also important considerations for the development of successful learning environments in the arts. The following sections discuss three selected areas related to the development of optimal learning experiences in the arts. In particular, processes that lead to aesthetic experiences, engagement and collaboration, and development of mind figure centrally in creating optimal learning environments in the arts.

Aesthetic Experiences

An aesthetic experience is defined here as one that involves moments of perceived relation to a process or object in the environment—an experience when an individual is attentive to and open to the surrounding environment. An aesthetic experience is one that is often marked by an integration of senses that leads to awe, joy, or a heightened sense of understanding that is known and felt. This experience can happen when there is a felt awareness and relation to a painting, to a musical performance, to the beauty of a mathematical proof, or to any experience, sometimes in a moment, that opens an individual to his or her surroundings. Aesthetic experiences are inherent in arts environments, but, starting with the early years of childhood, it takes specialized perceptive and observational skills to have children develop their openness to such experiences. Stopping to look at a drop of water on a leaf or to observe an ant scurrying across a crack in the sidewalk are common activities for many two- and three-year-olds who are in awe of each new experience. Many parents comment on their renewed sense of awe when seeing the world through the eyes of their young children. Learning through the arts fosters what John Dewey and Maxine Greene refer to as an awakedness and openness to these experiences. A positive learning environment focused on arts experiences should promote *aesthetic experiences* in both the process of making art and in the interactions with the arts products themselves.

What can an educator do to promote these experiences in an arts classroom? First, there needs to be *adequate and appropriate resources* such as tactile materials that allow learners to become physically connected with the arts experience. These might include wet paint to smear and smell; colors to mix, blend, and pour; soft pliable materials to sculpt; musical instruments to pluck, shake, drum, and with which to create sounds that will resonate through the room; space to experiment with movement and materials such as scarves, hoops, and balloons; and costumes or clothing that can be used to suggest a different role, place, or period of time.

In addition to rich and inviting artistic media and tools with which to work, learners also need to feel the *freedom and safety to explore* these resources. Setting clear and consistent guidelines about how to respect the materials, the space, and other individuals' freedom of expression can help promote an environment in which appropriate risk-taking and exploration can happen in creative and productive ways.

Additionally, as with any learning environment, a certain amount of *modeling and guidance* is needed to bring learners to the level of noticing and experiencing aesthetic moments themselves. Educators must be experienced enough to draw attention to the aesthetic qualities in a work of art that learners may miss initially—the unintended smearing and mixing of paint that actually creates a new and beautiful color; the subtle shift from merely playing notes in a musical score to playing it musically and expressively; the excitement that follows improvised music-making among a group of children or youth; or where there is a new understanding of the experiences of others while creating a play that focuses on achievements or challenges faced by the community. Through discussion and modeling, as well as through skillful coaching of children, teachers may enhance the development of students' *reflection* that evolves from the arts experience. An aesthetic education encourages students to strive for coherence and clarity and to make sense of the world by being aware and being present to each moment.

When learners are engaged in an arts learning environment that emphasizes skills and techniques as well as aesthetics, what does the learning environment look, feel, and sound like? Arts learners should be focused on both the *processes* and the *products* of their arts experiences. There should be just as much emphasis on fully experiencing the creative process that leads to making a final product—making decisions, working through mistakes, and paying attention to the details as well as the whole composition—as there is emphasis on creating a quality product. In positive arts learning environments, learners are talking and sharing their ideas about how things look, feel, sound, smell, and sometimes taste. Within appropriate limits, learners are making their own *choices* about media, subject matter, and techniques, and they are also expressing their own *voice* in the arts environment. Choice and voice are important for fostering an aesthetics-oriented environment, as well as for promoting another important ingredient of a positive arts learning environment, that of student engagement.

Engagement and Collaboration

Most educators envision the ideal classroom environment as one where each student is actively engaged in the learning process. What promotes engagement in

learning in an arts environment? What does an engaged community of learners in the arts actually look like? Does it mean simply participating in an arts project? Does it mean using the tools and resources provided to complete the task at hand?

In an arts setting, engagement may include active participation, but for active participation and engagement to happen, there must be particular kinds of support in place—support that promotes an effective learning environment. First, arts projects need to be *relevant* for learners, or else interest and engagement will ultimately be lost. Relevance can be achieved through *choice-based* activities where learners have *ownership* over their artistic decisions. For example, a teacher might ask, “What would you like to make a play about?” or “What type of weather would you like to represent through the sounds you make on your musical instruments—a wind storm, a sunny day, a cloudy and rainy day?”

Similarly, educators need to keep in mind that arts experiences can—and should—be tailored to *all skill levels*. Arts projects and lessons should be planned with the idea that it is not only the artistically talented who will benefit from arts programming. Every learner will come into a program with a different set of skills and experiences, but each individual should be allowed the opportunity to express himself or herself through the arts. Every attempt should be made to provide opportunities for children's participation in art making, even when this means revising the plan, adapting the music, or rewriting the script to accommodate individual differences. Children who are physically not able to participate in the actual arts-making may still be given an opportunity to play an important role in the creation of the arts experience through other modes of expression that might include, for example, planning, analysis, and evaluation.

When introducing an arts project, there are several things a teacher needs to keep in mind. First, students should be reminded that there are *many best ways* to approach a project. There is more than one right way to build a castle, to write a song about a pet, or to create a dance about the recent snowfall. Second, when teaching the technical skills needed in the arts, it is important for the teacher or coach to present challenges that learners can *master* through practice. This helps to boost the sense of ownership over an arts experience, and it increases motivation to continue facing new challenges along the way—challenges that are sure to arise in arts learning. It is important for children and youth to know that most skills can be learned through *effort and practice* and that these skills are not just derived from natural talent. Third, in order to ensure *respect* is given to the contribution made by each member of the learning community, teachers will need to guide children on how to give positive and constructive feedback

about an arts project, whether it is a product of individual or collaborative effort. Fourth, it is important for teachers to select arts projects that are relevant to students' own heritage cultures, ethnicities, races, and religions. The inclusion of a *culturally responsive pedagogy* in teaching the arts is linked to the development of positive self-identity among children and youth and to the creation of a respectful learning environment for the diverse communities that comprise the classroom.

When learners are engaged in an arts classroom, how does this reflect in the behavior and overall environment of the classroom? First, all children are capable of responding to works of art. Early experiences with arts are the foundation of later aesthetic development. Engaged arts learners stay involved in the artistic process over a sustained period of time, whether it is throughout a class lesson or over days or weeks at a time. In order to maintain this *sustained involvement*, learners need to stay engaged.

Because the social dynamics of an arts environment are different from other areas of study, *collaboration* during projects is key to building inspiration and fostering the motivation to try new things. Collaboration and skillful arts teaching also lead to an environment where learners use a *repertoire of expressive languages* when working to achieve a similar goal. For example, in a musical ensemble, each participant must understand both his or her instrument, the notation, the theory, the technique, and must also possess a knowledge of how the instrument fits into the band dynamics, how to communicate with band members, receive direction from the band leader, and ultimately how to play to benefit the musicality of the group effort. Having ownership over a role, collaborating, communicating, and being allowed the freedom to be personally expressive will enhance the engagement of an arts learner. The engagement of the community of children leads to the positive learning environment needed for all learners and educators to develop and grow.

Development of Mind

Children and youth who are engaged in an artistic process learn habits of mind that include persistence, focus, attention to detail, awareness of part-whole relations, creative problem-solving skills, and the capability to transform and be transformed by the processes of creating art and learning through the arts. Participation in the arts helps us to develop and reorder meaning from our experiences. An important concept introduced by John Dewey, *flexible purposing*, suggests that unlike other disciplines that may encourage a student to identify a specified set of goals, objectives, and expected outcomes related to a project, those who work in the

arts are constantly refining and revising their goals and purpose as they engage in the process of creation.

In the midst of the creation of art, an artist may discover or spontaneously generate a different idea or direction that has emerged from the work itself or from other influences in the environment as the artist interacts with his or her art. This may lead the artist to take a different direction while in the process of creating a painting, writing a play, designing choreography, or composing music. This may require the artist to redefine the intended purpose of the art that was originally set by the artist. In fact, the artist may shift the directions and purpose of the artwork created throughout the process of creation, and this may continue even after the final brush stroke, the last fading note, or the final applause of the audience, as the artist continues to explore and experiment with his or her ideas.

The creation of art involves an ongoing process that can entail long-term experimentation with a theme, medium, or modality of expression. Unlike solving a problem that has one finite solution, the student of art learns to explore the possibilities for multiple solutions to problems presented. An arts environment that promotes flexible purposing offers learners the opportunity to engage in different ways of knowing and seeing the world and allows individuals to engage in the practice of navigating these possibilities, creating new potential responses to a question or idea, and exploring not only *what is* but also *what could be*. Students who participate in the arts learn that there is more than one right way, and they develop a quality of mind that allows creative exploration that is typically not measured by standardized tests of achievement. This quality of mind is important not only to the arts but also to the creativity and exploration that is required in science, engineering, technology, and mathematics, where there are always new problems to solve and many possible solutions. In the process of art making, experiences are created or evoked, and individuals are given the opportunity to invent or perceive any number of meanings and purposes of an art product. Arts classroom environments should, therefore, include ways of supporting the multitude of possibilities available to creators.

Providing a set of classroom rules or guidelines that promote *safety* and *respect* is important for any educational environment, and the arts classroom is no different. When learners know they can create and express themselves without worrying about unsafe working conditions or being teased or put on the spot for an artistic decision they made, it becomes much more comfortable to explore, experiment, and follow the direction a work of art is taking.

When these environments also provide a setting full of *rich resources* and freedom of *choice*, the learning environment is more likely to provide opportunities

for learners to find or *create meaning* from their work. When flexible purposing becomes actively fostered in an arts classroom environment, it should promote different ways of looking at the world and stimulate imagination and creative problem solving.

How would a classroom that promotes flexible purposing look like? Arts learners who are opened up to and aware of the potentialities in their arts projects may be very likely to explore and experiment. Mistakes may be frustrating, but learners who have gained flexible perspectives on the means and ends of works of art will be more likely to persist through their struggles in the arts and thereby gain a deeper understanding of the techniques, concepts, and theory behind the art-making process. Higher-level problem-solving skills involving metacognitive approaches can be modeled and fostered to bring learners in an arts environment to a level where decision making is based on a number of factors and prior experiences. A visual arts learner may think about visual qualities of light, color, and form while translating an imagined idea through perceptual and motor skills required to paint or draw a desired image. The process may also involve manufacturing symbolic representations of an emotion while implementing and refining strategies to produce a desired effect. Similarly, a music student needs to balance the technical skills of playing an instrument with paying close attention to other players as well as to the next few measures of a musical score. In dramatic and musical improvisations, a student must consider how to communicate an idea, to listen and to respond to the others in an ensemble, and to communicate this idea to an audience. In each of these examples, and in many other situations present in an arts environment, learners are constantly and continuously using multiple skills and a variety of approaches to complete a project or task.

These components of an arts experience involve many areas of the brain and body working together to coordinate a creative process. Recent research suggests that the kinds of thinking that are required in the arts and the perceptual strategies used by artists can affect neural pathways, creating neural connections that are not displayed during participation in activities that involve more linear ways of thinking. Ultimately, fostering a sense of flexible purposing leads to a classroom full of creative expressive individuals who each help to promote a community replete with rich arts processes and products. Beyond the classroom, this type of problem solving, which generates and considers many right answers, may have implications for dealing with real-life social problems and in developing resilience to personal, social, and physical challenges that are faced throughout life.

Conclusion

Adopting an arts-as-essential paradigm is justified by the fact that the arts have a powerful impact on learning and on communities of learners. By offering a new way of knowledge building and new ways to see the world, the arts provide experiences that evoke emotions and transform the way people think. In societies and cultures whose educational systems are driven by assessment through standardized testing, it is particularly important to infuse each learning environment with opportunities for children and youth to develop habits of mind that are not solely focused on getting the right answer but that are directed toward the processes of learning that are characterized by the awe that emerges from exploration, discovery, and the use of imagination. Educational institutions that support an arts-as-essential paradigm can promote a learning environment that spans across all disciplines, that is characterized by exploration and experimentation, sharing, constructive discourse, and active engagement of all members, and that prepares children and youth for active citizenship in a democratic society.

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See also Art: Studio Approaches to Learning Environments; Creativity and Classroom Management

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ASIAN AMERICAN STUDENTS

Asian American students, including Asian immigrant students, have dramatically increased in classrooms throughout the United States over the last few decades. Asians represented the fastest growing racial group and the largest group of immigrants in the United States from 2000 to 2010. By 2008, the number of Asian American children had doubled to represent 4.2% of the total U.S. student population. The majority of Asians in the United States comprise immigrants who are foreign-born. Asian students are usually defined as

individuals from various countries in South, East, and Southeast Asia; Chinese immigrants have constituted the largest ethnic group for the last few decades, but Asian populations have become increasingly diverse, consisting of immigrants from various ethnic and national origins and socioeconomic backgrounds.

In teaching and managing classrooms with Asian students, issues of particular importance include (1) being aware of challenges that Asian American students could face at school, (2) understanding each student's cultural and family background, and (3) paying attention to individual student's needs and promoting communication with parents. The following sections explore each of these issues in turn.

A Model Minority? Asian Students' Academic Performance

Asian American students have acquired a reputation as a *model minority* owing to their overall high academic achievement and positive attitude toward education. Evidence from the United States and other countries has demonstrated that Asian and Asian American students are, in general, high academic achievers, although there are certainly academic gaps within the group.

Key elements that explain Asian American students' high academic performance include socialization processes and cultural beliefs and practices that originated in Asia. Asian families tend to value education, have high expectations for their children's education, and be involved in their children's education. In the United States, Asian parents consistently demonstrate higher expectations for their children's academic performance and attainment than do parents from other racial groups. Although parents' high expectations for their children's academic performance may sometimes lead to academic pressure on their children, high expectations are a key factor in explaining Asian American children's academic outcomes.

A second possible key factor in Asian American students' high academic performance is their cultural beliefs regarding learning and education. In Asia, learning is generally viewed as a process of self-perfection and moral cultivation, which requires students' dedication, diligence, and perseverance. Learning is considered a challenging process, rather than a fun activity, through which one can grow and benefit. Such cultural beliefs are distinct from those shared in the United States, where intellectual traditions stress the importance of exploration, personal interests, and curiosity in learning. In the United States, as early as preschool days, Asian American students have been shown to view learning more seriously than their non-Asian counterparts.

Asian and Asian American students also tend to believe that effort, rather than innate ability, is the primary source of achievement. Further, a cultural pattern of self-criticism in Asian cultures encourages students to focus on their own weaknesses rather than on their accomplishments as a means of improving academic performance. These beliefs and practices help both students and parents put effort into students' schoolwork and other school-related matters. However, socioeconomic gaps in children's beliefs related to learning also appear from a young age. For example, at age four, middle-class Chinese immigrant children tend to articulate more intellectual benefits and values attached to learning and demonstrate better academic performance than do Chinese immigrant children of low socioeconomic status (SES).

Challenges Facing Asian American Students

The stereotype of Asian American students as high academic achievers and a model minority group carries the risk of masking diversity within the group, as well as difficulties and struggles experienced by the students. For example, there is a great deal of variability in Asian children's academic performance across different socioeconomic and ethnic groups. From a young age, academic performance among children of low SES is significantly lower than that of children of higher SES. The model minority stereotype may inadvertently lead educators to neglect those Asian American students who lack resources and are experiencing academic difficulties. Additionally, the model minority stereotype is likely to mask various social and emotional challenges faced by Asian American students. Contrary to the image of Asian students as less problematic and high in functioning, Asian students report higher levels of difficulty related to emotional and social adjustments and internal disturbances such as depression, anxiety, and low self-esteem than students of other racial groups, especially as they grow.

It is also important to point out that the model minority image may increase other students' negative feelings toward Asian American students, which may further result in the segregation of Asian American students and other racial groups in classrooms and schools. Reports of harassment toward Asian American students by their peers, especially during adolescence, have increased. Asian immigrants and Asian American children are often teased, picked on at school, subjected to ethnic slurs, and threatened or bullied, especially during middle school and high school. However, such peer harassment and discrimination does not happen to every Asian student. Rather, relationships between Asian students

and other students depend largely on school and neighborhood contexts.

Quiet Students in Classrooms

Asian American students are often perceived to be quieter, more passive, and shy when compared with other students in the United States and Europe. Studies demonstrate that Asian American and Asian immigrant students from an early age are more silent and less likely to express their needs and opinions than Caucasian students in the United States.

Differences in expectations for emotional expression and verbal communication styles between Asia and the United States bring challenges to Asian students when they study in Western schools. In Asian cultures, where nonconfrontational interpersonal relations and intuitive communication are valued, shy behavior is not considered negative, because it indicates the child's sensitivity, sympathy, and modesty. Even when growing up in the West, Asian children are socialized by parents who strive to bestow such values from their countries of origin. Asian children tend to be socialized to listen attentively before they speak, learn how to read and interpret others' feelings and desires without directly asking questions, and understand the context of expression, including whether they should remain quiet or speak up in specific situations. Expressing opinions or thoughts that differ from those of others such as friends or teachers is especially discouraged. Not revealing thoughts and feelings, especially when they are negative, is considered a critical aspect of self-control, which represents a valuable socialization goal in Asian culture.

Cultural values as they relate to quietness tend to cause challenges for Asian students when they study in Western classrooms, where the expression of ideas and speaking up in classrooms are expected. In the United States, students' silent behaviors tend to be interpreted as a lack of interest or knowledge. Cross-cultural studies have also demonstrated that quiet children receive negative emotional and social sanctions in Western schools. In contrast, shyness or quietness is not associated with negative peer relations and emotional outcomes, such as depression, among school-age children in Asia.

One early study that analyzed American teachers' views related to quietness and expressiveness documented that American teachers expect better class participation, academic performance, and peer relations from an expressive child. Because teachers' positive perceptions about expressive students are likely to result in greater interactions with these students and a more challenging learning environment, Asian American students may be forgotten in classrooms, even though they are not necessarily labeled as problematic.

Unique Needs and Communications With Parents

To assist Asian American students in their academic and socioemotional adjustment at school, it is important to identify the individual needs of children, as well as their unique backgrounds. For example, children's home environments differ depending on parents' immigration histories and status, as well as their ethnic and socioeconomic backgrounds. When compared to third-generation or later Asian American students, first-generation Asian students who were born outside of the United States and second-generation Asian students who were born in the United States but have immigrant parents are likely to experience greater acculturation stress during the negotiation of values and behaviors. Immigrant students and children of immigrant parents are also expected to learn a new language and new cultural practices, which often differ markedly from those learned in their country of origin.

Although bilingual and bicultural skills are associated with better adjustment and healthier psychological states among immigrant children, the process of acquiring a new language and negotiating different cultures is cognitively and psychologically challenging. Parents' acculturation status also affects children's school experiences as well as parent-child relationships. Family conflict may become an issue when children are more acculturated and endorse mainstream cultural values while their parents continue to maintain Asian cultural values.

Schools can bridge cultural gaps between home and school among Asian students by respecting students' heritage and by increasing communication with their parents. Even though Asian parents, especially middle-class parents, tend to be involved in their children's education at home, when compared to parents of other racial groups, Asian parents are less likely to volunteer in their children's classrooms, be involved in school events, or initiate communications with teachers. In the case of Asian immigrant parents, language barriers and a lack of familiarity with the American schooling system may discourage parental involvement in school activities and communication with teachers. Asian students and parents are also less likely to see teachers of the same race at their respective schools. Despite the sharp increase in Asian populations in American classrooms, Asian teachers comprise just 1.2% of all K-12 teachers in the United States.

Educational systems and perceptions toward teachers in Asia may also discourage Asian parents from communicating with teachers and volunteering at school. Teachers tend to hold a high status in Asia. Asian parents may consider communications with teachers, especially discussions regarding concerns or requests, a sign

of disrespect and may decide to refrain from contacting teachers. Therefore, a lack of involvement in their children's school does not necessarily mean that Asian parents do not care about school or are not interested in volunteering at school.

Studies have shown that Asian parents especially appreciate communications initiated by schools and are more inclined to attend school events and parent-teacher conferences organized by the schools. Thus, school- or teacher-initiated communications are likely to promote parent-teacher communications. Offering guidance about how parents can provide support at school will also help Asian parents understand their roles and may raise their sense of self-efficacy in supporting their children in school. Increased communications between parents and teachers and the facilitation of parental involvement at school sites may promote the goals of teachers as well as parents and help to bridge the cultural gap between home and school. It may also enhance relationships between Asian American children and their parents.

Concluding Remarks

Given the sharp increase in the numbers of Asian American students in U.S. schools and the special challenges faced by many Asian American students and their families, it behooves educators to understand, define, and develop the special skills and resources needed to provide good support for Asian American students. Again, those special tasks include recognizing the challenges faced by many Asian American students, understanding and respecting each student's cultural background, and actively cultivating home-school connections.

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See also Asian Americans as Model Minority; Chinese Model of Classroom Management; Cultural Diversity; Culturally Pluralistic Classrooms; English Language Learners and Classroom Behavior; English Learners; Home-School Connections; Immigrant Children and Families; Japanese Model of Classroom Management; Underachievement and Culturally Different Students

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ASIAN AMERICANS AS MODEL MINORITY

One of the most common stereotypes about Asian American students is that they are hardworking, academically successful, free of psychosocial problems, and immune to racism or discrimination. This perception, which casts these students as members of a *model minority*, is an inaccurate and damaging generalization for Asian American students as a group. Researchers have illustrated various ways in which not all Asian American students are high-achieving and have documented wide variations in achievement outcomes within Asian American community samples. At the same time, being seen as a model minority may actually contribute to various academic, psychosocial, and interpersonal challenges that may go unnoticed. As a result, Asian American students' needs may be underestimated or undetected in classroom settings, posing major implications for classroom management.

Are Asian American Students a Model Minority?

The portrayal of Asian Americans as a model minority first appeared in the 1960s, when Asian American youths were described in newspaper and magazine articles as hardworking whiz kids. After this term was first used in a newspaper article about Japanese Americans, it was quickly adopted to refer to Asian American students as a group that is perceived to be particularly high-achieving, especially in math and science, and do not experience behavioral or psychological problems. Social perceptions that often accompany the model minority stereotype include appearing nerdy at the expense of being socially graceful, interpersonally unconnected, and singularly focused on academics. These perceptions of Asian American students continue to be accepted in and outside of classrooms, and sometimes even by Asian American students themselves.

However, over the years educational researchers have debunked this stereotype by highlighting the heterogeneity in Asian American groups. For instance, a recent study examined reading and math scores from the California Achievement Test of over 1 million seventh-grade Asian American and White European American students from 2003 to 2008 and found significant differences among the 13 Asian American ethnic groups

represented in the sample. Similarly, other researchers have noted a bimodal distribution in educational attainment and income spread among Asian Americans. While some Asian American ethnic groups (e.g., East Asians and South Asians) report higher levels of educational attainment and higher income, many families from other ethnic groups (e.g., Southeast Asians) struggle with poverty and lower educational attainment. The reasons for such discrepancy are related to divergent histories of, and contexts for, migration/immigration. East Asians, such as Chinese and Japanese Americans, tend to have a longer history of immigration to the United States, going back to as early as the 1800s in some cases. Most voluntarily immigrated to the United States and tend to differ in their economic and sociocultural capital in comparison to Vietnamese, Cambodian, Hmong, and Laotian Americans. Among the latter, most were refugees or children of refugees who experienced war and political upheavals in their countries of origin. In addition, there is also variability within specific Asian American ethnic subgroups as well. The aggregated data, which are often used to compare Asian Americans to other racial groups, thus provide an inaccurate picture of achievement in Asian American students.

Moreover, the National Commission on Asian American and Pacific Islander Research in Education reports that the rate of increase in educational attainment in Asian American students in higher education is similar to that of other student populations. That is, Asian American students can be found in both 4-year and 2-year colleges, with fast growth in attendance in 2-year colleges. Their test scores vary widely, and they major in diverse fields, including social sciences and humanities.

Shadow Side of the Model Minority Stereotype

At first glance, being perceived to be a model minority can be thought of as a positive experience. However, most researchers agree that the model minority stereotype may be actually harmful to Asian American students for multiple reasons. First, the model minority stereotype places unnecessarily high academic pressures on Asian American students. Second, the model minority stereotype obscures both the academic and psychosocial needs of these students. It may be particularly challenging to be perceived as high-achieving when one is actually struggling to understand a subject matter. The model minority stereotype is debunked even further when considering the psychosocial experiences of many Asian American students. Significant psychological challenges, such as high rates of depression, anxiety, and experiences of discrimination and racism, have been

noted among Asian American students, in contrast to what the model minority stereotype suggests. Because the model minority stereotype implies that race is insignificant in achieving academic and social success, this experience ignores the reality that Asian American experiences, in fact, have been racialized for years. For example, Asian Americans were perceived as enemies (especially during the World War II), and even in contemporary society, many continue to be perceived as foreigners.

Third, and relatedly, the model minority stereotype may contribute to negative relationships in the classroom between Asian American students and their non-Asian American peers, including teasing, bullying, and social isolation. Recent studies on discrimination distress among diverse racial groups of adolescents indicate that Asian American students experience the most racial discrimination from their peers. Furthermore, when one minority group is perceived as a model, the unintended message may be that other minority groups are not models. This comparative and inaccurate message may complicate interracial peer relationships, further racializing the experiences of Asian American and other minority students. Indeed, recent research studies suggest that when Asian American students are bullied, the bullying tends to be racially related (e.g., racial slurs, snide comments about accents, physical characteristics, and academic performance) and often takes place in classrooms. These experiences of discrimination, teasing, and bullying may lead to a reduced sense of belonging in schools and increased mental health problems in Asian American students.

Implications for Classroom Management

A better understanding of the potential meanings and implications of the model minority stereotype would help teachers to manage classroom contexts effectively. Overall, teachers should keep in mind the heterogeneity of Asian American students and explore the individual and family contexts for each student. Factors such as immigration history, family and community resources, and various stresses under which some Asian American students might find themselves would be important aspects to explore. Withholding assumptions that all Asian Americans will perform well academically and, instead, making an accurate assessment of the academic capability of each student would support Asian American students' academic needs. Teachers should also be aware that even when students are performing well academically, Asian American students are not immune to psychosocial and emotional challenges.

Teachers can be highly influential in fostering and facilitating healthy interracial group relationships among students of all racial and ethnic groups in their

classrooms. Strategizing ways in which to meet all students' needs equitably would help to dispel the notion held by many students that teachers perceive their Asian American students to be good and thus favor them.

In sum, the model minority stereotype obscures both the academic and psychosocial realities of Asian American students. Teachers can do much to foster success in all their students, in part by debunking this stereotype.

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See also Asian American Students; Bullying and Bullying Prevention; Culturally Pluralistic Classrooms; Underachievement and Culturally Different Students

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ASSESSING AND PROMOTING TREATMENT INTEGRITY

Over the past decade, the growing body of literature on effective classroom management has identified teacher practices that yield reductions in disruptive behavior, as well as gains in instructional time, student achievement, academic engagement, and prosocial skills. However, this identification of effective classroom management practices has not guaranteed widespread, effective

implementation of these practices, not simply or mainly because of the absence of dissemination but more so because of the absence of what is now referred to as *treatment integrity*.

That treatment integrity matters is becoming more and more clear. First, low levels of treatment integrity have been shown to consistently be related to worse intervention outcomes. This is especially concerning as research has established that low levels of treatment integrity are the norm, rather than the exception. Second, treatment integrity data are needed to make valid conclusions regarding the effectiveness of a classroom management plan. Without treatment integrity data, we cannot determine if it is the presence of an ineffective plan or poor implementation of the plan that is resulting in a lack of student progress. Third, treatment integrity data can provide evidence for the theory behind a classroom management plan. That is, treatment integrity data can provide information regarding the specific components/strategies that are driving the desired change. Fourth, in the absence of treatment integrity data, it is difficult to determine the level and type of support a teacher needs as he or she attempts to adopt and integrate a new set of classroom management practices.

Treatment integrity refers to five main dimensions for assessing the implementation of a plan or strategy: (1) *adherence*, the degree to which a plan or strategy's prescribed intervention steps are completed and proscribed intervention steps are avoided; (2) *dosage/exposure*, the frequency, number, or length of intervention sessions; (3) *program/intervention differentiation*, whether a selected intervention plan or strategy is unique and different from plans and strategies already in place or from others designed to address the same problem(s); (4) *quality*, how competent and how skilled the implementer is delivering the intervention; and (5) *participant responsiveness*, how involved or engaged the students are who are receiving the intervention plan or strategy.

Measuring Classroom Management Treatment Integrity

Treatment integrity assessment tools are designed for frequent and repeated use. They should be time-efficient and focused on monitoring the specific classroom management plan selected/designed for a given classroom. As these tools target a specific classroom management plan, they may not be as comprehensive as some classroom management assessment tools.

To date, simple checklists have been one of the most common forms of treatment integrity measures used. Checklists typically list the steps/components that comprise an intervention. They require the rater to simply

record the occurrence or nonoccurrence of each step/component.

Although these checklists provide useful information, particularly when completed by more than one rater (e.g., observer and implementer), they should be supplemented by a three-step process to guide the development of the most fully inclusive and informative treatment integrity assessment tools.

Step One: Choose the Assessment Method

The first step in the assessment process is determining what dimensions of treatment integrity are important to monitor and what specific assessment method is most appropriate for use. In most cases of interventions to improve classroom management, the following dimensions will be most relevant: adherence, quality, and program differentiation. Adherence will provide information regarding the content/quantity of classroom management practices delivered. Quality will provide information regarding the skill used in the delivery of these practices. Finally, program differentiation will provide information regarding the degree to which the classroom management plan differs from current teacher practices already in use.

Three treatment integrity assessment methods are most prominent in implementation research: direct observation, permanent products (i.e., products naturally produced through the course of carrying out the intervention, such as group points or tokens accumulated), and teacher self-report. To select an appropriate assessment method, two questions need to be answered: “What assessment method will provide the most accurate and useful treatment integrity data?” and “What resources are available for collecting treatment integrity data?” Whenever possible, a multisource, multimethod approach should be applied (e.g., direct observation combined with teacher self-report). However, often, various limitations require the selection of a single method only.

In general, direct observation methods are considered the gold standard in treatment integrity assessment and, therefore, are often the best single method for use. When direct observation is not available, the use of well-designed permanent products and/or teacher self-reports may be sufficient. For more guidance on selecting an appropriate assessment method, see Table 1.

Step Two: Defining Intervention Components and Choosing a Response Format

The second step in developing a treatment integrity assessment measure involves defining in observable or behavioral terms each step/component of the classroom management plan and then choosing the appropriate

response format. When defining the steps of the classroom management plan, all aspects of the plan must be represented. Furthermore, the definitions for steps or components should clearly delineate what the plan will look like on implementation. One should be able to implement the set of classroom management practices that make up the plan by using these definitions.

Once all of the plan’s steps have been clearly defined, it is time to select a response format that will allow for summarizing the treatment integrity data. For example, each step may be rated using a yes/no response, a Likert scale, a multiple choice format, a narrative response, or some combination of these.

In general, adherence related to each step of the classroom management plan can be captured using a simple yes/no response format. However, this format is not appropriate for collecting more nuanced information related to adherence or to the other treatment integrity dimensions (e.g., capturing differences between full versus partial implementation/implementation with deviation). To ensure development of a comprehensive treatment integrity measure, data related to the content or quantity of intervention, as well as to the process or quality of its implementation, should be addressed for each intervention step/component.

Step Three: Determine the Frequency of Data Collection

The third and final step in the treatment integrity assessment process is defining the assessment schedule. Treatment integrity assessment should be ongoing. It is common for teachers’ treatment integrity to drop to insufficient levels within a few days of intervention training. Therefore, frequent assessment is needed (e.g., one to three times per week) until a teacher demonstrates mastery and maintenance when implementing the new classroom management plan. Once mastery and maintenance have been demonstrated, treatment integrity assessment can be faded out completely or can occur with less frequency (e.g., quarterly), operating as a spot-check for maintained treatment integrity.

Promoting Treatment Integrity Through Implementation Support

Most studies in intervention research have aimed for near-perfect levels of treatment integrity; however, these levels are often unrealistic for real classroom settings and have proved to be unnecessary for achieving desired intervention outcomes. Presently, in education a minimum of 80% adherence to the original intervention design is the most commonly used standard for acceptable treatment integrity. Therefore, if teachers’ treatment

Table 1 Methods of Treatment Integrity Assessment

| <i>Method</i> | <i>Pros</i> | <i>Cons</i> |
|---------------------|--|--|
| Direct observation | <p>Can readily gather multiple dimensions of treatment integrity</p> <p>Staff may already have skills to conduct direct observations</p> <p>Generally, most strongly related to student outcomes</p> | <p>Resource-intensive</p> <p>Potential for observer reactivity</p> <p>As classroom management occurs across the entire school day, may not be representative of totality of teachers' practices</p> |
| Permanent products | <p>Highly feasible as they may not require any additional work to gather</p> <p>Can sample a large number of occasions of intervention</p> <p>Data collection occurs with minimal reactivity</p> | <p>Components of classroom management plans do not often naturally result in permanent products</p> |
| Teacher self-report | <p>Less resource-intensive</p> <p>Can simultaneously provide self-monitoring tool for the teacher</p> | <p>Teachers tend to overestimate their implementation; however, this can be reduced with appropriate training, more immediate administration following intervention, or completion of a follow-up interview</p> <p>Teachers do not always consistently complete these measures</p> |

integrity to the classroom management plan drops below this standard, it is advisable to consider providing *implementation support*.

Of note, modest drops below 80% adherence may indicate a need for continual monitoring, but not necessarily a need for immediate assistance. This is especially true if students are maintaining consistent progress or have reached the intervention goal(s).

Although the identification of methods for promoting treatment integrity is still evolving, current methods can be divided into two major categories: proactive and reactive support strategies.

Proactive Support Strategies

Proactive support strategies attempt to *prevent* treatment integrity from declining to below acceptable levels. Often teachers do not have the requisite knowledge or skills to implement a prescribed intervention. Thus, much of the research related to proactive support strategies has focused on intervention training procedures and collaborative consultation/coaching. Research indicates that more comprehensive intervention training results in higher levels of initial treatment integrity. Specifically, direct training approaches such as role-playing/modeling and rehearsal with feedback are most effective in supporting teachers' implementation. In contrast, indirect

training approaches such as didactic instruction and the provision of written materials on an intervention fail to promote teachers' treatment integrity.

Despite the proactive support provided by direct training procedures, research has consistently shown that training alone is insufficient to ensure adequate, maintained levels of treatment integrity. Thus, consultation/coaching can be very helpful for preemptively addressing teachers' implementation challenges over time.

When providing consultation/coaching, research suggests that two components are key for promoting treatment integrity: (1) the use of collaboration in intervention selection and planning and (2) the frequent provision of in-person, ongoing support. As consultation/coaching is highly resource-intensive, new investigations are currently under way to identify effective and less resource-intensive strategies for proactively supporting high levels of maintained treatment integrity. One approach that appears to have promise is the application of strategies based on adult behavior change theory, such as detailed implementation planning about the logistics of execution and potential barriers.

Reactive Support Strategies

In contrast to proactive support strategies, reactive support strategies *wait* for teachers' treatment integrity

to decline below acceptable levels before initiating support. Typically, when using reactive support strategies, implementation support is provided any time a teacher demonstrates two or more consecutive days of implementation below a preselected criterion. Presently, there is one prominent reactive support strategy that has demonstrated strong empirical support in the education literature, namely *performance feedback*.

Performance feedback is typically implemented when treatment integrity data indicate a low and stable or decreasing trend in treatment integrity. Performance feedback sessions typically consist of brief (approximately 5 minutes) one-on-one meetings with the teacher during which intervention implementation is discussed. In general, research suggests that performance feedback meetings are optimized when both verbal and graphic (visual) feedback on intervention progress is provided. The main foci of performance feedback meetings are to (1) present student and teacher data from the previous intervention day or week, (2) identify specific intervention steps missed, (3) review the importance of missed steps and plan for improving implementation, and (4) provide reinforcement for intervention steps that have been accurately and consistently implemented.

Conclusion

Implementing a new classroom management plan requires learning new strategies, gaining fluency with these strategies, and managing delivery of them in an integrated, skilled, and consistent manner. This is not an easy task, not only because it is hard to give up old ways of managing but also because teachers must master classroom management plans in the midst of competing demands and philosophies.

However, the task to implement new, evidence-based plans and strategies is essential for meeting the high standards now being applied to both students' and teachers' performance. Teachers need to have data that demonstrate their ongoing use of effective classroom management practices. In other words, they need to attend to treatment integrity.

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See also Assessing Classroom Management; Evidence-Based Classroom Management; Treatment Integrity

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ASSESSING CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

This entry provides a three-step process for gathering information about teachers' classroom management practices: (1) choosing appropriate assessment tools, (2) conducting the assessment, and (3) linking assessment results to classroom management strategies. It also provides an outline and evaluation of four commonly used assessment methods: teacher surveys, student surveys, observations of specific teacher behaviors, and standardized observation protocols. However, before going into the three-step process and the assessment methods, a few words are in order about the challenges and state of the art of assessing classroom management.

Assessing Classroom Management: Challenges and Purpose

A primary purpose of schools is to create effective learning environments for all students. Thus, teachers are challenged daily to create positive and reinforcing classrooms that are optimally conducive to learning. In an age of educational accountability and broad application of multitiered systems of supports (e.g., response-to-intervention), assessing tier one (universal/core) educational practice is vital.

With regard to classroom management practices, assessment is especially needed when one or more of the following are happening: (1) schools are unable to make accurate and appropriate decisions regarding students' requirements for additional intervention, (2) schools are unable to reduce the number of resources expended to provide additional intervention, (3) schools are unable

to demonstrate that accountability standards are being met, and (4) schools are unable to make continual improvements on universal/core educational practice.

Classroom management has various definitions, but each implies that it is a multifaceted construct encompassing the core features of organizational structure and routines, teacher–student relationships, instructional management related to active engagement and learning, and behavioral management practices that proactively promote appropriate behavior and that respond effectively to inappropriate behavior. Given the multifaceted nature of classroom management and the complexity of classrooms, assessing classroom management involves assessing the core features using multiple methods to obtain the most accurate representation of teachers' classroom management practices.

Three-Step Process for Assessing Classroom Management

The process of assessing classroom management can best be thought of as a three-step process, beginning with selecting appropriate classroom management tools.

Step One: Identify and Select Appropriate Classroom Management Assessment Tools

Multiple methods exist for assessing various facets of classroom management. Four methods will be described here: teacher surveys, student surveys, observations of discrete classroom management behaviors (hereafter referred to as systematic direct observations), and standardized observation protocols. Depending on the primary purpose of assessment, one or more of these four methods will be appropriate. However, in general, teacher and student surveys are adequate for self-assessment; systematic direct observations and standardized observation protocols are adequate and beneficial for professional development; and a combination of these four types of methods is needed for teacher's evaluative purposes.

Teacher surveys are self-report measures that allow teachers to evaluate their own classroom management. Often these surveys gather data on many of the core features of classroom management. Teacher surveys provide an important perspective—that of the teachers, which is required to effectively and responsively support changes in their professional practice. Teacher surveys often include items related to (1) the frequency at which teachers use various classroom management strategies, (2) teachers' perceptions of the usefulness of those strategies, (3) teachers' knowledge and self-efficacy related to those strategies, and (4) teachers' perceived barriers to effective classroom management.

Many teacher surveys have undergone some form of content validation and demonstrate adequate internal consistency reliability (a measure of the correlation between different items on the assessment tool). However, few have strong evidence supporting additional aspects of reliability and validity. Further, data gleaned from these measures do not always align with data gathered through observational methods.

Student surveys are measures that allow students to rate their teachers' classroom management and thus provide a diverse range of student perspectives on a teacher's classroom practices. Multiple sources—including the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, Measure of Effective Teaching Project—have shown that students are able to provide invaluable information regarding the classroom environment. Further, student surveys can be reliable and valid. When used in aggregate, they demonstrate high correlations with student achievement and successfully discriminate between effective and ineffective teaching behaviors.

Although few student surveys are specifically designed for the sole purpose of measuring classroom management, many include assessment of teaching practices reflected in the core features of effective classroom management. Examples of the types of items on student surveys include “In this class, it takes a very long time before the students settle down and start working,” or “My teacher encourages me to do my best.”

Systematic direct observation of teacher behavior involves using event recording (i.e., tallies) or time sampling procedures (i.e., marking the presence/absence of a target behavior during each 5–30-second interval of an observation) to gather data on specific behaviors that are indicative of effective classroom management. Systematic direct observation allows for frequent progress monitoring and can be targeted to specific teacher and student behaviors most salient for a particular classroom context.

Teacher and student behaviors commonly assessed via use of this method include teacher explicit/direct commands and instructions, teacher vague/indirect commands and instructions, teacher praise (specific and general), teacher reprimands, opportunities to respond, correct academic responses, student disruptive behavior, and student academic engagement/on-task behavior. Most of these behaviors are measured using tallies of each occurrence during a proscribed time period (e.g., 15 minutes). However, a few behaviors, such as student behaviors and wait time given after an opportunity to respond, provide helpful information when assessed via time sampling procedures.

Of note, the most useful information from systematic direct observation is gleaned when both positive and negative teacher and student behavioral data are collected. Systematic direct observation procedures

require minimal training to carry out, readily link to specific classroom management strategies, relate to student outcomes, and are less susceptible to rater bias.

Standardized observation protocols provide a uniform method for collecting and scoring data regarding teachers' strengths and weaknesses related to classroom management. They provide measures that have proven adequate reliability and validity, have been used on a large scale (e.g., statewide), and can inform and facilitate teacher professional development. Often, these measures assess discrete teacher behaviors/classroom features, as well as global processes such as complex classroom dynamics and interpersonal interactions.

However, few standardized protocols are designed for use in the upper grades (i.e., middle and high schools), and most require a significant amount of training for use. Currently, one of the most widely recognized for use across grade levels is the Classroom Assessment Scoring System, developed by Robert C. Pianta and colleagues.

See Table 1 for an overview of the pros, cons, and tips of appropriate use for each of the classroom management assessment methods described above.

Step Two: Conduct the Assessment

Once you have chosen the appropriate method(s), it is time to conduct the assessment. Best practice in classroom management assessment recommends the use of multiple methods across multiple school days and lessons to gain the most accurate assessment of a teacher's classroom management practices. Further, under ideal circumstances and implementing a comprehensive assessment, more than one rater should be used to gather data via observational methods.

However, depending on the primary purpose for conducting the assessment, comprehensive assessment may not always be feasible or necessary. As stated earlier, the specific purpose of the assessment should inform the selection of the assessment method(s) and the amount of information required. The greater the need for professional development and remediation of student challenges, the greater the need for more information and clear directions for intervention. The procedure for conducting the assessment will, then, depend on the specific assessment method(s) chosen and for what purpose. Below are general guidelines:

- Make clear the purpose(s) of the assessment, including how the assessment data will be used and who will have access to the data.
- Describe what assessment method(s) will be used and the type of information that can be garnered.
- Provide an opportunity for the teacher to ask questions and express concerns regarding the assessment.

- Set up the assessment schedule, including when assessments will take place and who will be collecting and scoring the data.
- For survey methods, ensure (1) clear understanding regarding administration instructions, (2) encouragement of candid responses, and (3) student anonymity when rating their teachers' practices.
- For observational methods, ensure (1) all appropriate training has been completed by raters, (2) administration and data collection procedures are strictly followed, and (3) observations are collected across multiple school days (at least two) and lessons and, whenever possible, by more than one rater.

Step Three: Linking Assessment to Classroom Management Planning

After completing the assessment, the next step is to score/compile the data in a manner that can be readily understood and linked to appropriate classroom management planning. Best practices in linking assessment to intervention for students can provide guidance for developing classroom management plans.

Begin by compiling the assessment results into quantitative behavioral data and concrete descriptions of classroom dynamics and interpersonal interactions. To easily link assessment results to appropriate classroom management strategies, consider summarizing these data under each of the core features related to effective classroom management described earlier. Next, review the data collected and determine the teacher's current level of proficiency (strengths and weaknesses) in classroom management. This can be done by comparing the teacher's current practices to recommended guidelines and practices provided in measurement tool materials and research. For example, if systematic direct observation was used, one can compare mean rates of opportunities to respond, classroom student disruptions, praise statements, and reprimands to commonly recommended guidelines and practices in the education literature. This literature suggests teachers should use more specific praise than general praise and provide three or more praise statements to every one reprimand.

If rich qualitative data were gathered through use of standardized observation protocol, one can compare the quality of interactions observed to those found to be most effective in producing positive teacher–student relationships. Through these types of comparisons, a clear articulation of the gap between the teacher's current level of practice and the desired level of practice should be defined for each of the core features of classroom management. After a gap analysis has been completed, an appropriate classroom management plan can be developed via the inclusion of evidence-based

Table 1 Pros, Cons, and Tips on When to Use Classroom Management Assessment Measures

| <i>Method</i> | <i>Pros</i> | <i>Cons</i> | <i>Tips Regarding Use</i> |
|-----------------------------------|--|--|---|
| Teacher surveys | <p>Cost- and time-efficient</p> <p>Teacher perspective</p> <p>Information about entire school day</p> <p>Facilitates self-assessment and reflection</p> | <p>Possibility of teacher bias</p> <p>Measures perceptions of or self-efficacy related to teacher behavior, rather than actual behavior</p> | <p>Use when teachers want to self-assess, in conjunction with observational methods, or when there are no resources for observations</p> <p>Not advisable to use for accountability measures of teacher practices</p> |
| Student surveys | <p>Cost- and time-efficient</p> <p>Gains multiple perspectives of direct day-to-day experiences</p> <p>Results are based on a representative sample of teacher behaviors and consistent from year to year</p> <p>Avoids observer reactivity and teacher bias</p> | <p>Possibility of student motivation issues or bias</p> <p>Interrater reliability can be low between students</p> <p>Students are not competent to rate all aspects of effective practice</p> <p>Potential negative effects of student feedback on subsequent teacher behavior</p> | <p>Use aggregate data from all students and, when possible, in conjunction with observational methods</p> <p>Include items that describe specific behaviors, instead of global ratings of various dimensions</p> <p>Interpret in context of student age and developmental level and use caution when interpreting ratings by students below Grade 3</p> |
| Systematic direct observation | <p>Cost-efficient and requires minimal training</p> <p>Results conducive to specific feedback and creation of measureable goals</p> <p>Less susceptible to bias during measurement</p> | <p>Less useful for global or detailed understanding of complex classroom management processes</p> <p>Possibility of observer reactivity</p> <p>Restricted to a limited number of lessons and school days</p> | <p>Use in conjunction with other assessment measures that provide data on more complex classroom dynamics and interpersonal interactions</p> <p>Observe during multiple times of the day over multiple days to get most representative sample of teacher and student behaviors</p> <p>Gather both positive and negative student and teacher behaviors</p> <p>Use well-established, common definitions of target behaviors</p> |
| Standardized observation protocol | <p>Gathers representation of teacher practices across school days and lessons</p> <p>Standardized to ensure assessment of theory-driven dimensions of classroom management</p> <p>Provides global ratings of classroom management, in addition to data on specific teacher behaviors</p> <p>Typically provides guidance in interpretation and intervention</p> | <p>Potential for rater effects</p> <p>More time-consuming and resource-demanding</p> <p>Tends to require a significant degree of training</p> <p>Restricted to a limited number of lessons and school days</p> | <p>Use in conjunction with other assessment measures</p> <p>Ensure completion of necessary training and rater proficiency</p> <p>Strictly follow standardization procedures</p> |

strategies that address areas of weakness while promoting continuance of practices in areas of strength.

Conclusion

No matter the purpose, results from classroom management assessments should lead to teachers feeling supported in improving their educational practices. In the absence of a supportive climate, teachers may avoid seeking assistance or taking on professional development when experiencing difficulty managing their classrooms. Under such circumstances, both teachers and students suffer.

For more information on classroom management assessment and its link to effective intervention, see the Further Readings section. In addition, reviewing the work of leaders in this field is also advisable. Some of these leaders include Robert Pianta, Wendy Reinke, Randy Sprick, Carolyn Webster-Stratton, and Brandi Simonsen.

Anna C. J. Long and Jennifer Gallucci

See also Assessing and Promoting Treatment Integrity; Assessment of Students; Assessment of Teacher–Student Relationships; Evidence-Based Classroom Management; Whole-Class Measurement of Disruptive Behavior

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ASSESSMENT OF STUDENTS

Assessing students can provide valuable insights into how to improve learning environments for both individuals and groups. It does so, first, by evaluating and monitoring students' progress and, second, by identifying students' specific problems in learning. This entry focuses on the four main types of student assessments and how they can lead to better classroom management, with classroom management defined broadly as creating positive learning environments.

Assessments generally fall into the following four categories:

- Curriculum-based assessments (CBAs)
- Benchmark assessments (BAs)
- Norm-referenced standardized tests of academic achievement or aptitude
- Norm-referenced standardized tests of reasoning abilities

Curriculum-Based Assessments

CBAs are tests or assessment instruments designed by teachers to evaluate a student's understanding of concepts and skills taught by the teacher. This might include a test at the end of a curriculum unit focusing on a particular math concept or concept central to understanding a historical movement. CBAs need not take the form of a pencil/paper test. They can also take the form of an oral presentation, art project, or computer slide projection. Regardless of the form, teachers create specific criteria or ways of evaluating that specify what they would like to see demonstrated in a student's work.

In CBAs, students receive a grade or score based on how well they demonstrate that they have understood, retained, or utilized concepts and skills taught by the teacher. The grade or score is based on how a student has performed compared to the teacher's way of defining mastery of concepts and skills, not on the basis of a comparison with the performance of other students.

Benchmark Assessments

Typically, BAs are administered by teachers two to three times per year—at the start, midway through, and/or at the end of the school year. BAs are designed by professional educators and psychologists as a means of evaluating a student's skills in comparison to the skills of typically developing children of the same age or grade. BAs can be useful for guiding teachers as they group students with similar abilities in specific

skill areas. As such, they help teachers better manage their classrooms since students are more likely to learn skills such as reading, math, and written language when placed with peers performing roughly at the same or similar levels of ability, provided a group is not stigmatized for functioning at a lower level than others. Furthermore, BAs can identify those students who are struggling and who should be considered for further evaluation to determine if special interventions are needed to help them better access the curriculum.

Norm-Referenced Standardized Tests

Norm-referenced standardized tests are designed by professionals who have provided extensive research using large samples of students and supporting the reliability and validity of their test instruments. A student's score is found by calculating the student's raw score and comparing it to scores of his or her peers. The raw score is converted to a scaled score with a consistent mean and standard deviation, so that the student's scaled score represents how well the student did on a task compared to a large, normative sample of same-age peers. To better ensure a good comparison between those taking the test, norm-referenced standardized tests are administered in a strictly standard format that often requires that those administering the tests have specific training in administering the tests and interpreting the results.

Norm-Referenced Standardized Tests of Academic Achievement/Aptitude

There are literally dozens of norm-referenced standardized tests of academic achievement/aptitude (NRST-A). All are geared to assessing acquired knowledge—so it is possible for a student to increase the probability of doing well by preparing for and studying prior to being tested. The best known aptitude test is the SAT.

Other tests that may be given by schools and that provide a similar function but on a smaller scale than the SAT are tests for reading level, written language, and math skills. Because these tests have research evidence demonstrating the tests are reliable and valid, schools can be assured that the tests are measuring the skills they purport to assess. Schools most often use these tests as part of a special education evaluation. They are not typically given to an entire class.

Norm-Referenced Standardized Tests for Reasoning

Norm-referenced standardized tests for reasoning (NRST-Rs) are similar to NRST-As in that they

are standardized in format, require special training to administer and interpret the findings, and have a norm-referenced sample for converting raw scores to scaled scores with consistent means and standard deviations. Among the most common of these tests are the WPPSI, WISC, Differential Abilities Scale, and the Kaufman Assessment Batteries. Typically, these tests have a mean of 100 and a standard deviation of 15, so that one can easily interpret/evaluate scores of a particular student in relation to the mean. For example, a score of 100 is considered average and 115 is considered one standard deviation above the mean.

NRST-Rs measure reasoning abilities rather than specific skill sets. Ordinarily, one cannot study beforehand to improve performance on NRST-Rs. The tests themselves assess broad areas of verbal reasoning, visual-spatial reasoning, working memory, processing speed, and other composites that make up reasoning, problem-solving, and critical thinking abilities.

There are other tests and ways of assessing students that fall into clinical or diagnostic categories. These are not described here because they are less directly related to the classroom and to classroom management.

Relevance of Assessing Students to Classroom Management: A Case Example

Joey is an 8-year-old boy in the third grade of a suburban school. He was referred by his teacher for assessment of his learning. Up to the time of assessment, he was noteworthy for his disruptive behavior in the classroom. In large group activities, he had difficulty listening and following directions; he often interrupted others while they were taking, lost his belongings, and was easily distracted. Increasingly, Joey's teacher found herself spending time containing or redirecting him or working with him one-to-one, apart from the rest of the class.

The teacher consulted others in the school and tried their suggested methods to help manage Joey's problem behavior, but the results were not satisfying. She became overwhelmed with Joey's behavior problems and the impact they were having on her classroom. And so she turned to assessments of Joey for clues as to how to make improvements.

First, she conducted classroom and benchmark assessments and found that Joey was successful in almost all the areas tested for, including math, spelling, and book reports. She also noted that Joey scored in the meeting expectation category on classwide BAs given at the start of the year.

However, on one reading BA, she observed that Joey had made no improvements from the September to the February testing, and he seemed to be reading

much slower than his classmates. Given these findings, and after consulting with Joey's parents who were very concerned, she referred Joey for a complete assessment using norm-referenced standardized assessment instruments.

Joey was administered a variety of NRST-As and NRST-Rs. On these, it was evident that he had significant difficulty on tasks requiring working memory and executive functioning, as well as on written language output and reading fluency. Working memory refers to the holding of information in the mind for the purpose of doing verbal and nonverbal tasks such as reasoning. Executive functioning refers to higher-order cognitive processes such as planning, problem solving, and verbal reasoning. Working memory and executive functioning work together, then, to perform the kinds of tasks that are so central in schooling.

Joey scored above average on tests that measured rote memory for single-process information, such as spelling and unit math tests. However, he scored below average on reasoning tests that require multistep processes, and on academic achievement tests measuring written language and reading fluency. Apparently, his excellent rote memory skills had been masking his difficulties with working memory in the service of reasoning, problem solving, and other executive functioning skills.

As he grew and as school work was becoming more complex and reliant on working memory and executive functioning skills, it was becoming harder for Joey to compensate with rote memory skills. His not being able to compensate and keep up with other students, especially on literacy tasks and when sustained attention was called for on tasks with many steps and with many distractions, led to increased frustration that, in turn, led to behavior problems.

Based on the data from these assessments, the evaluator helped the teacher develop a plan. The plan involved moving Joey into a reading group focusing on fluency skills. It also involved placing Joey in a writing group where concepts were broken down into small steps and where he was taught strategies to work one step at a time.

For large-group lessons and activities, Joey was given tasks to complete while he listened to the lesson. He sat in a designated chair, near the teacher, and clear of classroom distractions. He was given a set of index cards at the start of each group lesson, and on each card the teacher wrote down a key concept she would be discussing with questions for Joey—as a way to help him frame and organize upcoming discussions.

All of these methods for creating a better learning environment for Joey derived from the information gathered from the assessments of Joey. The teacher used the information from assessments to place Joey in more

appropriate literacy groups, help him use his strengths to offset areas of difficulty, and, overall, to make plans to better ensure that Joey would be a successful learner, even during his more vulnerable times. Not surprising, within weeks, Joey's disruptive behaviors disappeared, and he became a much happier child. Also, the teacher became much better able to manage her classroom.

Conclusion

Different types of assessments can provide information useful for facilitating better teaching and classroom management. They do so by pinpointing strengths and weaknesses that may go unnoticed in everyday observations. They do so by placing performance of a student in a much larger context, such as by comparing a student's performance with that of a large sample of peers. And they do so by assessing central skills for succeeding in school. Finally, they do so by pinpointing just where interventions and added supports are needed. Assessment of students is, then, an invaluable tool for ensuring good teaching and classroom management.

Melinda Macht-Greenberg

See also Assessment of Teacher–Student Relationships; Assessment of Tests and Exams; Functional Behavioral Assessment; Special Education Laws

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ASSESSMENT OF TEACHER–STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS

A rapidly growing knowledge base indicates that supportive teacher–student relationships are essential for promoting healthy social and emotional development among children and youth. Understanding and

promoting supportive teacher–student relationships relies in part on teachers’ ability to assess these relationships in the classroom. The current entry describes three reliable and valid approaches for assessing these relationships: teacher ratings, student ratings, and observational systems. The strengths and limitations of each approach and the implications of using these techniques in classrooms are discussed.

Teacher–Student Relationships Matter

Most experienced teachers are fully aware of the importance of their relationships with students. Supportive teacher–student relationships provide the foundation for a strong community in the classroom; they provide teachers with valuable insights about how students learn, and they provide students with the security to engage confidently in classroom activities. In recent years, this craft knowledge has been verified by research. Key findings from recent research indicate that students who have positive relationships with teachers are more likely to (1) engage productively in classroom instructional activities, (2) have greater growth in academic achievement, (3) have higher levels of self-esteem and life satisfaction, and (4) display greater levels of prosocial behavior than do students with less supportive relationships.

In addition to these findings pertaining to the benefits of supportive relationships, an even more expansive body of research has now documented the detrimental effects of poor-quality teacher–student relationships. According to this research, teacher–student relationships characterized by conflict, hostility, and alienation are predictive of emotional and behavioral problems among students, and these findings have been demonstrated even after controlling for initial levels of problem behavior. Such findings are important because they have demonstrated that hostile teacher–student relationships affect future problem behavior among students even after accounting for students’ initial levels of problem behavior.

In addition to these findings about the importance of supportive and nonsupportive relationships, an emerging body of research indicates that teacher–student relationships may be particularly important for students who are at risk due to emotional and behavioral problems, academic problems, or due to environmental stressors such as exposure to poverty. According to this perspective, supportive teacher–student relationships may be *more* important for students who are already experiencing difficulties because a caring relationship with a teacher can act as a protective factor that promotes resilience among high-risk children and youth. Because teacher–student relationships are important

for promoting the emotional, behavioral, and cognitive health of all children, and because they may be particularly important for at-risk children, developing strategies to assess these relationships in classrooms and schools is critically important.

Assessing Teacher–Student Relationships

Currently, there are three reliable and valid ways to assess teacher–student relationships: (1) teacher rating scales, (2) student rating scales, and (3) classroom observations. Each of these approaches has now been studied extensively, and all three can provide valuable information about the quality of teacher–student relationships. Because *relationships* involve emotions, thoughts (cognition), and behaviors, all of the instruments discussed in this entry are designed to measure the content of teacher–student relationships across these dimensions. This is important because teacher–student relationships represent more than the interactions that take place between teachers and students, so attempts to assess these relationships must incorporate measures of feelings, thought processes, and behavioral interactions. It is also important to measure positive *and* negative features of these relationships. For example, positive relationships can be characterized by trust, warmth, ongoing communication, and positive involvement, whereas negative relationships include qualities pertaining to conflict, hostility, and alienation. Positive and negative teacher–student relationships are qualitatively different, and assessments that include positive and negative features of relationships provide greater opportunities to examine the full range of relationship characteristics. Therefore, all of the assessments described in this entry provide information about positive and negative features of teacher–student relationships.

Teacher Ratings

Teacher ratings provide an efficient and effective means of gathering information about teacher–student relationships. The Student–Teacher Relationship Scale (STRS), created by Robert Pianta, is a 28-item teacher rating scale that assesses *teacher* perceptions of closeness, conflict, and dependency in these relationships. Items assessing closeness focus on emotional warmth (e.g., “I share an affectionate, warm relationship with this child”), attunement (e.g., “It is easy to be in tune with what this student is feeling”), and positive involvement (e.g., “My interactions with this child make me feel effective and confident). Items measuring conflict and dependency focus on anger (e.g., “This child easily becomes angry at me”), distrust (e.g., “This child feels that I treat him/her unfairly”), and overreliance

(e.g., “This child asks for my help when he/she does not really need help”). Teacher ratings on the STRS are provided on a five-point scale ranging from “definitely does not apply” to “definitely applies,” and the entire instrument can be completed in approximately 2 minutes per student. In addition to the original 28-item STRS, a 15-item short form (STRS-SF) of the measure has also been created, and this measure can be completed in about 60 seconds per student. Once ratings have been completed, scores on the closeness, conflict, and dependency constructs can be combined to provide an overall picture of the teacher–student relationship, or these constructs can be examined separately to evaluate specific levels of closeness, conflict, or dependence. Moreover, the instrument can be used to rate the relationship between the teacher and a specific student or students or can be used to rate teacher–student relationships among all students in an entire classroom.

An impressive body of research now exists on the STRS, and the two primary factors (i.e., closeness and conflict) have been shown to be reliable and valid in countless studies with young children and students in elementary schools. Scores on the STRS have been shown to be associated with grade retention, externalizing behavior, emotional health, classroom participation, task engagement, and academic achievement. Other strengths of the STRS include a strong theoretical orientation grounded in attachment theory, ease of use, and the ability to compare an individual’s scores on the STRS to norms for specific age groups. Limitations of the STRS include the fact that it has been used primarily to assess teacher–student relationships among young children and that it relies solely on a teacher’s perception of teacher–student relationship quality.

Student Rating Scales

The constructs measured by student ratings of teacher–student relationships are generally similar to those measured by teacher ratings and include items that assess relational closeness, trust, warmth, conflict, and alienation. One example is the Inventory of Teacher–Student Relationships (IT-SR) developed by Christopher Murray. The IT-SR includes 17 items adapted from a widely used self-report measure of parent and peer relationships (i.e., Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachments). This adaptation includes items designed to measure communication (eight items, e.g., “I tell my teacher about my problems and troubles”), trust (five items, e.g., “My teacher accepts me as I am” and “I trust my teacher”), and alienation (four items, e.g., “I get upset a lot more than my teacher knows about” and “My teacher doesn’t understand what I’m going through these days”). Student responses to the IT-SR

are provided on a four-point scale ranging from “almost never or never true” to “almost always or always true.”

Results of recent research indicate that student responses to items on the IT-SR are reliable, and total scores on each of the constructs are associated with adolescents’ emotional (i.e., life satisfaction, depression), behavioral (i.e., conduct problems, externalizing behavior), and school-related (i.e., academic engagement, school satisfaction, academic grades) adjustment. As with the STRS, the IT-SR is grounded in attachment theory, is easy to administer, and the entire instrument can be completed by a student in approximately 2 minutes. Moreover, it has been administered to students with and without disabilities with equal effectiveness. Student responses to the IT-SR can provide information about how the student views his or her teacher, and the measure assesses both positive and negative features of the teacher–student relationship. Scores from the IT-SR can be calculated for each factor to provide specific information about the qualities of teacher–student relationships, or total scores on each factor can be combined to provide an overall teacher–student relationship score.

Despite these strengths, student self-reports of their relationships with teachers have not been studied as extensively as teacher ratings, and currently measures such as the IT-SR do not include norms. An additional limitation of student rating scales is that they are more difficult to administer because asking students to report on the quality of their relationship with teachers can make some students feel uncomfortable, particularly if the teacher being assessed is in the room the assessment is being administered! Therefore, strategies such as having an outside professional (e.g., school psychologist, guidance counselor) administer the assessment and ensuring the anonymity of student responses are important strategies to consider when administering student rating scales.

Classroom Observations

Robert Pianta, Karen La Paro, and Bridget Hamre have developed a classroom observation system called the CLASS, which has been designed to measure three important components of the classroom: emotional support, classroom organization, and instructional support. Within each of these domains, several dimensions of the classroom are targeted. For example, the emotional support domain includes dimensions relating to positive climate, teacher sensitivity, and regard for student perspectives. The CLASS provides an assessment of the *overall* classroom environment. Therefore, scores derived from the assessment can provide teachers with information about their overall interactions in the

classroom, but should not be used for evaluating specific teacher–student dyads.

The CLASS has several unique qualities that make it particularly useful for assessing classroom environments. First, several versions of the CLASS have been developed, including Pre-K lower elementary, upper elementary, and secondary versions. Thus, the instrument is sensitive to developmental changes that occur in classroom interactions. Second, unlike many behavioral observation systems that focus on discrete behaviors, the CLASS includes *emotional* dimensions of the classroom, which have been shown to be critical for establishing and maintaining relationships. Third, the CLASS has now been implemented in over 4,000 classrooms and is proven to be reliable (with proper training) and valid. For these reasons, the CLASS provides a much needed alternative to teacher and student rating scales because observations can be conducted by independent observers and the information gleaned from these observations can provide feedback to teachers about the overall climate and emotional tone of the classroom.

Using Teacher–Student Relationship Assessments in Practice

A growing body of research is verifying what most teachers already know—teacher–student relationships matter. Assessing these relationships is important because this information can be used by teachers to improve the overall climate of the classroom or to monitor interventions designed to improve relationships between the teacher and specific students. The three types of assessments discussed here each have strengths. However, as is the case with most forms of assessment, gathering multisource information is generally preferred over methods that rely only on one source of information. Therefore, combining teacher ratings, student ratings, and classroom observations can provide teachers with comprehensive information about their own views, students’ views, and outside observer views of the relational context of classrooms. Such information can be utilized to make improvements to the overall climate of the classroom or to target specific students who may be in need of additional teacher support. Utilizing teacher–student relationship assessments to monitor how implemented changes affect climate and relationships will, in turn, provide teachers with information about the effectiveness of their efforts to improve the quality of teacher–student relationships in the classroom.

Christopher Murray

See also Assessing Classroom Management; Authority and Classrooms; Exemplary Teachers; Teacher–Student Relationships; Teacher–Student Relationships and Behaviorally At-Risk Students; Trust, Building; Warm Demanders

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ASSESSMENT OF TESTS AND EXAMS

Students, and sometimes teachers, tend to think the purpose of tests and exams is to obtain a grade. However, tests and exams can be used diagnostically to help guide and improve instruction and classroom supports and also to identify students needing additional help or, alternatively, needing a challenge. Viewing tests and exams this way requires a shift in the way tests and exams are used, from simply scoring whether the student got the question right or wrong to thinking about teacher effectiveness and classroom management supports such as assigning a student to a work group where that student will likely do better.

As testing researcher Paul Diederich argued over 40 years ago, learning to analyze and use test data does not require that teachers become experts in statistics. This entry explains how, by using simple shortcuts and relegating tedious diagnostic processes to the computer, teachers can obtain more meaningful information about their effectiveness and student learning while continuing to use their same testing materials.

Learning From Student Performance

In terms of classroom management, student performance provides useful data to help teachers tailor instruction to the specific needs of their students. A look at more common as well as newer measures provides the basis for better interpreting test results and relating these results back to the classroom.

Total Score

Students tend to focus on total score or percentage correct. From the teacher’s perspective, the total score is useful for determining which students are high-performing and which are low-performing, but

overreliance on the total score as an absolute measure is not a good idea because important information may be overlooked.

Standard Error of Measurement

The score-level standard error of measurement (SEM) is the standard deviation of the errors of measuring the test score of an individual student's performance. In this case, *error* does not mean that a student got an item wrong. Instead, it refers to the difference between the student's actual ability with the content and the score the student actually received on the test. The student may have had an off day, or the student may have gotten lucky on a few items. There may have been distractions in the classroom, or the student may have made a mistake in selecting a response. Errors such as these result in a test score that is a less accurate measure of true ability.

When interpreting the test score of an individual student, the score-level SEM is a way to ensure a teacher does not look at the student's total score as an absolute. Rather, the student's score can be interpreted as a range encompassing the student's total score plus or minus the SEM. If the ranges of two students should overlap, the teacher should think of these students as performing similarly on the test. In this way, the range helps teachers avoid overemphasizing small differences between students, thus allowing teachers to make better management decisions when grouping students by ability.

Learning From Item Performance

Examining the individual test items provides insight into how students are interpreting the content addressed by the test items. The information gained from an analysis of the items assists in understanding the strategies students are using to solve the problems, thus allowing teachers to make a far more meaningful review of the material covered by the test. Two common measures of item performance are item difficulty and item discrimination.

Item Difficulty

For teachers who feel anxious when they hear the word *statistics*, Diederich suggested a show-your-hands technique for item analysis that can be done at the same time as reviewing the test with students. To determine which items were most difficult for students, simply deidentify the tests, mix them up, and pass them back. Go item-by-item through the test and ask students to raise their hands if they are holding a test on which the item was marked as correct. Take a quick count. Items

with the lowest count were the most difficult for the class. This technique both involves the students and further demonstrates that the teacher values the students' performance.

Similarly, the item difficulty statistic is the proportion of items that students answered correctly and thus may be better thought of as item easiness. Items with high difficulty values (.70 to 1.00) are probably understood well by the class, while items with low difficulty values (0 to .30) may need additional instruction.

After a test or pre-test, it is a good idea to review items with low difficulty values to specifically identify the topics students need to master. Items with high difficulty values serve as a confirmation that the material is likely understood and, therefore, less time is required for review. If the test occurred at the end of a unit of instruction, those items with low difficulty values inform the teacher of topics that need to be reviewed before moving on to new material, particularly if the topic covered by the current test is prerequisite for the upcoming unit.

Thus, item difficulty values impact future instruction by demonstrating where the teacher can revise existing lesson plans or plan to spend more time on the material in the following year. High difficulty values at the end of a unit are cause for congratulations, indicating the teacher has done well in teaching the material addressed by those items.

Item Discrimination

Item discrimination indicates how well a test item distinguishes between a group of students who are expert on the content and thus scored higher on the test from a group of students who are less expert and scored lower on the test. Item discrimination is calculated by subtracting the proportion of low-scoring students who got the item right from the proportion of high-scoring students who got the item right. The assumption is that students who scored high on a particular test should, in general, do better on any given item than students who scored low on the same test. Thus, items are expected to have a positive discrimination.

Again, Diederich offers a show-your-hands technique. The deidentified tests are handed back so that half the classroom is given high-scoring tests and half the class is given the low-scoring tests. The teacher calls out the item number and students holding a test in which the item is scored as correct raise their hands. Instead of taking a total count, the proportion of correct answers in each half of the class is recorded and the teacher can then calculate the high-minus-low difference. This classroom process yields the same results as the item discrimination measure produced in test analysis reports.

Discrimination gives insight into how well the items worked and which items were not useful for planning instruction. Items with little discrimination were learned equally well by both high and low scorers—these items may cover content that everyone, or no one, learned. Items with negative discrimination, meaning there were more students in the low-scoring group in the class getting the item correct than in the high-scoring group, require the attention of the teacher to review the items for design issues—such as lack of clarity, miskeying, more than one correct answer, or potential differences between what the teacher taught and what was in the textbook.

Putting Students and Items Together

It can become easy to focus on either the items or the students when teachers are busy and time is short. Viewing the students or the items in isolation leaves the door open to miss crucial diagnostic information that teachers can gain from assessment.

One of the most useful ways to visualize the relationship between the students and the items is to create a student–item table, either by hand or with a computer-based test diagnostics program. To do this, arrange the students from high to low score (or score range) down the left side of the table and arrange the items from easiest to most difficult along the top of the table. Enter the students’ scores in the table (1 for correct and 0 for incorrect). A table like that in Figure 1 helps put more than 200 data points (20 items for 11 students) in an easy-to-interpret picture.

Student–Item Tables

Student–item tables give teachers substantial visual information about the instructional needs in their

classroom. Students who need most help are located toward the bottom of the table, while students who need additional challenge are located toward the top. Content (items) that students already grasped is located to the left, while content that needs additional instruction is to the right within the table. Typically, correct responses (1’s) should be concentrated to the upper left corner and the incorrect responses (0’s) to the bottom right within the table. Looking at the proportion of ones in a column provides a quick look at the item difficulty. Similarly, looking at a row informs the teacher about the student’s performance.

Because the items are ranked from easiest to most difficult, the 1’s should be to the left of the table and the 0’s to the right within a row. In terms of classroom management, teachers should follow up with students whose 1’s and 0’s do not follow this pattern (e.g., a student who misses easy items but is able to answer more difficult items correctly). Students may have unusual response patterns due to guessing, confusion, copying, high anxiety, or carelessness. Making efforts to determine the source of confusion for students with unusual patterns of performance may lead to improving the students’ potential for success. Indeed, the teacher may be ameliorating an at-risk situation at an early stage.

Similarly, unusual response patterns in the items where, for example, higher-scoring students are answering incorrectly and lower-scoring students are answering correctly should be cause for investigation. Statistical measures called caution indices quantify these unusual or inconsistent response patterns. Unusual response patterns may be the result of a poorly written test item; language, ethnic, experiential, gender, or instructional bias; or where a potential mismatch between instructional practices and content occurs. When teachers notice unusual response patterns or when caution

Figure 1 Sample Student–Item Table

| ID | CI | Tot | 11 | 2 | 18 | 19 | 5 | 1 | 8 | 17 | 3 | 9 | 16 | 12 | 6 | 10 | 15 | 4 | 7 | 14 | 13 | 20 | | |
|----------|----|-----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|--|
| 34 | 0 | 19 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | |
| 24 | 33 | 16 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | |
| 14 | 20 | 15 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | |
| 36 | 12 | 15 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | |
| 03 | 18 | 13 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| 39 | 33 | 13 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| 40 | 14 | 12 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | |
| 29 | 20 | 12 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | |
| 17 | 32 | 9 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | |
| 09 | 11 | 9 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| 19 | 43 | 8 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| ItemTot: | | | 10 | 10 | 10 | 9 | 9 | 9 | 9 | 8 | 8 | 7 | 7 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 4 | |
| Diff% p: | | | 91 | 91 | 91 | 82 | 82 | 82 | 82 | 73 | 73 | 64 | 64 | 55 | 55 | 45 | 45 | 45 | 45 | 45 | 45 | 36 | 36 | |
| Item CI: | | | 0 | 9 | 0 | 22 | 44 | 6 | 17 | 67 | 0 | 44 | 11 | 36 | 50 | 29 | 0 | 25 | 11 | 25 | 52 | 11 | | |

indices suggest a response pattern is inconsistent, teachers should make inquiries into the cause of the situation.

Conclusion

Teachers can make use of the results of tests and exams so that tests and exams inform what students need in the way of instruction and supports for learning, including classroom management supports such as thoughtfully assigning students to student work groups. In a perfect world, teachers would review each test item, or at least each missed item, with each student and use the review as a kind of individualized instruction over the test content. But the time and motivation to do so is rarely available. However, even on their busy days, teachers can take advantage of test analysis and short-cut statistics to better tailor instruction and classroom supports to students' specific needs.

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See also Ability Grouping; Assessment of Students; Digital Technology and Classroom Management; Lessons and Lesson Planning

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Website

CatTrax: <http://cattrax.oia.arizona.edu/>

potential use of assistive technology (AT) in K–12 classrooms. The entry begins with the legal definition of AT, which divides this topic into two distinct categories: AT devices and AT services. This is followed by a brief explanation of the increased role AT is playing in our schools and the importance for classroom teachers to be knowledgeable on this topic. Information is provided to assist with the selection and acquisition of AT in an educational setting. The entry concludes with recommendations for best practices.

AT Categories

In 1988, the Technology-Related Assistance Act for Individuals with Disabilities, commonly known as the Tech Act, was passed by the U.S. Congress. This law defined two critical areas of AT: AT devices and AT services.

AT Devices

An AT device is defined as “any item, piece of equipment, or product system, whether acquired commercially off the shelf, modified, or customized, that is used to increase, maintain, or improve the functional capabilities of individuals with disabilities” (P.L. 100-407, Sec. 3). Examples of AT devices range from low-tech tools such as pencil grips or a simple pocket calculator to more sophisticated, high-tech options such as speech recognition software or reconfigured computer keyboards.

AT Services

As defined by the Tech Act, an AT service is “any service that directly assists an individual with a disability in the selection, acquisition, or use of an assistive technology device” (P.L. 100-407, Sec. 3, para. 2). AT services include (1) the evaluation of the needs of individuals with disabilities, (2) selecting, designing, fitting, customizing, adapting, applying, maintaining, repairing, or replacing any AT device, (3) assisting with the acquisition of AT (such as purchasing or leasing the devices), (4) coordinating other therapies, interventions, or services with AT, (5) training or providing technical assistance to an individual with disabilities, and (6) training or providing technical assistance to professionals, employers, or other individuals who provide services to or who are extensively involved in the life functions of the individual who uses the AT device or service.

ASSISTIVE TECHNOLOGY

The purpose of this entry is to provide a beginning reference point for educators who are exploring the

Increased Use of AT in the Classroom

In the past 20 years, the use of AT in K–12 classrooms has dramatically increased. Since the 1988 Tech Act,

changes in our legislation such as No Child Left Behind of 2001 have raised awareness and motivation to provide accommodations for students to reach their full potential. In addition to changes in legislation, there has been a growth in the production of technology devices and services, which in turn has increased the accessibility of AT for all individuals.

Another factor that has augmented the presence and use of AT in the classroom is the technical advances in the sophistication and usability of AT devices. These advances have enhanced the success rate of AT and have broadened the spectrum in which AT devices and services can be used in a classroom or with an individual.

Whether in a general education or a special education classroom, accommodating the wide range of individual needs found within one room is extremely challenging, even for the most experienced and dedicated teachers. Some of the challenges teachers encounter when attempting to manage a classroom include varying attention spans, a wide range of learning preferences and skills, and social and behavior issues. Dave Edyburn and others represent a growing body of educational professionals who argue that AT not only has the potential to make a significant difference for students with disabilities, it also can positively impact the entire educational community. This group of professionals believes AT can assist teachers with a wide range of classroom management responsibilities such as instructional planning to meet the variety of learning needs and styles in his or her classroom, increasing the availability and access of information and resources to all students, a motivational tool, and promoting independence for all students.

Selection and Acquisition of AT in Educational Settings

Within educational settings, AT can be further broken down into three categories: personal necessity, developmental necessity, or instructional necessity. As described by AT experts such as Joy Smiley Zabala, these categories were created to represent the purpose a particular AT device or service has in a classroom or for a student.

Personal Necessity

AT devices and services categorized as being personally necessary are devices and/or services that are used by an individual student. An example would be a ruler that highlights the line a student is reading in a textbook to assist with tracking issues the child may have with his or her vision.

Developmental Necessity

These devices and/or services help meet an educational need that is most likely linked to a developmental delay. Through maturation, the need for such devices is overcome and the AT can be eliminated. Often, devices and services categorized as being developmentally necessary can be shared with a group of students. An example of a developmentally necessary device would be large-sized crayons or pencils for young children who are learning to master the fine motor skills essential for writing. As time passes, the development of fine motor skills will take place, and large-sized writing devices can be eliminated.

Instructional Necessity

Instructionally necessary devices and/or services modify the instruction of or piece of equipment found in a particular classroom or subject area. Modifying a particular piece of equipment used by a student with a physical injury or disability would fall under the category of instructionally necessary AT. For example, a student who has a physical injury or disability that inhibits him or her from manipulating the knob on a scale in a science class may need an extension on the scale's knob to allow the student to meet the course requirements in the same or very similar manner as other students in the classroom. The modified knob would not give the student any advantage or disadvantage over his or her peers using the equipment, and the accommodations and adaptations would be available to everyone in the class who was interested in using them.

When considering incorporating AT in the classroom, it is best practice to start with low-tech options and gradually move to a high-tech AT spectrum. This conservative approach ensures that the AT being used is the most cost-effective and easily accessible for the student.

AT that is considered low-tech is typically defined as something that is easy to use, easy to obtain, does not require a power source, and is low cost (under US\$ 200). A good example of a low-tech device is a pencil grip. A mid-tech device is also easy to operate but typically requires a power source. A high-tech device is usually complex, requires a power source, and is often expensive to purchase and maintain. Voice recognition software is an example of a mid- to high-tech device, depending on the cost and ease of use.

In terms of acquiring AT for a student, current practice requires teachers to perform a child study referral to evaluate the progress and needs of a child. The process used to identify a student's need for AT is the same as used for evaluating the need for special education. (For further information on the special education evaluation process, see the entry on Individualized

Education Programs.) At any point during the process of evaluation of services for a student, AT may be considered as an option.

Conclusion

As the inclusion of all students into the general education classroom becomes increasingly popular, the range of abilities and individual student needs within one classroom continues to widen. Not only is AT an educational tool that is growing in its use and importance, it is required for consideration of all students classified with a disability. It is essential for both current and future teachers to be familiar with the selection and acquisition process, as well as the use of a variety of AT devices and services.

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See also Individualized Education Programs; Learning Disabilities

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- The Family Center on Technology and Disability (FCTD): <http://www.fctd.info/>
- The National Assistive Technology Research Institute (NATRI): <http://natri.uky.edu/resources/reports/repmenu.html>
- The National Center for Learning Disabilities: <http://www.nclld.org/students-disabilities/assistive-technology-education>
- TECH MATRIX: <http://techmatrix.org/>

other. In the first two years of human development, that specific other is likely to be a parent. When a parent or other caregiver becomes an *attachment figure*, the caregiver's sensitivity and responsiveness to the infant's *signals*, especially signals having to do with the need to feel safe and secure, become a major determinant of the quality of attachment. A caregiver who correctly reads and responds to an infant's signals instills in the infant confidence in the availability of the caregiver, which leads to the attachment becoming a *secure* attachment.

Secure attachments are marked by a balance between the infant fulfilling autonomy needs through *exploring* his or her immediate environment (figuratively or literally going away from the attachment figure) and attachment needs (figuratively or literally remaining close to or going toward the attachment figure). With this balanced view of attachment, whereas once the infant was viewed as being dependent and needing to become independent, now the infant is viewed as needing to be both dependent and independent to ensure healthy development.

Insecure attachment results from a caregiver's failing to read and/or respond to an infant's signals, for whatever reasons—whether from a caregiver's being insensitive, rejecting, or simply unavailable. There are different patterns of insecure attachment, with one pattern marked by a brittle independence (the child gives the appearance of not needing an attachment figure) that breaks apart under stress, another by high levels of anxiety and distress preventing exploration, and still another by high levels of disorganization. The sources of these three have usually been spoken of as a caregiver's rejection, insensitivity (not reading signals correctly), and trauma/neglect, respectively.

Attachment theory began as a theory of infant development that countered the then dominant behaviorist and Freudian views—views that could not account for the fact that infants with abusive caregivers still seek their proximity. In contrast to those behaviorist and Freudian views, attachment theory is rooted in assumptions about human–primate evolution and in the special meaning that proximity had long, long ago when human families were in constant danger, particularly from wild animals. To be separated from one's caregiver could well lead to death. In short, attachment theory posits that the infant's orientation to developing an attachment to a particular caregiver is biologically driven. From this perspective, when caring for an infant, the infant's signals should be understood as Mother Nature signaling. The implication is that one cannot spoil an infant and that it is the caregiver's responsibility to respond to the infant as if responding to Mother Nature. Furthermore, from this perspective, certain behaviors that might appear to be dysfunctional, such as a young child attracting

ATTACHMENT THEORY

In attachment theory, the term *attachment* refers to a quality of those relationships marked by a child's focus on remaining connected to or in proximity to a specific

attention by misbehaving, can sometimes be interpreted as serving the function of maintaining a connection with a primary or secondary attachment figure (a bad connection being better than no connection at all).

Since the 1970s, cross-cultural studies have shown that what appear to be patterns of insecure attachment in cultures outside the United States may, on closer inspection, be patterns of healthy attachment within the infant's own culture. For example, in Japan, because infants are rarely away from their mothers, infants can appear to fit the pattern of anxious-insecure attachment when separated from their mothers and reunited later on—because they have no experience with separation. And in Germany (especially in the north), because infants are actively encouraged to explore and be independent early on, German infants can appear to fit the pattern of brittle independence. Therefore, patterns of attachment must be assessed with culture in mind.

Attachment Outcomes

Over the past several decades, a host of research studies has documented the outcomes of children being securely attached or not. Securely attached children are most capable of developing and maintaining close relationships with adults and peers. Although there are cultural caveats, securely attached children tend to engage in pro-social behaviors modeled by their caregivers—sensitivity to others' feelings and needs, dependability, having a positive attitude, and interacting frequently with others. These behaviors can lead to children who are better prepared to deal constructively with social and academic stress, peer relations, and self-regulation. These children are observed to be more curious, eager to learn and be creative, have better problem-solving skills, and have more self-direction.

If caregivers do not engage in caring that promotes secure attachments, children are likely to form resistant, avoidant, or disorganized attachment styles, which are all characterized as insecure. Young children with stressful, disruptive, or abusive early care environments are likely to have insecure attachments. A variety of family problems such as depression, economic stress, and marital conflict can interfere with responsive parenting and negatively affect attachments. Accordingly, children with insecure attachments might show inconsistent responses to caregivers and adults with good intentions. Furthermore, these children seek adult comfort and proximity to adults, but they might not manage the relationship in developmentally appropriate ways based on prior experiences lacking care, sensitivity, and comfort. For example, children whose attachments are disorganized are more likely to be conflicted in relationships

and act hostile, resulting in rejection from adults and peers.

Teacher–Child Attachment

An offshoot of attachment theory has been interest in the formation of secondary attachments with caregivers, such as with teachers who can serve similar functions to those served by a primary attachment figure. This has led to an interest in exploring the teacher–child relationship through the lens of attachment theory and to drawing out new implications for how best to teach young children.

Given that children with secure attachments with adults have the best outcomes, it is important for teachers to establish secure relationships with children, especially to those showing signs of expressing one of the patterns of insecure attachment. Put another way, teachers should view themselves as a part of each child's attachment network because teachers provide physical and emotional care and are a constant presence in children's lives.

Teacher–child attachments are most pertinent in early childhood and elementary school programs. Young students are still developing self-concept and self-regulation, so they look to adults for guidance, reassurance, and a sense of self. Children are so focused on themselves that they have limited awareness of others' feelings and perspectives in social interaction. In short, interactions are a complicated tangle of personalities, preferences, contingencies, motivations, and skills. Therefore, teachers have to be aware of each child's level of emotional development and need for adult connection and take the lead in forming relationships. The ways in which teachers interact with students affect student learning.

To connect with young children, teachers must notice child preferences and needs. Often the ways in which children interact with teachers (especially female teachers) will mimic the ways they interact with their mothers. If children are securely attached to their mothers, they are likely to develop secure attachments with teachers. To help young children feel secure, teachers must be warm, affectionate, forgiving, consistent, patient, individualized, and sincere in interactions. Each child must feel like the teacher is connecting with him or her daily—and each child must not notice or feel that other children are more favored or disliked. Children are quite aware of where teachers spend their time. Teachers must be mindful that they are spending equal amounts of positive time with individual children.

In addition to being emotionally present and supportive, teachers need to help children develop a sense of competency and autonomy. When students feel independently successful in the classroom, they are more likely to be

engaged and motivated and experience more achievement. Furthermore, when teachers understand and incorporate student interests into lessons and activities, students are apt to engage and achieve at even higher levels.

Creating a Warm and Safe Classroom

Just as parents create a home environment to help children feel safe and comfortable, teachers must create a classroom that feels inviting and promotes security. First and foremost, children need to be (and feel) physically safe and have basic needs met. One of the best strategies for ensuring safety and comfort is the use of schedules and routines.

Because all children thrive with consistency, they respond positively to knowing expectations set by classroom routines and rules. If they know, for example, how to locate all the materials they need and can access them independently, this promotes security in the classroom. When students are aware of timeframes, activities, and expectations via a schedule, they feel more comfortable navigating the day. For example, knowing classroom expectations for desk work (e.g., journal completion followed by silent reading) will make students feel more confident and help them develop self-regulation skills. When children are taught classroom and building rules for conduct, they are less likely to press behavioral boundaries and more likely to act in ways that meet adult expectations. Children also need to know how to access various rooms (e.g., music, art) and professionals (e.g., nurse, guidance counselor) in the school building, so they feel like they belong in the building and can safely and independently navigate the space to meet their needs.

Because teacher–child relationships are important, it can be helpful to have specific scheduled opportunities to build relationships. For example, teachers can set specific times during the day when children report individually about a work project or something going on outside of school. Some teachers use seatwork time to visit with students around the room or at the teacher’s desk about how things are going. Other teachers have a check-in procedure near the beginning of the day or a check-out procedure at the end. Visiting does not have to be lengthy or detailed. A teacher might ask briefly about the child’s library book progress, the baseball game the night before, a new sibling, or a playground incident. In these brief interactions, teachers should be positive, kind, attentive and specific, and offering warmth (e.g., praise, comfort, reassurance).

Conclusion

Parent–child attachments play a role in how young students develop attachment relationships with teachers. It is important for teachers to actively foster secondary

attachments between themselves and their young students who come to school insecurely attached. To that end, teachers can attend to individual student preferences and experiences in helping students feel comfortable and safe in the school environment and secure in their classroom. Teachers must be aware of spending equal, positive, affectionate time with each child in the classroom to support all children and help them build lasting relationships with school. When children have secure emotional relationships at school and feel safe, competent, and independent in the school environment, they are likely to be engaged and motivated in learning and thus achieve at higher levels.

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See also Age and Classroom Management; Attachment to Teachers; Developmentally Appropriate Practice; Early Childhood Education and Classroom Management; Kindergarten and Classroom Management

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ATTACHMENT TO TEACHERS

Relationships are the foundation on which children grow. Building relationships with children is essential to supporting their development in and outside of school. These dynamics will look different depending on whether a teacher is working with preschoolers, middle-schoolers, or some other age group. Students can look to teachers as *secondary attachment figures*, defining a relationship that follows the *secure base* model of primary attachment. This entry outlines how teacher–student relationships map onto current understandings of attachment in general. It also examines how secondary attachment relationships can facilitate children’s learning by increasing feelings of security and comfort in school settings. Furthermore, it offers general strategies for how to create an environment in which children can develop secondary attachment relationships with teachers.

Defining Attachment to Teachers

A great deal of scholarly effort has been extended to the issue of children feeling secure with or *attached to* parents, particularly mothers. Research has demonstrated time and again that securely attached children have many advantages as they enter the world of school and larger social communities, and they maintain those advantages throughout life.

In spite of the lifetime of relationship building that goes into a child developing a primary attachment with his or her parents, teachers and other adults are able to develop and sustain strong relationships with children in a short timeframe—relationships that constitute secondary attachments. Teachers will never be as important to children as their parents are, but they can do enough to create a relationship and an environment that helps each child to be as successful as possible in the short time they have together.

The relationship-building process is essential from the very beginning of a child’s school experience. A child is entering a new environment—whether it is the first day of preschool or the first day of high school—and it is natural for him or her to feel hesitant. In fact, being wary of unfamiliar settings and new adults is a sign of secure attachment to parents. If feeling uncomfortable in new

situations is actually a *healthy* behavior, then it is fundamental to the continued health of the child to develop a relationship in which he or she can feel comfortable and begin to view the teacher as a trusted, attachment figure.

The *secure base* that children have in their parents does not function in the same way at school. As much as children may know that their parents will be there for them at the end of school, there are still a number of needs that must be met during the school day—from self-care to self-control, from caring for skinned knees on the playground to managing the minefield of adolescent social dynamics.

Attachment theory suggests that in order to take the risks involved in engaging with the new and ever-changing dynamics of school life (from shifting social circles to increasingly complex curricula), the child must feel that he or she has a safe relationship to fall back on if something goes awry. Children who are insecurely attached to their parents and who enter school with a distinct set of disadvantages (mainly decreased self-control and self-regulation, higher instances of anxiety or fear, and more challenges relating to peers) benefit highly from a teacher who can fill the *secure base* role. In the absence of a secure primary attachment figure, another adult can suffice to fill this role, but only if the adult fulfills the characteristics of an attachment figure—being physically and emotionally available to the child. That is, it only works if the child feels he or she can rely on the teacher in a similar manner to how he or she relies on his parents.

Children develop hierarchies of attachment figures, in which primary caregivers are the most important. In a stressful situation, children will seek comfort from their parents rather than from their teachers. However, in the absence of a parent, as is the case every day at school, children will go down their list of attachment figures and find the one that is available. In school, this is most likely the teacher. As one sign, teachers of young children invariably have the experience of children occasionally and inadvertently calling them *mom*—even among first and second graders.

Attachment Relationships Support Learning

Children’s physical health depends in large part on having a meaningful and secure relationship with the person who is supposed to care for them. It is not uncommon for a child to feel anxious about the social dynamics in the school setting, including feeling uncomfortable with the adults whose job it is to help them. For children young and old, this can easily lead to disruptions in self-care habits while at school. A child who is not comfortable with his or her teacher may not accept food from the teacher and will be less likely to share the personal act of

needing to go to the bathroom. Personal and physical well-being are prerequisites to engaging with curriculum. If a child's mind is occupied with anxiety about eating in an unfamiliar setting, the child cannot be expected to pay attention to the ongoing math lesson.

The value of relationships extends beyond the fearful or anxious child. Children of flexible and confident temperaments also thrive in environments in which they have strong relationships with adults. Relationships help children feel comfortable and motivated to learn, take risks, and exhibit self-control. Effective classroom management frequently relies on and works toward developing children's abilities to exert self-control. It requires placing occasional demands on one or more children—"Please sit down," "Your homework is . . .," "Keep those beads out of your nose!" A positive relationship with the teacher is essential to a child being motivated to comply. Children will accept the limits an adult sets if—and that's a big IF—they are motivated to maintain a good relationship with the adult.

That said, secondary attachment is not a free pass to ask children to do anything and expect compliance. The relationship goes both ways, and children must feel the adult is looking out for their best interests in order to consider the relationship a secure one. Much like attachment to parents can be traced back to the responsiveness of the mother and the father to the infant's needs; a successful secondary attachment to a teacher has its roots in the teacher's responsiveness to the child. Learning how to communicate effectively with children means learning how each individual communicates and then adapting one's speech and actions to fit the style of the child.

Strategies for Forming Secondary Attachment Relationships

Attachment relationships rely on continued care and sensitivity in forming secure connections. That is, the relationship is built on past experiences and continues to evolve with future experiences. It never ends. In a school setting, this creates an obvious problem. Almost universally, children have different teachers every year. And as they move beyond primary grades, they have different teachers for every subject! There is not enough time to develop long-term attachment relationships.

However, research suggests that there is a connection between earlier attachment relationships and later interpersonal connections. Children who have secure attachments early on are more likely to form positive relationships with new adults and peers. Children who had a positive secondary attachment to a day care provider or preschool teacher will enter new school environments with an internal working model of teachers as positive, helpful, supportive adults. When those

children's new teacher responds in a supportive way to their needs, it recalls the responsiveness of the teacher they relied on in the previous year.

Building Relationships at Different Stages of Development

Attachment relationships between students and teachers are built upon different experiences depending on the age or developmental level of the child. While toddlers feel secure mainly through physical proximity to their attachment figure, older children are able to maintain their secure attachment in more distal and language-based ways.

For younger children, focusing on creating a supportive separation experience can help develop a secondary attachment. Although being separated from the primary attachment figure can be one of the most stressful times in a child's day, the ability to find comfort in the presence of the teacher is an immediate and direct connection to a secondary attachment relationship. The emotional support children may need at this time includes holding and physical contact.

For older children, by first or second grade, language becomes a primary means of emotional support, especially when dilemmas arise among peers. Teachers can then use more language to build relationships with them. And the attachment dynamics will also look very different. Research suggests that as children grow they are able to feel secure from primary attachment figures through *mental representations*. That is, they can draw comfort from primary attachment figures even when they are not present. However, this indirect connection lasts a limited time. Over the course of an entire school day, a mental representation may not be enough to cope with the ordinary stress of the school environment. The child may not look to the teacher for profound emotional needs, because the mental representation of his or her parent is enough for that, but immediate needs such as caring for injuries or mediating conflicts must still be met by an adult who is physically present. Thus, the teacher still has a role.

Practices That Support Relationship Building

Social referencing is a fundamental tactic that children use to interpret new situations. When they enter an unfamiliar environment, children look to their primary caregiver for cues about how to respond. If a child's parent is happy and comfortable, the child knows that he or she is in a safe place. Teachers can facilitate this feeling of comfort by forming relationships with parents too. Especially in early childhood settings, parents, family members, or babysitters often accompany children to

school, and children look to them for cues. By developing a friendly rapport with the familiar adult, the new teacher can show a child that he or she is similar to the attachment figure. The message is indirect, but simple: “Your parent trusts me and feels comfortable, so you can too.”

Relationships are also built through mutual acknowledgment. Taking a moment to observe children’s play or artwork and saying aloud what you notice about it validates their choices and shows that you see and appreciate the things they do. Older children benefit from similar small acts of attention and affirmation. Sharing a joke, acknowledging work they have done in another class, making an appearance at a sports game or theater production—all go a long way to showing older children that you recognize and care for them. This, in turn, allows them to see you as someone they can trust, someone they can learn from. A wonderful piece of advice that can also act as a useful rule of thumb comes from early childhood education researcher Vivian Paley—each day show each child in your class that you *like* him or her.

Predictable classroom routines also support the development of secondary attachments. Consistency and predictability are essential to the internal working model of relationships. Allowing children to help define some of the classroom rules and routines ensures that their concerns and values are being accepted in the culture. When children know what to expect, they can be more at ease and more comfortable opening up to the people and the materials in the environment. Conversely, unpredictability leads to stress about basic things such as the schedule, or who will be there and thus inhibits a child’s ability to explore other aspects of the classroom. By facilitating such valuable experiences, the teacher naturally becomes the figure children look to as the reinforcer of these routines and rules.

A comforting physical environment also facilitates the feeling of security. Soft things like pillows and sensory toys have been proven to support soothing behaviors. Keeping materials within children’s reach makes them feel in control of many parts of the environment, while having something out of their immediate reach encourages them to look to teachers for help.

Teacher–student ratio clearly has a profound effect on the ways in which the teacher can form attachment bonds. With a lower ratio, a teacher has more time to spend with each child. With higher ratios, issues of safety and general classroom management may take immediate precedence over one-on-one interactions with a child. However, children may recognize these efforts by teachers in such classrooms, and protection is a pillar of the attachment relationship. Furthermore, small acts that support attachment can fit into larger group experiences too. Allowing children opportunities

to share work in front of the whole class, for example, allows for individual attention to be given while maintaining connection with the larger group. By observing a child’s work much in the same way a teacher would in a one-on-one scenario, the same feelings of validation and support are felt.

Cultural Considerations

There are significant cultural considerations involved in attachment relationships between teachers and students. First, families in different cultures form attachment relationships—and even define attachment relationships—in different ways. For example, in Western cultures, attachment relationships are defined in great part by how the parent allows the child to explore the environment and responds immediately and supportively when the child actively calls for help (through reaching out, trying to return to the parent, or vocalizing the need). However, in Japan, successful parental responsiveness is the parent’s ability to *preempt* problems that may arise in the environment. Children will not encounter the same challenges because the two cultures value different acts in parent–child relationships.

It is essential to recognize similar differences in school settings. Schools are increasingly more diverse, with children from a wide variety of cultures coming together as part of one community. Furthermore, it falls to teachers to develop relationships with each student. This poses quite a challenge—not only do teachers have to be flexible in the ways they interact with students from varying cultures, but they also have to overcome their assumptions about relationships, instilled through their own upbringing, in order to acknowledge and participate in relationships that may have very different values. In spite of the challenges, recognition that relationships are an essential part of the school experience at any age can support children’s engagement in the curriculum.

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See also Assessment of Teacher–Student Relationships; Attachment Theory; Caring Approaches; Relationship-Based Approaches to Classroom Management; Responsive Classroom Approach; Teacher–Student Relationships; Trust, Building

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ATTENTION DEFICIT HYPERACTIVITY DISORDER

Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), the most common childhood disorder, impacts approximately 3% to 7% of school-age children. This disorder involves deficits related to problems sustaining attention and/or problems being hyperactive and impulsive. Hyperactivity/impulsivity is more easily observed than inattention, as individuals who are hyperactive often fidget or appear to be in an almost constant state of motion, oftentimes without considering the consequences of their actions.

With regard to problems sustaining attention, a student displaying such problems may appear to be passive or involved in a task other than the targeted lesson. For instance, the student may stare out a window or have a blank look on his or her face. Difficulties completing classwork or listening to directions are other observable characteristics of inattention.

These attention difficulties and hyperactivity negatively impact the academic and social functioning of children with ADHD, because these get in the way of

accessing the material presented in the curriculum. These behaviors can also lead to more severe types of inappropriate classroom behavior—behavior that can alienate the student from teachers and peers alike. Understanding the symptoms and deficits associated with this disorder enables teachers and parents to proactively manage these behaviors in students, support positive behaviors, and effectively cue them to stay on task.

Symptoms and Classifications

The symptoms of ADHD are divided into two categories: inattention and hyperactivity/impulsivity. There are eight symptoms of inattention, which include

- difficulty listening,
- careless task completion,
- difficulty sustaining attention,
- inability to follow directions or complete classwork,
- difficulty with organizing,
- losing important items,
- becoming distracted with environmental stimuli,
- being forgetful.

For an individual to meet the criteria for an ADHD diagnosis, six of these symptoms must be present in at least two settings (e.g., home and school) and before the age of 12.

Eight symptoms are used to identify hyperactivity/impulsivity including

- fidgeting with objects in hands,
- leaving seat when not appropriate,
- running or climbing when not appropriate,
- consistently playing loudly,
- being in a constant state of motion,
- interrupting others,
- showing inability to wait their turn,
- stating (often shouting out) answers to questions when not asked.

Again, six of these symptoms have to be present in at least two settings and before the age of 12.

Although most students engage in these behaviors periodically, individuals with ADHD chronically display these behaviors to a degree that impacts their productivity in academic or employment settings. These individuals also display these behaviors even when they are no longer developmentally appropriate. For example, it is more appropriate for a kindergarten student to blurt out an answer than it is for a fourth grader to do so. Thus, the disorder is more difficult to diagnose in younger children (below the age of 5).

Depending on symptomatology, individuals with ADHD can be categorized into one of three subtypes: primarily inattentive, primarily hyperactive, or a combined type. For the primarily inattentive or hyperactive type, the criteria (pervasive display of six symptoms in two settings) are only met for the respective category and not for the other category. Individuals who meet the criteria for both categories have a combined type.

Males are more likely to engage in hyperactive/impulsive behaviors, and as previously mentioned, it is easier to observe the hyperactive/impulsive symptoms than it is to observe inattention symptoms. For this reason, males are twice as likely to be diagnosed with ADHD than are females. Teachers and other adults have more difficulty with the hyperactive behaviors, which also may explain the gendered differences in prevalence rates.

Females who are diagnosed with ADHD are more likely to be diagnosed with the primarily inattentive type. While these inattentive behaviors are less disruptive to a classroom environment, they still contribute negatively to the individual's academic achievement as these interfere with work completion.

While originally conceptualized as primarily affecting children, the effects of ADHD have been found to persist past puberty and negatively affect an individual's adult life including his or her employment status. In addition to the symptoms noted above, individuals with ADHD are more easily frustrated, change moods more frequently, and are more likely to be injured than the general population. These difficulties can have a negative effect on the abilities of individuals with ADHD to initiate and maintain relationships and may place them in potentially unsafe or negative situations. Of particular concern are the hasty or ineffective decisions made by this group. Individuals with ADHD tend not to consider the long-term consequences of their actions and may demonstrate the potential to say or do things that are hurtful to others or themselves. As such, they tend to consider what will provide them with an immediate gain when making decisions and fail to focus on critical details being presented to them.

Executive Function

This inability to delay gratification coupled with the chronic presence of other inattention and/or hyperactive/inattentive symptoms for individuals with ADHD has caused some experts to conceptualize ADHD as an executive functioning difficulty. Executive function is best conceptualized as the higher-order cognitive processes involved in the planning, initiation, and self-regulation of goal-directed behavior. Thomas E. Brown divides executive function into six interconnected components: activation, focus, effort, emotion, memory, and action. *Activation* involves prioritizing actions and

stimuli in one's environment or the process of selecting stimuli. *Focus* is the ability to maintain and switch attention effectively between tasks/stimuli. *Effort* refers to the ability to effectively sustain attention to a task. *Emotion* is the ability to regulate one's own emotions, while *memory* involves one's working memory (the information being processed or manipulated by the mind, e.g., remembering a phone number while at the same time trying to remember an actor's name from a TV show). *Action* is the process by which people regulate what they do based on the information being processed by the other executive functions, in other words, the way people regulate their behavior.

Although these processes cannot be directly observed, it is easy to understand how difficulties in any of these areas could negatively affect an individual. Difficulty with activation and focus would manifest itself as a difficulty starting or restarting tasks when interrupted as well as being easily distracted. Difficulty with effort could cause individuals to have difficulty sustaining attention to complete tasks, and thus their work completion/productivity would suffer. Difficulties with emotion could lead them to have a lack of awareness in addition to difficulties coping with their changing emotional states, and thus their interpersonal relationships would suffer. Difficulty with memory could lead to difficulties in processing information and forgetfulness, losing items, and issues in choosing the appropriate information on which to focus. Difficulties with action could lead to selecting appropriate behaviors or responses to situations resulting in problems with decision making. Overall, these difficulties with executive function can affect organization, time management, and ability to plan in individuals with ADHD.

Conclusion

In a classroom environment, strong and efficient executive functioning processes are critical for a student's success. Students are often expected to complete independent work while ignoring extraneous stimuli. For example, the cognitive demands of planning a written response or solving problems in mathematics are often difficult for these students to perform. In addition, they are continually being faced with decisions about how to conduct themselves in social and academic settings and have difficulty choosing the appropriate behavioral responses. Finally, these students are often presented with multiple pieces of information to which they must attend and decide the most relevant. These are all situations in which these children struggle.

Fortunately, there are many behavioral strategies and medical interventions (prescribing stimulant or nonstimulant medication) to assist these children. Behavioral strategies in concert with prescription drugs

are widely considered the most effective treatment regimen for the disorder. Because several concerns exist about these medications, the use of behavioral strategies has been found in some research to be effective without the use of medications. Further, education surrounding the consequences of executive functioning difficulties is essential to help individuals compensate for ADHD.

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See also Applied Behavior Analysis; Behavior Disorders; Diagnostic and Statistical Manual (DSM); Executive Function and Behavior Problems; Medication for Emotional and Behavioral Problems; Self-Regulated Learning; Special Education Laws

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failure—answers to the *why* questions regarding outcomes. Explanations, justifications, and excuses are all attributions. They address such questions as, “Did I do well on the test because I studied, or because it was easy?” “Did I fail because I was watching TV while preparing for the test, or because math is just not my subject?” The idea is that individuals create theories and seek meaning for the events that happen in their lives. Though these explanations occur after the fact, they play a role in motivation and future behavior as well as affective experiences. The attributions students make are strong predictors of behavior and motivation in achievement situations. Thus, they relate directly to how classrooms are managed and to how teachers help students make attributions that better ensure future success in school and beyond.

Dimensions of Attributions

Social psychologist Bernard Weiner postulated that individuals perceive their success or failure in terms of three dimensions: locus, stability, and controllability. *Locus* refers to the location of the cause—internal or external to the self. For example, “Was my failure due more to an internal cause such as my lack of effort or inability, or more to an external cause such as noise in the hallway or poor instruction?” *Stability* refers to the consistency or variability of the cause over a period of time. For example, “Was my failure due to a stable cause such as ‘bad genes’ or an overly difficult subject, or to an unstable cause such as my lack of effort or the mood of the teacher testing me?” *Controllability* refers to whether one has control over the cause or not. For example, “Was my failure due to something I had control over, such as effort or whether I solicited help, or uncontrollable, such as luck or the design of the test?”

Every attribution can be classified using these dimensions. For example, a student may explain that she got a satisfactory grade because she insisted the teacher watch her work on assigned problems, step-by-step. This example of an attribution is internal (the student’s motivation to seek help), unstable (that insisting on the teacher helping is not a pattern), and controllable (the student made the choice to ask the teacher to watch).

Attributions are based on perception and beliefs—not necessarily on the objective state of things. For example, it may be that the student in the previous example attributes the test result to the teacher’s tips during the tutoring process rather than her insistence to get assistance in the first place. In such a case, the attribution is external (the teacher’s tips) and uncontrollable (subject to the teacher’s agreeing to provide feedback). Attributions are related to one’s expectancy for future success, so the distinction is important. Thus, when students link success to internal controllable causes, such as taking the

ATTRIBUTION THEORY

Attribution theories of motivation refer to the causal explanations individuals provide for their success and

initiative and insisting, they will be more likely to seek help in the future and benefit from doing so.

Stability is also a pertinent dimension as individuals will expect similar outcomes in the future if the causal explanation is seen as constant over time. If a poor score is seen as the result of an impossibly difficult subject (stable), then a student may believe he or she is in for the same fate in the future—and thus unlikely to make any significant changes to his or her behavior or strategies—since the subject will remain impossibly difficult. On the other hand, if he or she ascribes the poor performance to unstable causes such as the flu or a lack of effort, he or she may be more likely to hope for better grades in the future since the flu is temporary—as is level of effort. In short, if the cause of one's performance is perceived as internal, unstable, and controllable, in the future the student is more likely to engage in help-seeking behavior, expend more effort, and do whatever is necessary to do better. The opposite will apply if the student attributes the outcome to external, stable, and uncontrollable causes.

The attributions we make also play a role in the emotions we experience. Weiner posits that attributions are related to specific emotions. Thus, to the extent a teacher can influence the types of attributions students make, he or she can impact the climate of the classroom. Locus of causality, controllability, and stability elicit emotions such as anger, guilt, pride, gratitude, and shame. For example, emotions related to one's self-concept such as pride and shame are associated with the locus of causality. On the other hand, external attributions for positive or negative outcomes do not affect feelings related to one's self-concept. The other dimensions, too, link to how someone is likely to feel. The emotions of anger, gratitude, guilt, pity, and shame are all linked with the controllability dimension, while feelings of hopelessness are linked to the dimension of stability.

Biases and Beliefs

Our cognitive processes are prone to bias. With attributions, this takes the form of the *fundamental attribution error*—attributing our own success to internal causes and our failures to external causes. Conversely, we tend to attribute the success of *others* to external causes and their failures to internal sources. For example, we may attribute our success as due to hard work, but attribute the success of others to luck or the favor of the teacher. Likewise, we have a tendency to attribute our failures to circumstances beyond our control, such as having to care for siblings, while we attribute the failure of others to personal characteristics such as laziness. We may always have an excuse for being late—the bus, a last minute phone call, a chore that could not wait—but

then see tardiness as a personal characteristic of others (“He’s *always* late; that’s who he is”).

This suggests that students will likely blame external sources for their failure—“the test is too hard,” “the teacher doesn’t like me”—rather than using the situation to gain insight about the effectiveness, or lack thereof, of the study strategies he or she employed. Likewise, success could also result in missing an opportunity to gain insight: a good score may do nothing more than reinforce the belief that “I’m good at this subject.”

Teachers, too, can miss opportunities for insight and reflection due to the fundamental attribution error. Teachers may view behavior problems as beyond their control, such as when they focus on a student having a disorder diagnosed, poor parenting, or bad habits cultivated in other classrooms. In such cases, the presumed external cause of the behavior problems absolves the teacher of responsibility for coming up with new classroom management strategies to manage the behavior problems. Conversely, a teacher may be more likely to take credit for a group of well-behaved students when, in fact, there may have been external factors of relevance. Again, the opportunity to learn from one's classroom management strategies is lost.

Beliefs also play a role on the effects one's attributions have on future behavior. For example, if a teacher attributes success to his or her ability, there are different motivational consequences if ability is believed to be something fixed (thus stable and uncontrollable) as opposed to something that can be developed through practice, perseverance, and hard work (unstable and controllable).

Carole Dweck refers to such beliefs as *mindsets*. A *growth mindset* is the belief that ability is something that can be developed. Students and teachers with this mindset are focused on learning, skill development, and improvement. They seek challenge and persevere when problems occur. They make internal attributions to causes under their control. In contrast, a *fixed mindset* is the belief that ability is inherited and fixed—ability is something “you either have or you don’t.” The attribution here is also internal, but stable and uncontrollable. Students and teachers with a fixed mindset are focused on how they are perceived by others. The desire is to look smart and to maintain this perception. Thus, students with this mindset are more likely to seek tasks that lack challenge and are easily achievable, and teachers are more likely to avoid risks and being creative when risk-taking and being creative run the risk of criticism from administration or others outside the classroom.

These mindsets have implications for classroom management. Since intellectual ability, or intelligence, is often seen as something stable and uncontrollable to students with a fixed mindset, these students are more

likely to disengage once a particular task becomes difficult—as struggle may be seen as an indication of lack of ability. In contrast, those with a growth mindset are likely to increase effort when faced with difficult tasks—as struggle may be seen as an indication of the difficulty of the task, and not of lack of ability.

Similarly, students with a fixed mindset are more likely to cheat and use superficial study strategies in order to maintain the impression of superior (or at least adequate) intelligence and follow the assumption that understanding is something you either get or do not get. In the face of failure and in an attempt to repair any damage to their self-esteem, students with a fixed mindset look to those who performed worse, while those with a growth mindset look for ways to learn from their mistakes by seeking help or by looking to those who succeeded in order to learn from the strategies they used. In sum, attribution theory explains much about why some students (and teachers) function well in the classroom and why others do not.

Recommendations for Classroom Management

Attribution theory has to do with the causes people attribute to their successes and failures. People's interpretations of outcomes influence their subsequent behavior and their emotional reactions to success, failure, and the challenges they will face in the future. In the classroom, the attributions students and teachers make influence the climate and functioning of the classroom.

From this summary of attribution theory and its significance in classroom management, three broad recommendations are offered.

First, we know that students who make attributions to internal and controllable factors are more likely to be engaged, motivated, and achieve success. Therefore, *students should be encouraged to see their own role in their successes and failures*. Yes, it may be true that there were factors outside of the students' control that resulted in an unfavorable outcome, but it is likely the students made a variety of choices leading up to their failures and successes that also contributed.

With regard to failures, students must be helped to ask questions such as “What preparation strategies did I employ?” and “Were video games chosen over study time?” Blame or explanations centered on sources outside of students' control do not offer an opportunity to learn from experience or envision how making different choices can result in different outcomes, setting the stage for repeat performances. Similarly, noting students' role in their success highlights adaptive learning and self-regulation strategies that may otherwise escape attention. Pointing these out better ensures their adoption in the

future. An additional benefit of encouraging ownership of behavior is that it promotes student autonomy—also associated with increased motivation.

Our beliefs about the stability of causal factors have implications for motivation and whether we adopt good strategies to develop ourselves and succeed. Thus, *students should be shown that ability is unstable and can be developed*. Therefore, it is wise to be careful about praise. Praising children for their intelligence (being smart) promotes the belief that intelligence is a stable trait, wedding it to one's identity and making it personal. The adoption of this fixed-trait belief leads to behaviors intended to maintain this social perception. Students adopting this fixed-trait approach to intelligence will be more likely to choose easy tasks rather than those they can learn and develop from, opting out when challenged, and taking shortcuts such as superficial learning strategies and cheating.

On the other hand, praising students for their effort to learn shifts the focus from how students are being perceived by others to factors under students' control such as the amount of effort applied to the task. Praise for effort encourages positive emotions such as pride associated with a job well done and self-esteem based on factors under students' control. Such praise also reduces feelings of hopelessness and increases the likelihood that students will work hard in the future.

Finally, teachers should *model adaptive attributions*—specifically teachers should adopt a growth mindset (internal, unstable, controllable). Dweck notes that teachers with a fixed mindset merely ask, “*Can I teach these students?*” while those with a growth mindset ask, “*How can I teach these students?*” The distinction is important. “*Can I . . .*” implies a dichotomy (either I can or cannot), while “*How can I . . .*” suggests that a teacher with effort, thought, and patience can teach any student or group of students. The latter question implies growth and the belief that *all* students fall into the category of teachable under the right circumstances. Modeling a growth mindset and viewing students' learning as unstable and controllable also sends the message to students that their fate is not fixed, but subject to their own agency. Furthermore, modeling adaptive attributions also means being aware of one's own biases—our tendency to shirk responsibility for failure. This entails reflection and responding to classroom management issues by asking, “*What could I be doing differently?*” Doing so results in increased problem-solving skills, greater satisfaction, and reduced burnout. It also results in an increase in student learning and a more positive classroom climate—*one where students seek to learn rather than to blame*.

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See also Emotion Regulation; Locus of Control; Motivating Students; Reframing; Self-Regulated Learning

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AUTHORITY, CHILDREN'S CONCEPTS OF

Children have a complex approach to authority: They do not indiscriminately accept or reject the authority of adults. Children of all ages do not grant figures of authority the right to issue commands that would cause harm or unfairness. Furthermore, on some occasions, they accept children their own age as authorities, such as classmates appointed by an adult. In addition, children more readily grant authority to an adult who has the appropriate position in a social system rather than one who does not.

Younger children (4 to 5 years of age) have less sophisticated concepts of authority than do older children. Partly this arises from limitations in their knowledge about the expertise of a person. Thus, they tend to assume that all adults know well how to take care of children and grant authority to an adult when an older child might question it. Relatedly, young children more often limit authority to those they know more closely, such as teachers and principals, rather than police officers and others they have little contact with.

A different aspect of younger children's lesser sophistication is that they distinguish less—than do older children—between conventional issues that pertain to proper social regulation (such as conforming to social etiquette) and personal issues (such as choice of the color of one's clothing, or choice between different leisure activities). This distinction often causes conflict between adolescents and their parents—with

adolescents regarding the matter under dispute as personal and the parent seeing it as conventional, pertaining to appropriate social regulation (e.g., cleanliness of an adolescent's bedroom). Such conflicts begin early in childhood, but it is only gradually that younger children attain the capacity for making distinctions seen with adolescents and that their thinking about interactions with parents regarding authority attains this level of complexity.

Authority Concepts Across Cultures

Researchers have studied children's authority concepts cross-culturally, in particular with Asian children—among them Chinese, Japanese, and Korean. As with children in Western countries, Asian children do not accept commands from anyone that cause harm and/or unfairness. Moreover, Asian children, in common with other children, develop a distinction between conventional and personal issues and believe that they should have personal jurisdiction over the latter. Nevertheless, there are differences.

Asian children adhere to very clear lines of authority—for example, with respect to age (older versus younger) and assigned position (police officer versus citizen)—and overall recommend obedience more than do Western children. At the same time, they give more importance to a person's knowledge and adulthood than to the person's position in a social system. Additionally, when dealing with issues that Western children consider conventional, Asian children often cite pragmatic consideration for obedience, such as the beneficial consequences following the rule may have for them as well as others (e.g., in keeping their room clean). Finally, Asian children are more likely to favor harmony and empathy when thinking about parent-child conflict. For them, the parent-child interaction goes both ways; both parents and children should understand the other's needs and rights.

Implications for Classroom Management

Several implications may be drawn from this brief account of what research has uncovered with respect to children's concepts of authority. First, when puzzling about students' treatment of teachers (with respect vs. with disrespect, being cooperative vs. being uncooperative, being compliant and following along vs. being independent and going one's own way), it makes sense to consider a student's concept of authority—particularly with respect to whether or not the student is making the distinctions between personal and conventional and between a teacher's position, age, and expertise. In some cases, what appears to be disrespect, uncooperativeness,

or ultraindependence or dependence may turn out to be better framed as a student's having yet to make one or more of the distinctions discussed here—or as having made a distinction only recently and thus not yet adept at using it (e.g., some adolescents challenging a teacher's insistence on following a convention). Since these are developmental distinctions made only gradually over time, educators cannot expect them to be learned right away—but they can be learned with guidance from teachers.

Second, understanding the developmental implications of making these distinctions can help with understanding why some young children are uncooperative and misbehave. Lacking a sense that authority resides not just in older individuals (e.g., teachers) but also in the good rules of a classroom, some challenging young children appear to leave it up to teachers to decide what is good and bad—a somewhat paradoxical situation that says that with the questioning of age as the sole criterion of authority comes the possibility of finding authority in internalizing rules of conduct—rules that apply to everyone regardless of age (teachers included).

Third, understanding individual differences in whether and how students make the distinctions discussed can shed light on ethnic differences in how students respond to teachers.

For example, rather than using the somewhat negative frame in which an East Asian student is viewed as being compliant, a closer look might lead one to adopt a more positive frame and view the student as having developed further than other students a rationale and appreciation for the necessity of certain conventions.

In any case, it is clear that children's concept of authority—and the distinctions that are made with development—figure into the complex mix of determining how best to support students and manage classrooms.

Marta Laupa

See also Asian Americans as Model Minority; Reframing; Teacher-Student Relationships

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authority continues to be a hotly debated and poorly understood subject that creates anxiety, especially for novice teachers. There is a real need for a deeper understanding of authority and how it can be constructed to support educative relationships between teachers and students, positive learning environments, and students' development.

Often thought of as a possession or quality of the teacher, authority is a relationship between teacher and students that is shaped by multiple influences located in and outside the classroom. A long-standing problem, authority has become more complex in the last half century due to changes in schools and society. It embodies questions that are crucial to education today: How do teachers engage students in learning while maintaining order and meeting standards? Whose knowledge has a place in the classroom curriculum? How do teachers develop positive authority relations with students who represent diverse racial, ethnic, class, gender, and other social identities and may not trust authority figures at school? How do external factors such as education reform movements and policy influence classroom authority? And what are the consequences of how authority is enacted for students and society?

Despite its significant role in teaching, since the 1960s, ongoing debates reflect divergent beliefs about what authority is and how authority should be enacted in classrooms. For example, authority is often associated with coercive power that is both repressive and corrupt. Authority is also equated with respect and considered necessary for stability and guidance of youth development. For many, then, authority is a charged topic, one that evokes ambivalence and conflicting interpretations.

All educators, and especially novices, can become preoccupied with authority and the predicament it presents: On the one hand, successful teaching is dependent upon students' voluntary cooperation and learning. On the other hand, students are forced to attend school and comply with its rules, assignments, and evaluations. Somehow students must be persuaded to willingly take risks, invest time and energy, and trust that their teacher is working for, rather than against, their well-being. Trust may be especially problematic for students who have been discriminated against because of their race, class, culture, gender, language, or some other factor. Essentially, educative authority relationships rest on competent and caring teachers, agreement about classroom goals and norms, students' understanding of what they are being asked to do, and students' belief that they can fulfill these demands with their teachers' support. Yet these relationships play out in complex ways on a day-to-day and even moment-to-moment basis. Understanding the complexity of authority can help teachers analyze problems and manage them when they occur.

AUTHORITY AND CLASSROOMS

Authority is a fundamental element of classroom life that has a direct impact on teaching and learning. Yet,

Theory of Authority in Classrooms

Sociological theory conceptualizes authority as a hierarchical relationship in which teachers have the right (i.e., the legitimacy) to direct classroom affairs, while students have obligations to cooperate. Although the form it takes can vary a great deal, this relationship is fundamental to achieving the educational goals of schooling as it is currently structured. Importantly, authority is supposed to serve democratic education, because, different from power, it rests on the teacher's *legitimacy*, students' *consent*, and mutual commitment to the school's *moral order*—its goals, values, and norms.

Sociologist Max Weber defined three ideal types of authority based on different sources of legitimacy, and education scholars such as Mary Haywood Metz and Judith Pace have applied these to the classroom. *Traditional* authority grants legitimacy to people in positions of superior status. Teachers exercising traditional authority act *in loco parentis* (in place of parents) and expect to be obeyed simply because they occupy the role of teacher. The second type, *charismatic* authority, occurs when heroic or exemplary individuals with exceptional qualities garner unusually high prestige. Charismatic teachers evoke emotional attachment, and their legitimacy lasts as long as they satisfy students' needs and inspire commitment. The third type, *legal-rational* authority (also known as bureaucratic authority), gives persons in official positions the right to issue and enforce commands that support established rules, regulations, and policies. Bureaucratic authority often involves the use of rewards and punishments and sets up teachers in the role of boss. Talcott Parsons identified *professional* authority as a fourth type distinguished by the use of expertise to achieve mutual goals. In the role of professional expert, teachers' knowledge and skills are their most important claim to legitimacy. Émile Durkheim, on the other hand, emphasized *moral authority* and explained that the teacher's role includes upholding the moral values of society and inspiring students' respect.

Ideology and Authority

Questions about how legitimacy and moral authority are defined and by whom have fueled ideological debates over authority for many years.

Sociologist Christopher Hurn explains that until the 1960s teachers were traditional authority figures who fulfilled the role *in loco parentis*. They enjoyed wide discretion and scope in overseeing their charges, even if they faced student challenges. A dramatic ideological shift occurred in the 1960s when the Civil Rights Movement, women's liberation, protests against the Vietnam War, and court cases supporting students' rights, all called

into question traditional forms of authority. Progressive educators at this time aligned with philosopher and educator John Dewey's belief that student interests and real-life experiences should be reflected in the curriculum and that teachers should use the *natural authority* that comes with being an adult guide. They agreed with Dewey that educational growth and social progress are best fostered by teachers who encourage student autonomy and the development of democratic classroom communities. Progressive educators criticized traditional authority relations in classrooms as authoritarian, abusive, and discriminatory, especially for students from poor and minority backgrounds. Their emphasis on the importance of individual rights was supported by court decisions granting freedom of expression and due process to students.

Critical educators went even further. They viewed the moral order of schools as a vehicle of oppression used to subjugate marginalized peoples. Critical educators argued that public schools should promote liberating teacher-student relationships to create a more just and humane world. Neo-Marxists in the 1970s equated traditional classroom authority with the reproduction of social inequalities in a capitalist society.

Paulo Freire's work with oppressed peasants in Brazil has been a major source of inspiration to critical educators in the United States. According to Freire, teachers empower students through reciprocal relations so that teaching and learning provide a two-way process of knowledge construction rather than a one-way process of teachers banking or depositing information into students. Following Freire's model, teachers and students educate each other as they work together to achieve social justice.

Yet another ideological camp consisted of conservative educational thinkers, who in the early 1980s blamed the purported increase in deviance and decrease in achievement in U.S. high schools on schools' abdication of authority. Today, conservative ideology is evident in paternalistic or no-excuses schools that emphasize strict behavioral expectations and rigorous academic standards for underserved youth.

Authority in Real Classrooms

Ideological debates may mask the realities of authority. Social scientists have revealed the tensions in classroom relations that teachers must manage, regardless of ideology. For example, in the vast majority of schools, teachers both maintain order and foster students' engagement in learning. They socialize students to complete assigned work, curb their movements around the classroom, and follow rules. Teachers evaluate, discipline, and keep students on task. At the same time, they must foster

goodwill, gain cooperation, and pursue educational goals, as well as encourage active participation.

The most ambitious research on authority in classrooms and schools is that of Mary Haywood Metz from the late 1960s. Metz's rich descriptions and research findings show how authority relations in classrooms are complex, dynamic, and fluid as they are continually negotiated between teachers and students. Metz explains how authority is shaped by many factors, including teachers' philosophies and pedagogies.

Metz found that developmental teachers tried to connect the curriculum with students' prior knowledge and interests and showed greater openness and flexibility. In contrast, incorporative teachers viewed students as empty vessels to be filled up with knowledge. Few teachers were *laissez-faire*, and even fewer used an authoritarian approach.

Metz also found that teachers were only one part of the authority equation. Student attitudes, abilities, and actions mattered greatly. In fact, teachers adjusted their approach to fit what they believed worked best for different groups of students. For example, teachers tended to be more structured and had lower academic expectations for lower-track classes. In contrast, teachers tended to be more relaxed and had higher academic expectations with higher-track classes.

Metz also showed how faculty culture, school leadership, and events in the wider society were important influences on the kind of authority exhibited in classrooms. For example, the social and political turmoil of the 1960s led to a crisis of authority in classrooms and schools.

One central focus of Metz's research was on the conditions supporting students consenting to their teachers' directives. Metz concluded that the most important requirement for consent was that students saw a purpose to what they were being asked to do at school. Purposes included wanting to please a teacher, pursuing intellectual interests, and trusting that assignments would be valuable later on in life. For those students who did not see any purpose to schooling, teachers tried to build connections between the curriculum and the values and interests of the students. The more reluctant the students, the more a developmental approach—with relatively flexible goals, responsive relationships, and motivating curriculum and pedagogy—was needed to gain trust and cooperation. To be effective with this approach required serious commitment and professional competence on the part of teachers.

During the 1980s and 1990s, authority in classrooms and schools became a neglected area of research. More recently, the research of Judith Pace and others has refocused attention on the importance of authority. Building on Metz's study, Pace found that overt

exercise and questioning of authority had given way to indirect commands and challenges. Pace observed that teachers used hybridized forms of authority that mixed traditional, bureaucratic, and professional roles while trying to appear democratic. Teachers worked hard to get students' attention and maintain positive rapport while simultaneously covering the curriculum. Their approaches generally worked in the short term, but masked tensions that negatively impacted learning in the long term. Grades were used to persuade students to study and complete assignments, but this generated problems such as cheating in higher-track classes and refusal to complete work in lower-track classes. When students resisted, teachers conveyed ambiguous expectations, which allowed flexibility but compromised serious involvement with learning.

In Pace's study, classroom authority was influenced by a permissive school culture and a preoccupation with individual choice in the larger culture, but these influences conflicted with concerns about academic rigor and closing the achievement gap between white and African American students.

Other recent studies illustrate how individual teachers attempt to foster more meaningful engagement of students from historically marginalized backgrounds. For example, Celia Oyler shows how a teacher changed her approach with poor, urban, Mexican American, Puerto Rican, and African American first graders by sharing authority with students. The teacher followed students' initiations in book discussions and other activities. Where student input in other classrooms would have been treated as distractions, the teacher in Oyler's study invited suggestions, questions, and contributions to both the content and process of lessons. Students were allowed to respectfully challenge the authority of texts and even that of their teacher. Instead of threatening the teacher's authority, the sharing of authority actually strengthened it.

Studies of authority confirm commonsense understandings that difficulties increase with older students who, compared with younger students, are less innocent, less eager to please, more concerned with autonomy and power, and more likely to question adults. Teachers of adolescents must work harder and smarter to build positive rapport, appeal to adolescents' interests, and provide adolescents with meaningful challenges.

In addition to age as a variable influencing authority, cultural and economic diversity influences authority relations in primary as well as secondary school classrooms. Some scholars such as Lisa Delpit argue that in certain contexts, explicit and transparent directives combined with genuine concern for children are most effective. George Noblit conducted research with an African American teacher who used power instead of reciprocal

relations to create a caring, teacher-centered classroom. Similarly, Cynthia Ballenger, a white teacher in a Haitian preschool, learned from her colleagues to employ a traditional style of moral authority that conveyed the values of Haitian parents. However, it is important to distinguish between authoritative relations, which are directive and explicit, versus authoritarian relations, which are coercive and demand blind obedience.

No matter the cultural style, teachers' respect for students' contributions, their ability to assess and build on students' strengths, and their understanding of students' family and community backgrounds, all contribute to positive authority relations. Authority is morally and politically charged. Thus, understanding the different values of parents, being a role model and advocate, and expressing genuine care for young people's learning and lives bolster teachers' legitimacy and authority relations. Conflicts over authority can arise with students from any cultural or social class background; in fact, students from affluent families may feel especially entitled to challenge their teachers. In any situation, having the support of colleagues and school administrators is crucial to dealing with major problems.

Authority in the School System

Classroom authority is influenced by the chain of commands that goes from the state to the schoolhouse. Teachers are subordinate to their principals, who are in turn subordinate to their district superintendent, and so on. Classroom practice is subject to many influences, including curriculum mandates and other school policies, such as standards-based accountability. Teachers interpret these factors as exerting different levels of authority over their work. In some cases, teachers must reconcile conflicts between external authorities and their own professional judgments. Working with supportive colleagues can help teachers adjust, question, or even protest when policies interfere with their work with students.

School system mandates imposed on teachers may undermine their professional autonomy. As Linda McNeil found in her research, bureaucratic control wielded by administrators over teachers can have a negative impact on teacher-student relations that mirror bureaucratic power. Schools that encourage professional autonomy and collaborative decision making along with distributed and transparent leadership support positive authority relations in the classroom.

Conclusion

The importance of authority in shaping classroom culture cannot be overstated. Teachers are granted the right and responsibility, within parameters, to set the classroom

agenda and direct students' actions. Yet, paradoxically, to succeed they must persuade students to agree to the agenda, and they must foster students' critical thinking and autonomy, which may legitimately be used to question teachers' authority. Responsive teaching that builds on the knowledge, assets, and interests that students bring to class, and that upholds common values and norms, is key to constructing positive authority relations—those that are most likely to embrace this paradox.

When problems occur, teachers should adopt a problem-solving stance. Teachers' ability to reflect on problems and adjust their approach, for example, by drawing more on professional or moral authority rather than on traditional or bureaucratic authority is essential to responsible practice. Asking for help from colleagues or school leaders when necessary is important. Developing relationships with parents and other caretakers can make a crucial difference. Finally, further study of this fascinating topic will assist teachers in approaching authority in responsible and effective ways that promote teaching and learning.

Judith L. Pace

See also Age and Classroom Management; Authority, Children's Concepts of; Beginning Teachers and Classroom Management; Beliefs About Discipline Inventory; Caring Approaches; Culturally Responsive Classrooms; Democratic Practices in Classrooms and Schools; Developmental Approaches; Exemplary Teachers; Styles of Teaching; Warmth and Classroom Management

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AUTISM AND INCLUSION IN CLASSROOMS

The *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders* (DSM), published by the American Psychiatric Association, provides diagnostic criteria for autism spectrum disorder (ASD). The criteria characterize ASD by deficits in two core areas: social communication/interaction and restricted/repetitive patterns of behavior. The former includes challenges with the give and take of social interaction that is characteristic of typical peer relationships, deficits in establishing and maintaining social relationships, and challenges in verbal and nonverbal communication. Repetitive and restricted patterns of behavior include repetitive and nonfunctional verbal and/or motor behaviors, also known as stereotypic behavior or stereotypies. Stereotypic behavior can take the form of repeating nonwords, echoing phrases heard from other people or on television, hand flapping, and body rocking that seem to serve no social purpose. Repetitive and restricted patterns of behavior may also include rigid adherence to routines or specific ways of performing actions (e.g., eating food on a plate in a clockwise manner or not eating food that has touched another food), under- or overresponsiveness to sensory stimulation such as light and sound, and intense interests about a specific topic that occupies a significant portion of free time and social discourse.

Corollary features of ASD that may manifest within a classroom setting include challenging behaviors such as aggression, self-injury, and property destruction. These are typically secondary to communication challenges and may function to access preferred items and attention, escape nonpreferred activities, or be related to sensory feedback provided by the behavior itself. About half of all children with ASD will also present with an intellectual disability. These features do not provide diagnostic clarification but are frequently reported within this population of students.

Presentation of Autism in the Classroom

The presentation of ASD within a school setting can vary widely. A percentage of students with ASD do not have any functional language or means of communication, whereas others have higher-order vocabulary and appropriate grammar and syntax but speak in a formal manner. In all instances, social use of language is impacted, and individuals with ASD have difficulties navigating social interactions with peers. This includes difficulty initiating social interactions or conversations, maintaining relationships and conversational topics, and

terminating social interactions effectively. Levels and types of repetitive patterns of behavior vary as well, with some students having more overt stereotypic behavior that interferes with their ability to participate in academic, social, and adaptive skills. Play and leisure skills, including deficits in functional and pretend play, may be evident with more repetitive play schemes or sensory interests in play materials being the main uses rather than traditional usage (e.g., using materials to enact fantasy narratives). Some individuals may focus on specific features of materials such as the corner of a book. Difficulties with changing routines in the classroom or moving from one activity to another may occur if they do not happen in a predetermined fashion. Transitioning within hallways or loud, congested areas may lead to challenges, such as responding to fire alarms or assemblies. Executive functioning skills including impulse control, planning and organization, and goal setting are also impacted in many individuals with ASD.

With regard to academic skills, similar variability is noted. Reading skills can vary from challenges with phonological processing and decoding, with a focus on sight word reading, to fluent and sometimes precocious reading ability. Many individuals with ASD, regardless of their word reading fluency, struggle with reading comprehension. This is often due to challenges with attending to the relevant features of a story, taking the perspective of characters within the story, and inference and prediction. Preferences in reading materials will often involve nonfiction over fiction, occasionally within the areas of interest of the individual. This contrast between fluency in rote aspects of a skill and higher-order thinking is also evident in mathematics where computation skills may be well established but word problems are challenging. These are generalizations of profiles of students, and every student requires a thorough evaluation of his or her skills in order to provide information necessary to plan effectively for instruction.

Some students with ASD may appear aloof or indifferent to social interactions; others are quite socially active. It is important to consider that despite the appearance of indifference to social interactions, one should not assume that the individual does not want social interactions or is choosing to be alone. A student being alone should first be considered as the result of social skills needing to be taught.

Socially active students may initiate social interactions in an awkward or inappropriate way. For example, a student may initiate conversations solely about a specific area of interest without consideration of the other's perspective, or follow another student throughout the day without verbal interaction. These following behaviors can be interpreted by others as threatening or stalking.

Individuals with ASD are also a population vulnerable to bullying and may be susceptible to the urging of others to engage in inappropriate behavior. Careful observation of settings where students will engage in social interactions across all aspects of their days will allow teachers and related services personnel to determine the type and amount of instruction that is needed for those environments.

Classroom Environment and Interventions

Teacher Interventions

For teaching and including children with ASD, it is important to know and understand not only how ASD affects the rest of the students in a classroom but also how the presentation of ASD can affect the behavior of a teacher. While teachers tend to adopt the positive, altruistic objective of helping every child in the classroom equally, the reality is that teachers are impacted by the rules that govern behavior as much as are the children in the classroom. For a teacher, much of the behavior of attending to the needs of children is shaped by what immediately follows that behavior. After receiving a teacher's help, if a child smiles, says "thank you," looks at the teacher in the eyes, or somehow shows success from the interaction, there is a natural reinforcement for the teacher that will encourage the teacher to offer assistance to that child again. However, students with ASD may be unable to offer these natural reinforcers to a teacher, depending upon their presentation. This reflects not the child's level of satisfaction with the interaction but rather the child's ability to communicate that satisfaction. Regardless of the reason for the response or lack of it to the interaction, without a teacher being aware, there may be a decreased likelihood that the teacher will offer a similar level of help if there is not an immediate positive response following the interaction.

Given these basic rules of behaviorism and natural human responses to these situations, teachers would be wise to proactively set up two simultaneous reinforcement systems: one for themselves that encourages their continued attention to children with ASD in their classroom and one for children with ASD to improve their social response to positive interactions. For the teacher intervention, a simple tally sheet on which teachers mark each time they offer positive assistance to the child with ASD and a comparison child would help the teachers confirm that they are attending to the children in the classroom equitably. Teachers could then set up a reinforcement system for themselves based upon the number of check marks on the sheet. Building a similar system for the child that teaches and encourages the repetition of appropriate social responses (smiling,

eye contact, head nodding, etc.) to positive interactions then builds skills within the child that can be generalized to many settings in the child's life.

Student Intervention

A more detailed account of conducting behavioral assessments and using positive reinforcement is given elsewhere in this encyclopedia. These are extremely useful tools to use with students with ASD in the classroom. Conducting behavioral assessments periodically and collecting follow-up data on how effective the resulting interventions are for shaping behavior is critical to running a successful classroom that includes students with ASD. It is also vital to periodically assess whether the choices selected for reinforcement for the child are indeed desirable to the child.

Classroom Interventions

Universal Design for Instruction (UDI) is a framework for teaching that creates an environment that is conducive to every student's learning and mobility characteristics. Using this framework, teachers do not alter their instruction specifically for students with disabilities but rather create a classroom and instruction style that is accessible for every student. This is accomplished from a physical standpoint by making all of the classroom materials accessible by offering grips for pencils, iPads or other similar technology for text readers, scissors with a variety of grips, and so on. Other simple solutions can include putting tennis balls over the feet of chairs that otherwise create excessive noise when moved, arranging the classroom furniture to allow for wide aisles for transitions, and using household lamps instead of overhead fluorescent lights to create less jarring and less noisy lighting. These adjustments can be important for students with ASD who have sensory issues. They can also be useful changes for many other students in the classroom. If teachers are unaware of what simple, low-cost changes can be made to the classroom's physical environment, contacting their State Tech Act Project office is an excellent place to start. Every state in the country has a State Tech Act Project that provides free information about assistive technology.

A teacher can also create an accessible instructional style for the benefit of every student in the classroom. This can be achieved through several avenues. In mathematics instruction, a teacher can present a variety of ways to solve the problem or provide manipulatives to help solidify concepts. In other subjects, teachers can provide a menu of options for how students will show their knowledge on a particular topic, such as through a paper, oral presentation, or multimedia presentation.

This allows all students in the class, including those with ASD, to optimize their ability to share their knowledge while also honing their understanding of their areas of strength.

Through UDI, teachers create a learning environment that heightens the strengths of every student in the classroom. Thus, a student with ASD does not necessarily require special assistance, because the classroom is already designed to meet everyone's needs. This not only improves the learning environment for every student but also prevents the student with ASD from standing out as different due to his or her unique characteristics.

Within the UDI framework, a teacher can readily implement *social skills instruction* that is beneficial to all students and critical for students with ASD. Even simple instruction on how to greet people by shaking hands, looking at them in the eye, and using their name can be useful for all students in the classroom and essential for students with ASD. Practicing reciprocal conversation skills is another simple aid that can be valuable to all and crucial to some. This also gives the students the competency to help each other practice these skills from a constructive and knowledgeable standpoint while not under direct instruction.

The use of *co-teaching*, where a teacher certified in special education shares instructional time with a general education teacher, can be a vital linking of resources and knowledge within a school. It is accomplished in a variety of ways and is explained in more detail elsewhere in this volume. In general, though, utilizing the strengths of both teachers can be capitalized upon by individually assessing each teacher's areas of strengths and the areas of student need in the classroom.

System Intervention

Finally, a very important component of successfully including students with ASD in the classroom is the use of personnel expertise throughout the school system. Forming an *interdisciplinary team* consisting of general education teachers, special education teachers, school psychologists, school counselors, occupational/physical/speech/behavioral therapists, and administrators can be vital to the success of an inclusive classroom. Each team member brings unique knowledge and insight to the team, and successful sharing of information across the team on a regular basis ensures the student is receiving the best services in the optimum environment.

Conclusion

Students with ASD present diagnostic and ancillary characteristics that range widely in functioning levels. It is important to individually assess each student's

strengths and areas of concern to provide them with the best academic opportunities. Through individual, teacher, classroom, and system interventions, it is possible to create a learning environment that meets the needs of teachers and students with and without ASD.

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See also Applied Behavior Analysis; Autism Spectrum Disorders; Behavioral Approaches, Foundations of; Inclusive Classrooms; Learning Disabilities; Reinforcement; Social Skills: Meanings, Supports, and Training for Developing

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AUTISM SPECTRUM DISORDERS

Autism spectrum disorders (ASD) covers a range of symptoms with the common core symptoms having to do with deficits in social communication and the use of repetitive behaviors. Such repetitive behaviors may occur in conjunction with extreme interest in a narrowly defined area (such as an interest in trains to the point of not being attentive to anything other than trains). Over the course of the last two decades, the known prevalence of ASD has increased significantly and is currently thought to affect approximately one in 100 people.

While some individuals with ASD may be educated in alternative settings or self-contained special education programs, many are best served within the general education setting when appropriate supports are available. Thus, it is crucial for general education as well as special education teachers to understand how to create classrooms that meet the needs of these individuals. Understanding how to do so first entails understanding the characteristics of this heterogeneous group since this

understanding is what allows teachers to proactively develop classroom management strategies to effectively engage these individuals and prevent the occurrence of problem behaviors.

The Heterogeneous Nature of ASD

Although these disorders are heterogeneous, students with ASD display common symptoms, such as difficulties with social communication. Individuals with ASD may have language difficulties, and some may only be able to use a few words or display an inability to use language at all (often referred to as low functioning). For individuals with ASD who have more developed language abilities (often referred to as high functioning), other issues may also be present regarding the understanding of nonverbal aspects of language (the ability to understand tone, sarcasm, rhetorical questions, or colloquial expressions such as *dead as a door nail* or having a *frog* in one's throat) and in perceiving others' emotions. These issues suggest that high-functioning individuals with ASD may focus only on the content of the information presented to them, but have difficulties in understanding the context of the information presented in conversations (pragmatic language skills). These difficulties mean that conversations with individuals with ASD are often one-sided in nature and directed at obtaining information or objects versus an emotional exchange between two people. As such, these individuals usually struggle with forming and maintaining relationships with others.

The second essential symptom of these disorders, as noted earlier, is the use of repetitive behaviors and/or the presence of a narrow area of intense interest. These repetitive behaviors may include echolalia (repetitive speech, saying the same phrase over again), and/or rituals involving rigid requirements regarding how a behavior must be performed including criteria regarding how and when steps in the behavior must occur. For example, individuals with ASD may have to perform a ritual greeting and will be upset if the person whom they are greeting deviates from it. In addition, individuals with ASD often have narrow interest in particular areas. These individuals may focus on objects in their environment (e.g., aligning magazines on a table perfectly and in alphabetical order, or being obsessed with objects of a certain color) or more academic topics (e.g., an extreme interest in local weather patterns, city bus schedules, or baseball statistics). Individuals with ASD vary greatly across the two core dimensions of these disorders. Some individuals may not have developed functional language abilities and thus will use repetitive phrases that do not apply to the context in which they are stating them. Other individuals will be able to use language, but will

use it in a way that is focused on their interest area(s) and lacks emotional connection. The particular objects or interests will also vary widely across individuals.

In addition to the heterogeneity across these two core symptoms, individuals with ASD vary greatly in terms of their cognitive and functional abilities (e.g., ability to perform activities required in daily life including self-care/hygiene, ability to adapt to changes in their environment, and ability to work independently). Some individuals with ASD also have intellectual disabilities and as such demonstrate difficulty learning and adapting to their environment. These individuals may also have difficulty generalizing or discriminating behaviors across settings. Generalizing refers to the ability to apply a learned behavior in a new setting, such as ordering food in a restaurant and then ordering at a lunch counter. In contrast, discriminating refers to the ability to use different behaviors in different settings, such as the volume of one's voice at a sporting event versus at a library. A related issue for these individuals relates to their ability to register sensory information, as individuals with ASD will often under- or overreact to sensory stimuli. For example, some individuals are more sensitive to loud sounds or pungent odors. Other individuals do not respond to loud noises or demonstrate difficulty focusing on visual stimuli.

Individuals with ASD who have more developed cognitive abilities vary in their ability to learn and manipulate information—from functioning at a level below same-age peers to a level on par with or even above same-age peers. However, the academic and functional performance of individuals with ASD is often below what is expected given their cognitive abilities. In other words, their cognitive abilities are more developed than certain academic skills and their ability to perform activities of daily living required to live and work independently in the future. The stereotyped interests coupled with social communication deficits may prevent some individuals with ASD from focusing on the instruction required to develop these skills. However, some individuals with ASD can and do learn to compensate for their difficulties and will be able to work and live independently.

Finally, many individuals who have been reported to have syndromes such as Asperger's syndrome (a form of high-functioning autism associated with more highly developed cognitive abilities and fewer difficulties navigating educational and social environments) and pervasive developmental disorder—not otherwise specified (individuals who exhibit some of the symptoms of autism but fail to meet all of the criteria for the disorder) have been included under the umbrella of ASD. The current criteria for ASD have been delineated in a way

that recognizes the variation across the two core symptoms and thus encompasses these previous syndromes. Although concerns related to the core symptoms apply to all individuals with ASD, variation across these core and associated symptoms of the disorder requires services for these individuals to be differentiated to meet individual needs. In other words, it is not possible to treat all individuals on the autism spectrum with a one-size-fits-all approach.

Creating Effective Classrooms for Individuals With ASD

Joshua Harrower and Glen Dunlap reviewed four areas that can be addressed when including students with ASD in general education settings. The first of these areas focuses on antecedent strategies—creating effective educational environments that meet the needs of individuals with ASD to prevent the occurrence of problem behaviors. Students with ASD should be provided in advance with information about behavioral and academic expectations, and these expectations should be regularly reviewed. Due to the inflexible adherence to routine/ritual on the part of many individuals with ASD, it is important that the classroom environment be predictable. Daily schedules and subject-based agendas of activities are one approach that can help students to remain engaged in learning tasks. These schedules should employ nonverbal (symbolic) as well as verbal representations, as students with ASD often have language/reading difficulties. Warnings should be provided for any deviations from routines or schedules. In addition, checklists or other visual prompts can be used when students are performing activities to remind them of the next step. These visual prompts can augment the verbal prompts teachers use in the classroom setting. The sensory difficulties faced by individuals with ASD should also be addressed when designing classroom environments to prevent problem behaviors. Loud noises and distracting visual stimuli should be prevented or removed proactively.

The second area addressed involves manipulating contingencies within the environment—in other words, creating a classroom that reinforces expected behavior and responds to problem behavior with as little attention as possible. It also involves making the relationships between reinforcement and expected behavior as explicit as possible. This reinforcement can vary from earning tokens for engaging in expected behaviors and/or verbal praise from a staff member. The third area to assist individuals with ASD in the general education classroom is the use of self-management strategies. Rigid adherence to routines can lead individuals with

ASD to become reliant on prompts delivered by others. The aforementioned visual prompts or checklists can be utilized to allow these individuals to monitor their progress through instructional activities. For example, a teacher could direct a student to look at the checklist first before providing the student with the next step to solve a math problem.

The final area addressed is the involvement of peers within the classroom environment. Working with the same peers who model positive behaviors enables students with ASD to address their difficulties with social skills. Peers can be enlisted, as can mentors who model behavior and serve as partners in cooperative learning activities, or as peer tutors. Again, the support of peers assists individuals with ASD in becoming less reliant on prompts or cues from adults/authority figures to direct their behavior. Overall, the level of peer support required depends on the student.

Conclusion

Individuals with ASD constitute a heterogeneous group of individuals who vary in their social communication abilities and in their use of ritualized behaviors or intense objects/areas of interest. In addition, students with ASD vary considerably from one another in their cognitive, functional, and academic achievement abilities. This variation underlies the reality that each individual with ASD demonstrates a unique pattern of deficits, abilities, and interests. Thus, it is important to design classroom environments based on the profile of the student with ASD. Of the four broad areas of intervention, some may be more applicable than others. For example, prevention strategies such as continually reviewing expectations, providing visual and symbolic schedules, and using prompts to cue expected academic behaviors have been found to be the most useful and most applicable to all individuals and especially for those with ASD. However, even these strategies need to be carefully applied to meet an individual student's needs.

Finally, it is important to consider that the behavior of individuals with ASD serves as their most reliable form of communication and as such should be viewed as the best indicator of what the child may need to maximize benefits. Individuals with ASD are most successful in environments that provide them with the best opportunity for growth and development when they engage in expected behaviors.

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See also Applied Behavior Analysis; Autism and Inclusion in Classrooms; Behavioral Support Plans; Diagnostic and Statistical Manual (DSM); Social and Emotional Learning; Social Skills: Meanings, Supports, and Training for Developing; Special Education and Peer Support Strategies

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B

BEGINNING TEACHERS AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Beginning teachers often cite classroom management as an area of minimal attention in their preservice training and as one of their biggest challenges in the first years of teaching. Currently, most U.S. classrooms are staffed with more beginning teachers than midcareer or veteran teachers, and these teachers who are the least experienced and least equipped are often placed in the most challenging teaching environments. Beginning teachers are frequently unsuccessful at classroom management and, consequently, often leave the profession early, contributing to a cycle of teacher turnover that directly affects students' learning. Unlike experienced teachers who understand that time spent focusing on classroom management at the beginning of the school year is rewarded with more time available for teaching later in the year, beginning teachers often fail to see the relationship between classroom management practices and students' learning.

Experienced teachers cultivate over time an arsenal of expertise that often makes classroom management invisible to observers, giving the impression that classroom management is effortless, but in actuality it is deliberate, effortful, and demanding. The smoothness with which a well-managed classroom operates allows teachers to engage students in meaningful learning activities, but to those with less experience, this can seem daunting.

Conversely, many beginning teachers face the challenge of simultaneously developing skills in multiple areas—planning lessons, presenting instruction, developing activities, assessing students, and managing classrooms. They have fewer strategies, and their understanding of the teaching process is far less sophisticated,

which can translate to a disproportionate amount of time and effort being spent on problems related to management rather than on students' learning. Additionally, new teachers without confidence in their ability to successfully manage students may choose instructional activities that maintain order rather than activities that enrich students' engagement with curriculum.

The subsequent sections focus on key elements that contribute to effective classroom management practices, as well as on descriptions of environmental supports and challenges that affect classroom management. While effective practices are identified across all teachers, their development is especially important for beginning teachers.

Foundational Elements of Classroom Management

This section describes key elements that promote effective classroom management. Research suggests that identifying a clear teaching philosophy supported by an appropriate management style, creating a positive classroom climate, designing a safe and friendly environment, and developing rules and procedures and a relevant and challenging curriculum are all critical elements in supporting effective classroom management. In addition, research shows that attending to matters of classroom management prior to and at the start of the school year by making purposeful decisions about all of these elements contributes to a learning environment that positively impacts student achievement.

A Personal Philosophy of Teaching

A personal philosophy of teaching is developed through thoughtful examination of beliefs about the

purpose of education, the roles of the teacher and students, and how to make learning happen. This philosophy and the supporting management style affect all aspects of classroom life and contribute to the learning environment. For example, a teacher who believes that the purpose of education is to broaden the minds and experiences of students so that they will become independent thinkers and learners while preparing to live and work cooperatively in society will likely choose a student-centered approach to instruction. An authoritative management style that helps students to understand the purpose of rules and expectations while communicating the teacher's concern for students will support such a philosophy. In addition, this teacher may carefully consider decisions about desk arrangements, use of wall space, routines to encourage student interaction, and instructional strategies and activities to promote learning. None of these decisions can be made independently, since all work in concert to promote good classroom management and, ultimately, student achievement. Adherence to a personal teaching philosophy that is aligned with a management style that supports it is more likely to result in a well-run classroom that promotes student learning.

Classroom Climate

When purposefully created, classroom climate sends a powerful message about how the teacher values students and expectations for what it means to be a learner in a particular classroom. Classroom climate is identified by the way the teacher treats and interacts with students, as well as by the atmosphere suggested by room arrangement and decorations. A teacher who greets students at the door with a welcoming smile each morning sends a positive message as does a room that displays examples of student work and reflects students' interests and accomplishments in and out of the classroom. Both examples communicate that the teacher cares about his or her students and values them as individuals. Research confirms that students who feel valued and appreciated are happier, more cooperative, and more productive, leading to a well-managed classroom and, consequently, greater academic and social success.

Physical Arrangement of the Classroom

The physical arrangement of the classroom also sends a powerful message to students about learning expectations. While restricted by the size and shape of the classroom, the teacher has control over the arrangement of furniture and resources. The careful positioning of desks and other furniture contributes to a safe

environment, allowing students and teacher easy access to passageways and classroom materials, as well as maintaining sight lines to instructional areas and the teacher. The placement of the teacher's desk or work space sends a message about his or her teaching and management style. A desk positioned in the front center of the classroom suggests an authoritarian style and a teacher-centered classroom, while a desk positioned to the side or rear implies an authoritative style and a student-centered classroom. Likewise, the choice of arrangement for student desks/tables also sends a specific message to students. The teacher who believes in a student-centered classroom will arrange students' desks in groups of two or more to promote sharing and cooperative learning. The teacher-centered classroom is often depicted by desks in rows. This arrangement is less likely to encourage student interaction in the learning process.

Establishment of Rules and Procedures

The establishment of rules and procedures is another critical element in creating the learning environment. The purpose of rules and procedures is to create a safe and orderly environment that maximizes learning. Though both set expectations, rules govern behavior and procedures govern routines. For either to constructively contribute to classroom management, they must be positively presented in ways that students understand their purpose; the authoritative classroom manager will spend time discussing rules and procedures and, rather than imposing *teacher rules*, will allow students to participate in developing these expectations. Research indicates that students who have participated in the development of rules are more willing to follow them. Establishing these rules and procedures, however, is not enough, as most veteran teachers agree on the importance of spending time in teaching and modeling these expectations at the beginning of the school year. In addition, periodically revisiting these if students begin to disregard them is also time well spent.

Making Thoughtful Instructional Decisions

The most important element in creating effective classroom management is making thoughtful instructional decisions. The importance of designing a well-organized curriculum that uses a variety of strategies to support student needs is well grounded in the research. Planning for engaging and relevant lessons with a variety of student-centered activities is the single best way to avoid discipline problems. When students value the curriculum and see the activities as meaningful and relevant, they are likely to remain involved, on task, and

excited about the next lesson, thus eliminating management issues. This requires beginning teachers to engage in lesson planning that demonstrates an understanding of students' backgrounds and funds of knowledge, as well as designing instruction that can be accessed across ability levels.

External Supports for Effective Classroom Management

The development of effective classroom management by beginning teachers can be supported in several ways. A *schoolwide behavioral support plan* establishes clear and consistent expectations regarding students' behavior and consequences across the school and contributes to a school's overall climate. New teachers can use this established plan as a foundation on which they can develop their individual practice.

School administrators can also be a source of support for beginning teachers. Administrators typically have the ability to shape class assignments and rosters to ensure that a beginning teacher is not overwhelmed with the most challenging assignments. Additionally, frequent, informal classroom visits by an administrator ensure that struggles are identified quickly and support provided. Lastly, administrators can assign beginning teachers a peer mentor and provide time for meetings with and observations by the mentor.

Research has shown that beginning teachers who are assigned *mentors* have a greater impact on student achievement and are more likely to continue teaching beyond their first year. A mentoring relationship provides beginning teachers the opportunity to share challenges, frustrations, and progress toward professional growth in a nonevaluative environment. The opportunity to observe a mentor's instruction and to be observed by a mentor can also encourage the development of strong management and instructional skills.

Challenges to Effective Classroom Management

While research demonstrates that the basic elements discussed so far contribute to positive classroom management and student achievement, there are often challenges when trying to implement them. Some of these challenges, however, can be addressed at the administrative level, though they may still impact the beginning teacher.

The *overall school climate* may be in conflict with the classroom climate the teacher wants to create. The school climate is sometimes not purposefully created, may not be supported by administrators and staff, or

does not send a clear and positive message. The absence of a recognizable school climate can make it difficult to develop a positive classroom atmosphere that supports the teacher's philosophy and management style.

Related to this is the sometimes *inconsistent support* of teachers by administrators. Lack of clear and consistent administrative support can discourage teachers from being proactive in developing classroom policies that the teacher feels will encourage good management and lead to student achievement. New teachers may be inconsistently mentored as a result of a poorly devised or implemented plan.

A challenge particularly related to middle and secondary schools concerns the *teacher's room assignment*. New teachers often lack a permanent, assigned classroom and find themselves conducting classes each day in a sequence of different rooms. This results in the inability to arrange a classroom that supports the teacher's philosophy and management style as well as to create a classroom climate that complements the teacher's style and purpose.

Lastly, there is the challenge of working with students who exhibit problem behaviors. Although experienced teachers have often developed strategies to assist difficult or challenging students, it is the beginning teachers who are frequently assigned more of these students. New teachers are apt to have a less developed repertoire of skills, fewer strategies, and a less engaging and relevant curriculum to keep these students focused on learning. The ensuing frustration often contributes to beginning teachers' decision to leave the profession.

Conclusion

The foundational elements of classroom management can and must be developed by beginning teachers if they are to remain in the profession. Supporting the development of skills needed to establish these foundational elements increases the likelihood that a beginning teacher will experience success. Collectively, these elements can contribute to a strong foundation of management that supports teaching and learning. Continuous, thoughtful planning on the part of beginning teachers can prevent them from becoming mired in management problems that distract students' learning and create a diminished efficacy for teaching. In addition, positive environmental supports, strong mentoring, and removal of common administrative constraints can better ensure that beginning teachers become effective classroom managers.

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See also Climate: School and Classroom; Instruction and Cognitive Load; Organization of Classrooms: Space;

Organization of Classrooms: Time; Rules and Expectations; Teacher Education and Classroom Management; Teacher Knowledge, Beliefs, Attitudes; Teacher Self-Awareness; Teacher Self-Efficacy

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BEGINNING THE SCHOOL YEAR

What teachers do in the first few days and weeks of a school year strongly correlates with their students' behavior throughout the school year and academic achievement at the end of that year. More effective teachers (i.e., those whose students demonstrate higher rates of academic engagement, lower instances of misbehavior, and higher academic achievement) address several specific managerial issues in the very first days of the school year—so as to establish optimal conditions for learning. These issues include (1) initial teacher–student interactions, (2) initial room arrangement, (3) initial communication with the home, (4) development and teaching of class rules and procedures, (5) targeted development of classroom community (e.g., initial student–student interactions), and (6) initial academic work. Investing time in proactive classroom management in these areas will yield increased time for academic instruction throughout the remainder of the year, ultimately leading to higher academic learning.

Initial Teacher–Student Interaction

Greeting Students

How teachers build relationships with their students influences student learning, and initial interactions build a strong foundation for those relationships. Students

coming to the first day of class are concerned about the teacher—they wonder who he or she is and what that person is like. How a teacher presents herself or himself in the first few days of school will have lasting effects on how the teacher is perceived by the students. And so, more effective teachers stand at the door and make eye contact with, smile at, and speak a welcoming comment to each student as they enter. A warm welcome creates an immediate positive expectation on the part of the student, and those teachers who have learned names and welcome students by name on that first day establish an immediate credibility with students. If teachers know students' names in advance, a prepared nametag (elementary) or name tent (secondary) communicates to students that they are expected and welcome.

Introducing the Teacher

Once students are seated, effective teachers make a brief formal address to the class, including something about themselves as a teacher and as a person (avoiding *TMI*—too much information), about their positive expectations and enthusiasm for the coming academic year, and about the value of each individual student and of the learning community they all will create together. In that first week, some teachers even display a *Meet Your Teacher* bulletin board or PowerPoint with pictures, including one of their own while as students.

Initial Room and Student Arrangement

Initial Room Arrangement

Whatever the furniture of the classroom may be (e.g., separate desks and chairs, combined chair desks, tables and chairs), if the furniture is movable, then more effective teachers tend to *begin* with a more traditional arrangement as they learn names and personalities and as they administer initial diagnostic assessments; *thereafter*, they change the arrangement to support instructional purposes (e.g., desks touching for group work, students sitting in a large circle for whole group discussions). The key ideas are that (1) there is a place for each student to sit, (2) each student's seat placement allows that student to see the teacher, board, and any instructional displays (e.g., screen, poster), (3) each student's seat placement controls for potential distractions (e.g., desks are not facing windows overlooking the playground or ball field), (4) there is enough space for the teacher to walk at the side, front, or back of each student, and (5) students with special needs are seated in a way that is optimal for addressing their needs.

Before students arrive, teachers can sit in each student's seat for a few seconds, checking for visual access

and potential distractors. Teachers can also walk among all desks and/or tables to determine the hip width space needed to pass easily among students. Regarding room decoration, teachers can create bulletin boards and/or posters that relate to the school, to upcoming academic topics, and to the students themselves, all to help create an atmosphere of positive anticipation. A word of caution: a barrage of visual stimuli may distract students. Also, some space should be reserved for display of future student work so as to communicate that student work is valued and that students have ownership in the classroom environment.

Initial Student Arrangement

Elementary teachers typically have a nametag of some sort identifying the desk where each student is to sit for the first day or few days; secondary teachers tend to arrange each class of students in an alphabetical order for the first few days and change this later. Students then need to be introduced to the various parts of the classroom and their use, including where and how they are to place lunches, book bags, coats, and so on if students do not have a locker space for these items. This information alleviates student anxiety and ensures orderliness.

Communication of Room Expectations to Students

It is important to introduce the room to students, pointing out and explaining any specific uses of those classroom parts (e.g., where students may read independently, where pairs of students may conference). Also, clarifying what things are for students' use and what things are for the teacher's use (e.g., anything on the teacher's desk) can prevent problems later on.

Initial Communication With the Home

Too often, caregivers in the home are contacted by the school only when something has gone wrong. More effective teachers reach out to parents and guardians in a positive way on or before the first week of school; some make this initial communication with a phone call, others with a letter, and still others through email. This first contact establishes a bond of mutual interest in the success of the student, and if the teacher must later contact a parent or guardian during the school year to address a concern or problem, he or she will likely be more receptive and supportive and the conversation will likely go better.

This initial communication typically includes one or more ways for the parent/guardian to contact the

teacher and the expected time of response for the teacher's reply. Also, with letter and email contact, the inclusion of a brief sentence stem survey can provide a way for parents or guardians to communicate information about their child (e.g., areas of strength, areas of need, special interests, health issues, out-of-school responsibilities). This valuable, up-front information can guide a teacher in understanding and working with a student and gain an ally in the home of a student.

Development and Teaching of Class Rules and Procedures

At the beginning of the year, students wonder how they are to *do school* successfully, and their success depends on the teacher making visible the rules and procedures of the classroom, teaching students in ways they can understand and appreciate, and reinforcing them in ways that ensure compliance while maintaining a positive classroom climate. Carolyn M. Evertson's widely cited comparisons of classrooms at both elementary and secondary levels indicate a 50% reduction in off-task rates in classrooms where rules and procedures are taught in the first days of school. Also, there is a positive correlation with students' academic achievement.

Class rules, class procedures, and classroom goals for students (e.g., bringing a positive attitude to class) are *not* synonymous. The following discussion provides a way to keep the distinctions clear—so as to better ensure thoughtful and fair classroom management.

Classroom Rules

Rules are the have-to's of the classroom, stated as five to eight general behavioral expectations that address relationships with others, time, space, and materials (e.g., *Talk at appropriate times and use appropriate voice and language*). At upper secondary levels, some teachers choose to refer to class rules as class policies.

Class rules should be easily observed; stated simply, positively, and behaviorally; physically doable; and always true. If a student fails to follow a rule (assuming that the student *understands how* to follow that rule), a negative consequence should follow. Consequences should be known beforehand, delivered in a calm manner, and never used as threats or to demean students.

Teachers repeatedly report that involving students in developing and/or defining classroom rules (*What should our class rules include and why? What will this rule look, sound, and feel like in our classroom?*) results in those rules being followed more often and in students holding one another accountable. Once rules are identified or constructed, role play has proven to be

an effective venue for teaching the rules. Having students demonstrate the application of a rule in specific situations in front of an audience of their peers clarifies student understanding. A word of caution: To avoid inviting unwanted silliness or inappropriate behavior, examples of a rule not being applied (followed) should be role-played by the teacher, not a student, with a discussion following of what happened and why it was inappropriate.

Classroom Procedures

Procedures are the how-to's of the classroom, addressing situation-specific ways to get things done (e.g., *Place finished papers in the yellow tray as you leave the class*). Procedures are demonstrated, explained, and practiced. If a student fails to follow a procedure, the proper response is to reteach the procedure—not punish. Students rightly experience teachers as being unfair when teachers treat not following procedures in the same way as violating classroom rules about safety, harm, and matters of treating others with care.

Procedures change with changes in situation. In any effective class, there are probably over 100 procedures in place. In starting the school year, the teacher must identify those key procedures needed first and then teach those first. Others that come later in the year can be taught later and as they are needed. Some initial procedures that are needed include a class opening routine, getting a turn, submitting academic work, responding to a zero-noise signal, going to lunch, and a class closing routine.

Teaching a procedure should follow the same lesson outline as teaching any academic content, beginning with *explaining* and continuing through *demonstrating*, *practicing*, and giving *feedback*. At the beginning of the year, a key piece in the initial explanation of each procedure is a solid rationale from the student's point of view for why a given procedure is worth following.

Just as with classroom rules, procedures can be demonstrated through role play. Graphic organizers are also helpful in keeping students on track with the classroom procedures. When done well, procedures can and should help students follow the rules of the classroom.

Student Perceptions of Teachers as Related to Rules and Procedures

Building relationships with students through the mutual orchestration of rules and procedures in the beginning of the school year can significantly improve the perception students have of a teacher, which in turn influences teacher–student relationships throughout the year. More effective teachers are aware of the demeanor with which

they establish the structure of the classroom, and they use the beginning-of-the-year development and teaching of rules and procedures—and their continued consistency in adhering to them—as a way to establish a perception of themselves as a teacher with expectations that are reasonable and fair.

Targeted Development of Classroom Community

When students feel they are a part of a socially, physically, and emotionally safe community within the classroom, academic objectives are more easily realized. Thus, effective teachers actively pursue community building as a part of their teaching on the first day.

Meeting Student Belongingness Needs

Among the seven universal human needs in psychologist Abraham Maslow's well-known hierarchy of needs is *belongingness*. In the classroom, this can be translated into students' needs to (1) feel they belong, (2) feel they make meaningful contributions, (3) have their physiological and emotional safety needs met, and (4) have opportunities to work in positive ways with others. In the first days of school, teachers begin to develop this community building and meeting of students' needs by calling students by name, making frequent normal eye contact with them, equitably and randomly distributing opportunities to participate, accepting student brainstorming responses without criticism, clearly communicating that mistakes are *things we learn from* and not causes for embarrassment or shame, and providing structured sharing times.

Initial Student Interactions

A key to initial positive student–student interactions is providing students a way to learn one another's names and a little something about one another. Some teachers have students work in randomly assigned pairs to *share favorites* (e.g., ice cream flavor, movie, free-time activity) or to introduce one another to the class after engaging in a structured two-way interview. Such paired activities ensure every student is involved, as it is hard to be left out of a pair.

Some upper elementary and secondary teachers use a whole-class icebreaker such as *truth-truth-lie* or a *class member scavenger hunt*. In truth-truth-lie, each class member shares three statements about himself or herself—two true and one false—and the class then tries to identify which is true or false about each class member. In a scavenger hunt, students complete a brief questionnaire on their interests and experiences, and from this

A CHECKLIST TO GUIDE THE BEGINNING OF A SCHOOL YEAR

The room

- 1. is arranged so the teacher can make eye contact with and easily access all students.
- 2. is arranged so well that students can see boards/screens with any needed information.
- 3. is introduced to students with explanations of areas/things that are/are not available for student use.

The teacher

- 4. welcomes students at the door.
- 5. introduces himself/herself as a teacher and a person.
- 6. provides a way for students to begin to know one another.
- 7. involves students in some way in the teaching of class rules—in development and/or clarification/explanation.
- 8. identifies and teaches key procedures (e.g., class opening, class closing, going to lunch, zero-noise signal), including rehearsals of the procedures.
- 9. provides information on expected academic standards and grading policies.
- 10. makes visible specific things students can do that will lead to academic success and provides students with a way to self-monitor their engagement in these things (e.g., come to class, submit work on time, ask questions when something is unclear).
- 11. provides initial academic activities that ensure each student experiences initial success.
- 12. establishes an emotionally safe climate for students.
- 13. says and/or does things that foster a sense of community within the classroom.
- 14. provides initial positive communication with parents/guardians, including ways and times of contact.

information the teacher creates a separate questionnaire for students to see how many classmates they can identify.

Initial Academic Work

A positive academic experience for students in the first few days of school is critical to their achievement motivation and goals over the course of the year, as their success or lack thereof sets up their expectations for the remainder of the year. Some teachers choose the first academic assignment as one in which students earn full credit for completion rather than content (e.g., description of a summer activity, a set of sentence stems to be completed about experiences and interests, or a timeline of significant subject area milestone thus far).

Setting the Stage for Success

Whether in kindergarten or college, students are concerned that they will be able to pass. While the

majority of time in the beginning of the school year should be devoted to nonacademic tasks, teachers should make visible to students how they can be academically successful in the coming year. This fosters in students a sense that they have control over whether they are successful or not. When students attribute their success or lack thereof to factors they believe outside of their control, they give up. Self-checklists of specific things a student can do to achieve success (e.g., I come to class; I ask questions when I do not understand; I complete my work and turn it in) provided a few days into the school year help students recognize the link between their efforts and academic success.

An effective academic accountability system for students requires attention to beginning-of-the-year design and throughout-the-year maintenance, and the design piece should be in place from day one. This includes posting assignments daily in the same place; clarifying the *how*, *what*, and *when* of each assignment; and teaching procedures for submitting completed work.

Communicating Positive Expectations for Academic Work

In the first few days of school, an emphasis on the teacher's belief that all students can succeed and practical demonstrations of how they may do so point students toward academic success. To relieve student anxiety regarding academic achievement, effective teachers are careful not to scare students by telling them how hard they will have to work but by telling them how easy the year will be. At the beginning of the year, effective teachers lead students to believe that combining their ability to learn with good study practices both in and outside of the classroom will lead to success.

Conclusion

A successful school year for both students and teacher is directly linked with the first few days of school. And these first few days show clearly that classroom management is just as much, if not more, about teacher actions as it is about student behaviors. Given the current state of academic accountability, it may be tempting for teachers to jump immediately into content instruction as the school year begins. Time is precious, and teachers may think that time dedicated to classroom management in the first few days of school is not time well spent. However, effective teachers know that investment in classroom management from day one will pay dividends throughout the school year. Students will be more engaged; time on task and academic achievement will increase; and classroom environment will be one of success and comfort for all.

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See also Classroom Organization and Management Program; Climate: School and Classroom; Expectations: Teacher Expectations of Students; Organization of Classrooms: Space; Organization of Classrooms: Time; Reminders; Routines; Spaces for Young Children; Transitions, Managing; Welcoming Greetings at the Beginning of the School Year

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BEHAVIOR DISORDERS

In the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), emotional disturbance is one of 13 disability categories that are afforded protection under U.S. federal law for a free and appropriate public education. In this entry, the authors reference emotional disturbance as behavior disorders (BD) and provide descriptions of (1) definition and characteristics, (2) guiding principles, (3) best practices, and (4) educational considerations.

Definition

From a classroom and school perspective, most students have the self-management and social skills to navigate their classroom and school environments. However, some students have difficulty managing their own behaviors, establishing meaningful relationships with peers and/or adults, and/or effectively responding within the expectations of the classroom and school discipline systems. Between 2% and 7% of school-age students might be determined to have a behavior disability and need specially designed, individualized educational and behavioral supports. If this condition is a major hindrance to their academic success, these students may qualify for special education services by virtue of having emotional disturbance.

In IDEA (Code of Federal Regulations, Title 34, §300.8(c)(4)), (4)(i), emotional disturbance (ED) is defined as a condition exhibiting one or more of the following characteristics over a long period of time and to a marked degree that adversely affects a child's educational performance:

(A) An inability to learn that cannot be explained by intellectual, sensory, or health factors.

(B) An inability to build or maintain satisfactory interpersonal relationships with peers and teachers.

(C) Inappropriate types of behavior or feelings under normal circumstances.

(D) A general pervasive mood of unhappiness or depression.

(E) A tendency to develop physical symptoms or fears associated with personal or school problems.

(ii) Emotional disturbance includes schizophrenia. The term does not apply to children who are socially maladjusted, unless it is determined that they have an emotional disturbance under paragraph (c)(4)(i) of this section.

Students with BD can display a range of problematic verbal and/or physical behaviors that are described by peers and/or adults as (1) aggressive, (2) noncompliant or insubordinate, (3) withdrawn or unresponsive, (4) easily excited or emotional, (5) poor self-managers, (6) difficult to understand, (7) self-injurious and/or stereotypical, (8) disengaged or detached, (9) noncommunicative, (10) inattentive, and/or (11) depressed or anxious. These behaviors are observed or noted over a variety of settings or conditions and with relatively high frequency and/or intensity. With respect to special education, “over a long period of time to a marked degree that adversely affects a child’s educational performance” become important characteristics for making a special education designation.

Best Practices

A wide range of interventions and practices is available to support students with BD, including psychopharmacological, behavior analytic, psychoeducational, school-based mental health, neuropsychological, and cognitive-behavioral interventions. Regardless of the specific intervention or practice, a cognitive-behavior analytic and/or psychopharmacological approach is generally recommended where the emphases are on (1) reducing the impact of risk factors (make BD more likely), (2) increasing the influence of protective factors (make BD less likely), and (3) teaching and strengthening the behavioral skills that are required for academic and social success.

In the context of classrooms and schools, a best practices approach includes the following:

1. Regularly (monthly/quarterly) screen all students to identify those who might be at risk of BD.

2. Develop processes that enable comprehensive, student-centered, strength-based behavior intervention planning and monitoring (student support planning, wraparound, interconnected behavior, and systems of care).

3. Conduct a complete assessment that considers physical health, neurological status, academic competence, medical conditions, behavior assets and needs, and family history and situation.

4. Conduct functional behavioral assessments to determine (a) the setting, antecedent, and consequence conditions under which problem behaviors are more or less likely to be observed; (b) the function or purpose of problem behavior; and (c) the features of an aligned behavior intervention plan.

5. Develop individual intervention behavior plans that are based on information collected through general assessment and functional behavioral assessments and that emphasize teaching prosocial behavior that serves the same function as problem behavior and altering the environment to increase the likelihood the student uses the prosocial behavior (e.g., high rates of teacher attention for taught prosocial behavior if problem behavior is maintained by teacher attention).

6. Develop procedures for assessing fluency and accuracy of intervention implementation (fidelity or implementation integrity).

7. Monitor continuously (daily, weekly) student responsiveness to implementation of behavior intervention plans.

8. Use progress monitoring data to make adaptations in intervention features and implementation when necessary or move to new phase of learning (e.g., maintenance or generalization) if the student meets long-term objectives.

Within this best practices approach, general recommended interventions in addition to individually developed behavior intervention plans include (1) targeted and general social skills instruction, (2) academic remediation and supports, (3) active supervision and behavior monitoring, (4) behavioral contracting, (5) self-management training, (6) problem-solving instruction, (7) small and large group contingency management, (8) peer-based mentoring, (9) career and college readiness, (10) positive reinforcement (including differential reinforcement), (11) relaxation and stress management strategies, and (12) anger management. In addition, interventions may include family (siblings and parents)

and peer supports. What is distinctive about these interventions is that they are individualized, high intensity, and assessment- and evidence-based.

Guiding Principles

Because students with BD display behaviors that require specialized interventions that are implemented with high fidelity by teachers and specialists with behavior expertise, a number of practical principles should be considered to guide implementation.

1. Invest in a multitiered framework so (a) all students are supported with classwide and schoolwide preventive behavior supports, (b) students with BD can be easily identified, and (c) interventions can be appropriately individualized. Multitiered systems of support include universal best practices for all students, small group–delivered supports, and intensive, highly individualized function–based behavior intervention plans.

2. Consider culture, local context, and individual learning histories of students, families, and staff and community members when educating all students, especially students with BD.

3. Work from a multidisciplinary approach so the needs of the whole class are considered: academic, behavioral, cognitive, social, familial, career, mental health, and so on.

4. Give priority to the identification, selection, individualized adaptation, and implementation of research-based behavioral interventions.

5. Use student responsiveness as the basis for assessing student progress with specific interventions across a variety of settings and individuals. In other words, (1) intervention adaptations or modifications are made when student progress is low but promising, (2) interventions are eliminated and replaced when little to no student progress is indicated, and (3) modified or new interventions are considered if adequate or successful student progress is achieved.

6. Arrange supports and resources so that local behavior implementation capacity is established rather than exclusively relying on external experts to identify and recommend interventions.

7. Evaluate and support implementation of research-based interventions using *phases of implementation* logic. Educators should start with an *exploration* of what interventions are appropriate for students and context, followed by a *trial initial installation*. If adequate progress and/or desired outcomes are observed, educators then move to *full implementation* with all students as well as develop plans for *sustained implementation*.

8. Provide continuous professional development for implementing staff (boosters) and new staff (initial training) that includes coaching or facilitation supports and continuous evaluation.

Conclusion

Students with BD constitute a challenge to educators because they require continuous, high-intensity, individualized, and specialized academic and behavior supports. In addition, the schoolwide and classroom contexts in which these supports are provided must be high-quality teaching and learning environments for all students. The impact of evidence-based practices is also enhanced with early universal screening and identification, continuous progress monitoring, a response-to-intervention approach, attention to implementation fidelity, and systemic support for teachers and other implementation staff.

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See also Behavior Support Plans; Conduct Disorder; Council for Children With Behavioral Disorders; Diagnostic and Statistical Manual (DSM); Individualized Education Programs; Medication for Emotional and Behavioral Problems; Oppositional Defiant Disorder; Preventing Antisocial Behavior at the Point of School Entry

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BEHAVIOR SUPPORT PLANS

The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) of 2004 mandates that school personnel design a behavior support plan (BSP) for any student with a disability who exhibits challenging behavior that impedes his or her academic performance. This plan is designed after conducting a functional behavioral assessment (FBA) to determine the function of the challenging behavior.

The BSP signifies the culmination of the FBA process and is the individualized education program (IEP) team's plan that outlines the specific steps to be used to promote the student's appropriate/adaptive behavior. To be most effective, BSPs should (1) address the function of the challenging behavior, determined through the FBA, (2) be both carefully developed and clearly written without technical jargon, (3) include the values of the student and family, (4) identify any prerequisites needed for implementation, and (5) contain procedures that are both practical and easy to remember. The following sections describe the necessary components of a BSP and explain how the plan is designed and implemented.

Components of a BSP

BSPs contain six critical components. First, *hypothesis statements* are statements based on the results of the FBA that include a description of setting events (i.e., events that could potentially increase the likelihood of challenging behavior occurring, such as lack of sleep or hunger), triggering antecedents for the challenging behavior, the challenging behavior itself, maintaining consequences, and the function of the challenging behavior. Second, *antecedent strategies* are strategies used to prevent the student from exhibiting the challenging behavior. These may include arranging the

environment, changing activities, or providing the reinforcer before the student needs to exhibit inappropriate behavior (e.g., teacher provides attention to the student before math instruction begins because this is when the student usually exhibits the challenging behavior to get the teacher's attention). Third, *replacement behaviors* are functionally equivalent behaviors that are taught to the student to replace the challenging behavior. Fourth, *consequence strategies* are strategies school professionals use to respond effectively to the challenging behavior. Fifth, *long-term supports* are strategies that will ensure continued success of the plan. Sixth, the plan needs to include a *crisis plan*. This component of the plan includes procedures to implement in case the student exhibits dangerous behavior.

Hypothesis Statements

Hypothesis statements summarize what is known from the FBA about setting events, antecedents, behaviors, and maintaining consequences. They provide a determination about the function of the challenging behavior. These statements include a description of setting events, the student's challenging behavior, information about antecedents (events that occurred before the student exhibited the behavior), the proposed function of the student's behavior, and the consequences that followed the behavior. Once the IEP team identifies a hypothesis, the focus should be on the way the hypothesis statement is written. The statement should be written to include the description, antecedents, function, and maintaining consequences.

Antecedent Strategies

Antecedent strategies include modifications made to an environment to prevent challenging behavior from occurring. For example, if a student has difficulty transitioning from one activity to another, an antecedent strategy might be to signal the approaching change to the student using a bell or providing a visual schedule.

Preventing challenging behavior from occurring can include strategies such as changing the physical setting of an environment (e.g., seating arrangement), decreasing demands by adapting tasks or routines (e.g., shortening an assignment), increasing predictability (e.g., bell to signal when an activity is about to change), and providing choices to the student (e.g., choice of activity after work is completed). These strategies alone will usually not eliminate challenging behavior but are often used in conjunction with teaching replacement behaviors.

Replacement Behaviors

Challenging behavior serves a function for an individual. Determining the behavioral function is the goal of the

FBA process. Once the function of a behavior is identified (e.g., attention, escape, tangible or automatic reinforcement), an appropriate way to achieve the same behavioral goal should be identified and taught to the student.

A replacement behavior should be chosen that will be easy for the student to learn or is already in his or her repertoire. Therefore, the team should look at modes of communication that the student already uses to communicate and that are socially appropriate. For example, a student who uses sign language to communicate might be taught a sign for *Finished* or *Break* to appropriately escape an activity. What the team should not do is pick a replacement behavior (e.g., raise hand and verbally ask for a break) if it is unlikely that the student can quickly learn the behavior.

When selecting replacement behaviors, the more efficient and effective the replacement behavior, the more likely the student will use it instead of the challenging behavior. This new behavior should produce an immediate reinforcer as close to or the same as the reinforcer produced by the challenging behavior, thus making the student's challenging behavior less effective. For example, if the student currently throws her book to gain teacher attention, she must have an alternative and appropriate way to gain teacher attention (e.g., raise hand).

Two other important considerations when teaching replacement behaviors are the efficiency of the replacement behavior and the degree to which the replacement behavior produces greater reinforcement for the student. If the use of the challenging behavior quickly produces the reinforcer, the replacement behavior must produce the same reinforcer even more efficiently. The replacement behavior must require less response effort and should be easily understood by others. In addition, reinforcers for exhibiting the more appropriate behavior should be far greater than that which the student receives for exhibiting the challenging behavior. When this is achieved, the replacement behavior will be used more often and will be more motivating for the student to use, rather than the challenging behaviors that previously produced the reinforcer.

On some occasions, the function of behavior cannot be honored, as when a student attempts to leave the school building during a tornado drill. When the function of behavior cannot be honored, the BSP may include alternative or incompatible behaviors. For example, the plan for a student who attempts to leave the school building during a tornado drill could include strategies for teaching the student to bring an item of interest to keep him occupied while sitting in the hallway.

Consequence Strategies

Consequence strategies are responses to behavior by school personnel when the student engages in challenging

behavior. Correct responses based on the function of behavior will make the challenging behavior ineffective and less useful. Furthermore, reinforcers provided to the student for appropriate behavior will be either equal to or have greater value than challenging behavior. Providing effective consequence strategies is accomplished in two different ways. First, reinforcement is provided only for the use of socially appropriate replacement behaviors. Second, reinforcement is withheld to ensure that the challenging behavior is ineffective for the student (i.e., extinction). A common strategy is to redirect the student to use the replacement behavior and then provide reinforcement. Thus, the student still gets the reinforcer and has a reminder that the replacement skill is the behavior to use to get the reinforcer.

Long-Term Supports

Long-term supports ensure the continued success of the BSP and consider lifestyle that could be improved for a better quality of life for the student. Another focus in planning long-term supports is what is needed to maintain and generalize positive student outcomes in all settings. For example, maintenance and generalization of appropriate behavior can be achieved by teaching peers and other school professionals not involved in the design of the student's communication system. Other examples include reinforcing the student's use of appropriate behavior over time and across settings and with other people.

Crisis Plan

Whenever a team works together to help support a student who engages in challenging behavior, the team should always focus on the safety of that student, other students, and school personnel. This is of particular concern with students who have a history of challenging behavior that potentially places either the student or another person in danger. Typically, school personnel who work with students who exhibit dangerous behaviors are trained by their school districts on crisis management procedures.

If a student has a history of dangerous behavior, procedures should be developed and included in the BSP. These procedures provide a script for what adults will do when the student engages in behavior that is potentially dangerous. Crisis management is not a form of intervention but a way to keep order and safety. It is important that any crisis plan has the approval of parents and school authorities. The plan should include three main stages. First, the *precrisis* stage includes strategies to diffuse and/or prevent the behavior (e.g., redirect, distract). Second, the *crisis* stage focuses

on protecting the student or others from the dangerous behavior (e.g., move people or materials out of the way). It is never a good idea to attempt to teach the student during the crisis stage. Finally, the *postcrisis* stage involves teaching the appropriate behavior to the student and often includes a reflective component.

Plan Design and Implementation

The purpose of the BSP is to provide school personnel with an inclusive set of strategies focused on decreasing occurrences of challenging behavior and increasing appropriate behavior. BSPs are designed by analyzing the student's challenging behavior in various situations (i.e., FBA data).

It is important that the entire team be involved in the design of the BSP. If team members assist in the design of the plan, they are far more likely to be invested in its implementation and resulting success.

There are two major steps in designing the plan. First, the team develops the hypothesis statement, the desired appropriate behavior and consequence, and a new replacement behavior. Second, the team brainstorms potential interventions. It can be very helpful to the team to have someone with behavioral expertise facilitate the brainstorming meeting. This behavioral expert can provide examples of effective interventions that have been used to address similar functions of behavior and help determine replacement behaviors.

In addition, the most effective BSPs are ones that are based both on the results of the FBA and on the lifestyles, values, and skills of the student. The most effective BSPs are also likely to be written in a way that is easy to understand, to use, and to remember. More importantly, the most effective plans include both long- and short-term support strategies designed from knowledge of the student's lifestyle. Specifically, components must fit into the student's daily routines and the structure of the classroom. In addition, the plan needs to include data collection procedures, as well as scheduled meetings to review the data and make changes when necessary.

Once each of the BSP components has been designed and agreed upon by team members, the final step is to determine relevant steps to be taken to ensure the plan will be implemented with fidelity. The team articulates the people responsible for completing the steps, the anticipated completion date, and any additional actions to be taken in order to correctly implement the team's BSP. Once the plan is complete, the team is ready to begin implementation.

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See also Applied Behavior Analysis; Functional Behavioral Assessment; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports

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BEHAVIORAL APPROACHES, FOUNDATIONS OF

Effective behavioral interventions employ mostly positive strategies and procedures that *prevent* behavior problems. They differ from those that rely on aversive consequences to punish or otherwise deter problem behaviors. The main purpose of this entry is to describe the philosophical and empirical foundations of the behavioral approach to conceptualizing and delivering evidence-based interventions in schools. In addition, the entry describes the current status of school-based behavioral interventions and recommends best practices in this area.

Philosophical Foundations of Behavioral Interventions

The philosophical foundations of behavioral interventions can be traced to the nineteenth-century philosophical movement known as *positivism*. Positivism is a philosophy of science based on the notion that data derived from experience are the exclusive source of all authoritative knowledge. Data that can be received from the senses are known as *empirical evidence*. A variation of positivism are known as *logical positivism* or *logical empiricism* that combines empiricism (observational evidence) with *rationalism* (knowledge that is not derived from direct observation).

Behavioral approaches to human behavior have three levels of understanding: *description*, *prediction*, and *control*. Systematic observation of behavior assists in the understanding of a behavior by allowing the accurate description of that behavior. Description of behavior consists of a collection of facts about observed events that can be quantified or measured in some manner. Prediction of behavior represents a second level of understanding of directly observable behavior. If two events consistently covary with each other, one can use this systematic covariation to predict occurrence of

behavior. This systematic covariation or cooccurrence is also known as a *correlation* between two events (event A can be used to predict event B). For example, the occurrence of disruptive behavior in a classroom may result in teacher attention to that behavior, thereby establishing a correlation between disruptive behavior and teacher attention. Finally, the highest level of understanding in a positivistic approach is the control of behavior. The control of behavior is based on establishing a *functional relation* between two events. A functional relation is established when a specific change in one event can reliably be produced by specific manipulations of another event. For example, aggressive behavior in a classroom may systematically result in the removal of academic demands in the classroom. The primary difference between prediction and control is that the former is correlational (i.e., one cannot conclude cause and effect) and the latter is *causal* (i.e., one can conclude cause and effect).

Logical positivism is also based on three additional philosophical assumptions about science and the real world: determinism, empiricism, and experimentation. *Determinism* assumes that all events are based on a lawful and orderly sequence of events. Events in nature do not randomly occur. Rather, they result from systematic and, therefore, knowable occurrence of other events. In science, one assumes the lawfulness of an event and, in turn, seeks a lawful explanation of the causes of that event. *Empiricism* refers to the objective observation of events that can be quantified, that is, observation not clouded by subjective opinions, beliefs, or attitudes. An empirical approach to behavior demands objective, systematic, repeated observation of that behavior over time. *Experimentation* refers to the systematic manipulation of variables to observe their effect on a phenomenon of interest. Experimentation is the method for identifying and isolating a given variable so as to observe its effect on another variable (e.g., behavior).

Operant Versus Respondent Behavior

In a behavioral approach, two general categories of learning are used to study and change behavior. Operant learning occurs when behavior is strengthened or weakened by its consequences. This means that behavior *operates* on the environment. Early in the nineteenth century, psychologist Edward Thorndike formulated the *law of effect* that states that the strength of a behavior (i.e., its frequency) depends on the consequences the behavior has had in the past. Thorndike thus redirected attention away from inside the person to the external environment. Prior to Thorndike, learning was thought to result from reasoning or thinking.

In the 1930s, psychologist B. F. Skinner conducted a series of investigations that greatly advanced our

understanding of operant learning and behavior. Skinner designed an experimental chamber (which became known as a Skinner box) so that a food magazine automatically dropped pellets of food into a tray when a lever was pressed. The rats serving as subjects rapidly learned that when the lever was pressed, food would drop into the tray. Under these conditions, lever pressing dramatically and consistently increased.

In operant learning, there are five basic procedures: two strengthen behavior (positive and negative reinforcement) and three weaken behavior (positive punishment, negative punishment, and extinction). Reinforcement is the procedure of providing consequences for a behavior that increase or maintain the strength of that behavior. *Positive reinforcement* describes a situation in which a behavior is followed immediately by the presentation of a stimulus that increases the probability that the behavior will increase in frequency in the future. For example and as mentioned, lever pressing by rats in a Skinner box resulted in the dispensing of food pellets that led, in turn, to large increases in the frequency of lever pressing on future occasions.

Negative reinforcement describes a situation in which the withdrawal or termination of a stimulus results in the increased frequency of a behavior. Negative reinforcement is conceptualized by escape or avoidance contingencies. For example, if someone is sitting in a room during the winter and a window is open, letting in freezing air, this person is likely to get out of the chair and close the window, thereby terminating (escaping) the aversive stimulus of cold air. The best way of thinking about reinforcement is that it always increases behavior. The best way of thinking about the difference between positive and negative reinforcement is that positive reinforcement presents a stimulus and negative reinforcement removes a stimulus.

Punishment can be thought of as the polar opposite of reinforcement. When behavior is followed by a stimulus that decreases the future frequency of behavior, by definition, punishment has occurred. As in the case of reinforcement, there are two types of punishment: *positive punishment* and *negative punishment*. In positive punishment, a stimulus is *presented* contingent on a behavior that decreases the future probability of that behavior. For example, spanking a child for misbehavior may decrease the future occurrence of that behavior. Spanking in this case involved the presentation of a stimulus that resulted in a decrease in the future occurrence of that behavior.

In negative punishment, a stimulus is *removed* contingent on the occurrence of behavior that decreases the future probability of that behavior. For example, parking fines, late fees on bills, and speeding tickets often result in decreased parking violations, decreased

late payments, and decreases in speeding. One way of thinking about negative punishment is that it involves taking away a certain amount of a positive reinforcer (e.g., money in the above examples).

Extinction refers to a process in which reinforcement for a behavior is discontinued resulting in a decrease in that behavior. In extinction, reinforcers that maintain a behavior are withheld, leading to a decrease in a behavior. For example, if a child constantly interrupts a teacher in the classroom, and if the teacher ignores all interruptions and if attention was previously serving as a reinforcer, then interrupting behavior should decrease through the process of operant extinction. Extinction leads to more gradual decreases in behavior than punishment. Also, extinction often results in initial increases in behavior through a process known as *extinction burst*, a process that soon dissipates if it is not reinforced.

Respondent learning or conditioning deals with reflexes that are elicited by various types of stimuli. There are two types of stimuli: *unconditioned stimuli* (US) and *conditioned stimuli* (CS). A US is a stimulus that elicits a response without any learning having taken place. For example, without the animal having to learn, food will elicit salivation if the animal is hungry. Such untaught reflexes or responses are known as *unconditioned responses* (UR). A CS is a stimulus that is paired with the US and, as such, becomes associated with the US and over time will elicit response known as the *conditioned response* (CR). In this case, suppose we pair a food dish (CS) with food (US) and observe that the food dish alone will elicit salivation (CR). This pairing of the US with the CS to elicit UR and CR is known as Pavlovian or respondent conditioning. If we repeatedly present the CS without the US, the CS will gradually fail to elicit the CR. This is known as *respondent extinction*.

The fundamental difference between operant learning and respondent learning is the relationship between stimuli and responses. In operant learning, a stimulus is presented (the discriminative stimulus) prior to a response. It signals that the response will be reinforced. A reinforcing stimulus is then presented after the response that increases the frequency or strength of that response. In respondent learning, an unconditioned stimulus is paired with a conditioned stimulus, either simultaneously or after a slight delay, so that it elicits the conditioned and unconditioned response. In short, in operant learning, all learning takes place *after* the response, whereas in respondent learning, all learning takes place *before* the response.

Experimental Analysis of Behavior

The experimental analysis of behavior is the experimental branch of the field of behavior analysis that

originated with the publication of the book by B. F. Skinner titled *The Behavior of Organisms* in 1938. Skinner was interested in giving a scientific account of all behavior and focused exclusively on observable behavior and avoided exploring hypothetical, unobservable constructs. Skinner realized that respondent conditioning offered a limited account of behavior and thus expanded our understanding of learning by exploring operant learning. Skinner developed what he called the three-term contingency that consisted of a discriminative stimulus— S^D ; a response— R ; and a reinforcing stimulus— S^{R+} .

Using this paradigm, Skinner and his colleagues and students conducted literally thousands of experiments that showed the powerful effects of operant learning on behavior. These experiments were conducted in tightly controlled laboratory conditions and formed the basis of what we today know as *applied behavior analysis* (ABA).

Applied Behavior Analysis

The field of ABA seeks to use principles derived from the experimental analysis of behavior with animals in laboratory settings and apply them in naturalistic settings with humans. Beginning in the late 1950s and early 1960s, researchers applied these principles initially to persons with developmental disabilities and to preschool children. Much of the field of ABA can be traced back to the pioneering work of Ted Ayllon and Jack Michael who used operant principles to change the behavior of psychotic patients in a mental hospital. This early work influenced countless applied behavior analysts over the next 50 years.

Donald Baer, Montrose Wolf, and Todd Risley published an influential work in the *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis* in 1968 titled “Some Current Dimensions of Applied Behavior Analysis.” In this paper, these authors suggested that the field of ABA should be characterized as applied, behavioral, analytic, technological, conceptually systematic, effective, and capable of producing generalized outcomes. By *applied* the authors meant that ABA should seek to improve behaviors in people’s lives, behaviors that are socially significant and socially important. Thus, the focus of ABA should be on producing meaningful changes in social, educational, academic, linguistic, and daily living skills of individuals. By *behavioral* the authors meant that the behavior chosen for change should be one that is in need of improvement and that behavior must be directly measurable through direct observation. By *analytic* the authors meant that the behavior analyst must demonstrate a functional relation between a manipulated environmental event (e.g., positive reinforcement) and a reliable change in a behavior. By *technological* the authors meant that all of the procedures used to change behavior be identified and described with sufficient detail and clarity that they

could be replicated by others. By *conceptually systematic* the authors meant that the underlying basic principles of operant learning that account for behavior change (e.g., positive reinforcement, extinction, punishment) should be identified and described. By *effective* the authors meant that an ABA intervention should produce socially important, rather than trivial, changes in behavior. By *generality* the authors meant that an ABA should produce durable changes in behavior over time in environments other than the one that originally produced behavior change and in other behaviors not targeted for intervention.

Frank M. Gresham

See also Applied Behavior Analysis; Extinction; Functional Behavioral Assessment; Individualized Education Programs; Negative Reinforcement; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; Praise and Encouragement; Punishment; Reinforcement; Rewards and Punishments; Target Behaviors; Token Economies

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BEHAVIORAL ONLINE SCREENING FOR SCHOOL SETTINGS

For diverse sectors of our society, including legislators, policymakers, families, the business community, educational advocates, and the general public, schools have emerged as the great harbinger of hope for solving many of the social ills that disrupt our daily lives and threaten our future. While educators at all levels of the K–12 schooling system are under tremendous pressure to meet these lofty societal expectations, they struggle just to accommodate all students who enter today's schoolhouse door and to simply provide them with a basic education. As the K–12 student population has become more diverse linguistically, economically, and culturally, schools have faced increased burdens in meeting even the mandate to provide all students with a basic education—notwithstanding the continuing pressures on them to contribute substantively in solving societal problems beyond the confines of the school setting.

Their task is further complicated by the challenges of school reform initiatives, accountability pressures, declining fiscal support, and the failure of families to support and engage the schooling process on behalf of their children. And high-stakes testing results continue to disappoint on a broad scale.

Externalizing and Internalizing Maladaptive Student Behavior Patterns

One of the most intractable obstacles to achieving widely expected school outcomes is maladaptive student behavior of either an externalizing or internalizing nature that students bring with them to the schooling process. Externalizing problems are directed outwardly toward the external social environment (oppositional-defiant behavior, aggression, disruption), while internalizing problems (anxiety, stress, social avoidance, depression) are self-imposed or directed inwardly by the student. The great majority of the behavioral and emotional problems that challenge schools and impair students' school success can be grouped using these two categories.

Externalizing problems are more common in school settings and have greater salience for teachers, while internalizing problems are less frequent and generally have a less noticeable impact on school or classroom ecology. However, both problem types can have serious impacts upon students' academic performance, behavioral adjustment, and social-emotional functioning.

Externalizing students often display low achievement levels that are maintained by their acting-out behavior problems. They typically place strong pressures upon the teacher's ability to teach and manage the classroom environment effectively—which accounts for the fact that they are more likely than internalizing students to be referred for evaluation, intervention access, supports and services, and specialized placements. However, more and more, internalizing students are receiving greater attention and there is increased recognition of the challenges internalizing students confront in school not only in their academic performance, due to stress, anxiety, or depression, but also in their peer relations as manifested in social isolation and as being victims of bullying and peer harassment.

Even with increased recognition of the problems and challenges faced and produced by externalizing and internalizing students, less than 1% of the total K–12 student population is referred, evaluated, and actually certified on an annual basis for specialized school-based services. This figure is astonishingly low given that numerous experts in school mental health estimate that upward of 20% of the K–12 student population are at risk and suffer from behavior and social-emotional problems that qualify as a diagnosable mental disorder.

In the past two decades, excellent evidence-based interventions have emerged that provide answers to the needs of the most challenged and challenging portion of the K–12 student population. But in most school districts, students have been able to access these interventions only through referral by general education teachers. This traditional practice of accessing student intervention services primarily via teacher referral has fallen far short of meeting the needs of these students. Further, the gap between the sheer numbers of students requiring needed intervention services versus those who actually receive them is in the hundreds of thousands.

However, in the past decade or so, exciting innovations in the area of universal behavioral screening and the accompanying use of technology have dramatically altered this landscape. These innovations and the changes they have produced have been driven by such factors as (1) an overall decline in school resources, (2) pressures to limit special education referrals and to deliver student services in general education contexts, (3) failure of the referral process to solve the problem(s) that prompts it, (4) the emergence of a prevention initiative in schools achieved through early intervention, and (5) the broad adoption by school districts of Schoolwide Positive Behavior Support systems. Now it is possible for school staff to accurately document the number of students needing services, to deliver evidence-based practices to them within general education contexts, and to track their progress within and across school years.

Universal Online Behavioral Screening

Although the problems outlined above may appear overwhelming, there is hope now that those problems may be better addressed using new developments in behavioral screening. The most important new development has been that of universal screening for maladaptive behavior patterns—screening that gives each student in a classroom an equal chance to be identified for problematic behavior needing attention. Due to the push for universal screening for maladaptive behavior patterns, school-based professionals can now implement highly efficient and very accurate universal screening approaches using multiple-gating screening methods. Multiple gating refers to the use of a series of screening gates consisting, for example, of teacher nominations, ratings, and direct behavioral observations. Screened students must pass each screening gate in order to qualify for specialized services and supports. This multiple-gating system makes it possible to screen an entire elementary school in approximately an hour to an hour and a half.

An example of a multiple-gating universal screening system is illustrated in Figure 1.

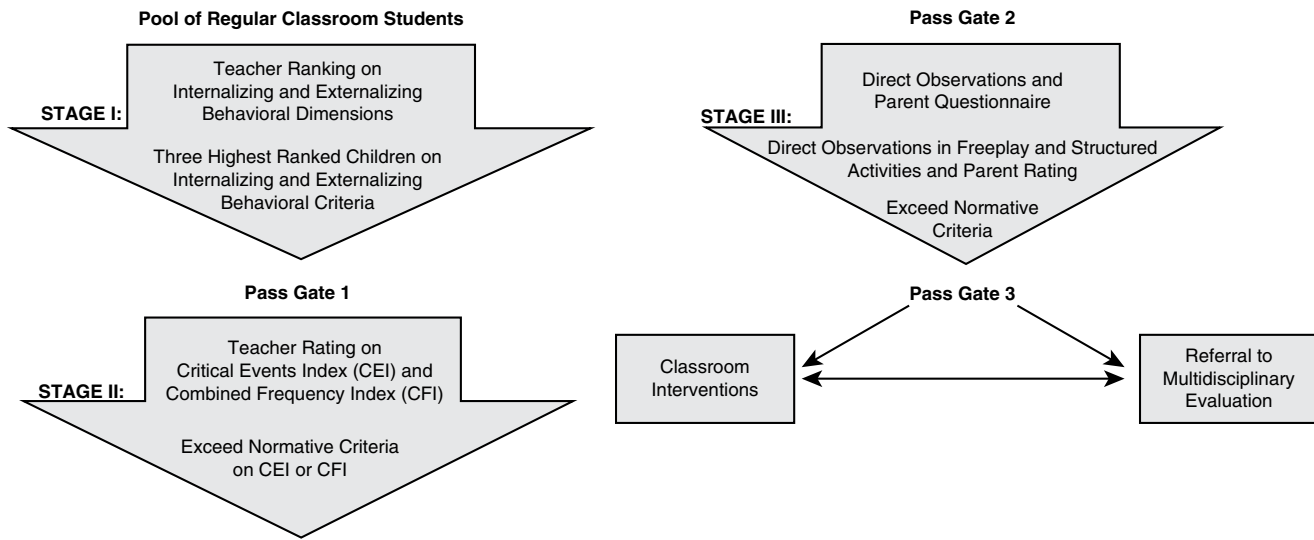
Universal screening has recently taken a step further with the development of online screening. Online screening allows teachers to assess students for maladaptive behavior patterns electronically. It does so with user-friendly technology and reporting formats that significantly improve the practice of universal screening in schools and that will dramatically impact screening practices over the next decade.

For example, there is now an online web version of the widely used Systematic Screening for Behavior Disorders (SSBD). Since its initial publication in 1990, the SSBD, regarded as the gold standard of behavioral screening and early identification for behaviorally at-risk students, has enabled early intervention and ultimately bolstered school success and social-emotional adjustment. The Web version of the SSBD will substantially enhance its ease and efficiency of use. It meets the urgent need in public schools for a behavioral screener that is easy to administrator, automatically creates score profiles for screened students, and identifies those students who need further evaluation and possibly access to specialized supports and services.

The Web version has the following new features: (1) includes the new Mobile Behavior Observation Tool (M-BOT), (2) expands the SSBD normative database for externalizing and internalizing behavior disorders, (3) leverages multiple source data for intervention planning and progress monitoring purposes, and (4) provides new opportunities to promote SSBD dissemination and additional school applications.

Mobile Behavior Observation Tool

The M-BOT is a new and innovative feature of the SSBD in that it provides downloadable software for use in the recording and uploading of the SSBD's coding systems as used in the third stage of SSBD screening. These coding systems are the Academic Engaged Time (AET) code and the Peer Social Behavior (PSB) code. The AET records academic engagement in the classroom and the PSB records the quality, level, and distribution of social behavior on the playground. Both coding systems have been positively evaluated in terms of their psychometric characteristics and behavioral content in reviews of existing observation codes as reported in the professional literature. The AET and PSB coding systems are normed on a national sample of 1,300 cases. The M-BOT's ease of use is expected to allow expansion of this database and will provide the additional advantages of automatic scoring and uploading of student coding profiles along with appropriate normative comparisons.

Figure 1 Multiple-Gating Process Used in the Systematic Screening of Behavior Disorders

Source: Adapted from Feil, E., Severson, H., and Walker, H. (1994). Early screening project: Identifying preschool children with adjustment problems. *The Oregon Conference Monograph*, 6, 102–120.

Expanding the SSBD Normative Database for Externalizing and Internalizing Behavior Disorders

The SSBD was originally normed on a national sample of 4,400 cases for screening stages 1 and 2. In the recently completed second edition of the SSBD, through the collection and aggregation of SSBD user and research databases representing five regions of the United States, the database was expanded to over 11,000 cases. As the Web version is adopted and used in school district sites, it should lead to further expansion of the database. Expanding the database will allow for the development of regional, state, and local SSBD normative criteria.

Leveraging Multiple Source Data for Intervention Planning and Progress Monitoring

Implementing the SSBD will allow for the development of hypotheses about the likely causes of an identified student's behavior problems and for planning intervention strategies and tactics that provide a better match between identified student needs and

available specialized services and supports. These developments may also be useful in forging an improved program environment fit, one that results in better overall student outcomes. In terms of progress monitoring, the sensitivity of the AET and PSB codes, when combined with the M-BOT recording procedure, will enable assessments to determine whether an intervention should be continued, revised, or terminated in favor of an alternative option.

Providing New Opportunities for SSBD Dissemination and Additional School Applications

The SSBD is an innovative response to the need for universal screening and progress monitoring. The online version enables cost-efficient screening and progress monitoring. In the past two decades, the adoption of the Schoolwide Positive Behavior Support system has created a huge surge in the demand for such screening and progress monitoring, and the SSBD has been a valuable resource in responding to it. Recent research has greatly expanded the SSBD's application as a best and innovative practice at a school level in accommodating the EBD student population. The Web version of the SSBD will likely

accelerate this important work by improving accessibility and usability of the tool.

Concluding Remarks

The old system of relying on teacher referrals alone no longer suffices to serve the rising number of students with maladaptive behavior patterns. Valid and efficient universal screening is now essential for these students to get the services they need and to ensure that the services are working. The SSBD marked a step forward in providing a way to meet the need for universal screening, and now the online version provides an easy-to-use system that is highly compatible with the core values of school personnel. One of its major benefits is that it will likely encourage the adoption of universal screening practices on a wider basis by educators, thereby allowing more at-risk students to access much needed supports, services, and interventions.

Hill M. Walker and Herbert Severson

See also Preventing Antisocial Behavior at the Point of School Entry; Screening and Classroom Management; Universal Screening; Whole-Class Measurement of Disruptive Behavior

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BEHAVIORAL SUPPORTS FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION CLASSROOMS

Creating an effective classroom environment for secondary education classrooms is as essential to student success as it is for primary education classrooms. Furthermore, many of the behavioral supports that apply to primary education classrooms apply also to secondary education classrooms—though the supports may take on a different appearance to accommodate adolescent populations. Here, the focus is on a behavioral approach that identifies several core supports of classroom management for middle school and high school students—supports that also apply to primary education classrooms but that take on new meaning in the older grades. From a behavioral perspective, classroom settings that engage students successfully typically offer the following from teachers:

- assessing the purpose of student behavior
- teaching desired behavior expectations
- acknowledging appropriate behaviors
- having a continuum of responses to inappropriate behavior

Assessing the Purpose of Behavior

By the time students reach middle school, they have experienced a number of successes and failures. Among these experiences include social and academic interactions with adults and students. These interactions have shaped their current behavior patterns. Many students who have experienced early academic or social problems have developed responses that work for them in their current settings. For example, some students who cannot read have learned to escape or avoid instructional settings that would highlight their deficits by

engaging in problem behavior. Others have learned that although they may lack social skills to develop meaningful relationships they have a range of behaviors that work effectively to get access to objects (e.g., stealing) or attention (good or bad) from others. Finally, some students are at times over- or understimulated. This could be due to problems they experience on the way to school (e.g., fear of being bullied, fear of gangs) or lack of connection with the classroom content or teaching method.

Effective secondary classroom teachers usually are reflective about their students' behavior. They ask the right questions before looking for the correct intervention. For example, teachers should consider when and under what conditions students engage in appropriate or inappropriate behaviors. Also, they should consider whether the problem is that the student cannot do—or will not do—the desired behavior. The response to these questions would mean different interventions. A quick test is the Coke test. If a student will not complete a task in class, a teacher can ask the student to complete the task one-on-one with the reward of obtaining a Coke (or any preferred object). If the student can do the task, then the problem behavior is more likely a *won't do* problem. Conversely, if the student still does not complete the task when offered a reward, then the problem is more likely a *can't do* problem. Teacher responses to students who engage in *won't do* behaviors (e.g., attention-related, access to preferred activities) could include providing noncontingent attention to the student (e.g., finding 2 minutes to just connect, personal greetings at the door upon entry). For students who *can't do* the activity, teachers should consider modifying the curriculum through interspersing tasks (e.g., easy, hard) or incorporating preferred activities. Many of these strategies can be built directly into classwide instruction through universally designed, function-based teaching.

Teaching Expected Behaviors

The importance of teaching expected behaviors in middle school and high school settings is often a difficult point to get across to instructors. Many teachers expect that students should be aware of social norms and that teaching social norms is too elementary. A related concern is that some secondary teachers do not feel prepared to address social, emotional, or behavioral issues within their own classroom. Such teachers may feel that their responsibility is to teach “science (math, music, etc.), not behavior.” Interestingly, the Latin root of the word discipline is to *teach*. Secondary teachers should be encouraged to understand that addressing problem behavior before it occurs can provide them with the best return on their investment of

time. Further, as they address literacy as it relates to the Common Core, they will find that teaching norms and skills related to speaking and listening (generally associated with respect) is expected as a part of the general curriculum.

Directly teaching norms usually follows a consistent format and series of steps. These steps include connecting with a schoolwide (or classwide) expectation (e.g., respect, responsibility), identifying an objective (e.g., students will be able to demonstrate respectful behavior in the classroom), a rationale for the norm or expectation, counterexamples of the norm or expectation, examples of the norm or expectation, some sort of practice, and providing feedback to the students. These can also include video models.

Providing counterexamples and positive examples may be important in that it provides a construct for students to understand the dimensions of the appropriate behavior. It also makes it easier to redirect students later, because the teacher knows the students are aware of the appropriate behavior (e.g., “was that being respectful or disrespectful?”). It also encourages engagement in the lesson through behavioral momentum. By having the students participate in some level of problem behavior (i.e., a highly probable response) under certain limits (e.g., “Do not hit anyone; stop the behavior when I raise my hand.”), students may be more likely to engage in demonstrations of appropriate behavior (i.e., less probable response). Finally, teachers should remember to provide brief precorrections before activities where students are more likely to engage in problem behavior (e.g., “Remember, we need to work quietly in the library today while we are doing our online searches for our projects”).

Acknowledging Appropriate Behaviors

Acknowledgment is related to the previous section involving purposes of behavior. Typically, teachers need to understand that most human beings do not engage in behaviors unless these behaviors work at some level. Teachers do come to work because they are being paid. However, what helps these teachers to stay in the field and not find other work that might be more rewarding is the payoff from watching their students develop under their care. They have the ability to be creative with instruction and to engage other adults in meaningful and collegial relationships. Many corporations (e.g., Zappos, Southwest Airlines) understand that acknowledging employees for their *on mission* behavior is a great way to encourage their effectiveness at work. Two principles of acknowledgment also apply for students: They require a basic level of acknowledgment for engaging in appropriate behavior (e.g., desired behavior should work to

obtain recognition and attention), and their academic experience should also provide meaningful payoff through highly engaging content, instruction, and social engagement.

Many schools and classrooms have developed token economies (e.g., stickers, tickets) to encourage appropriate behavior. For example, students might receive a token from a teacher for engaging in respectful behavior, which can be used to purchase items in a school store. Part of the effectiveness of these systems is that they serve as a prompt for the adult to look for and recognize appropriate behavior. Regardless of the system, classroom teachers should consider their interactions with students as a kind of behavioral banking exchange. If there are too many withdrawals (i.e., corrections) and not enough deposits (i.e., praise), teachers are likely to find their accounts overdrawn with the students when they attempt to correct their behavior.

Key components of making appropriate behavior work include keeping high rates of positive-to-negative interactions (e.g., 4:1); providing specific and genuine praise for behaviors and immediately after the appropriate behavior (e.g., “Thank you for starting our bell ringer when you came in to class”); and looking for opportunities to provide vicarious reinforcement for off-task behavior by praising students who are engaging in desired behavior (e.g., “I appreciate the way group one is working on their lab together quietly, that’s very respectful”). Teachers should be encouraged to try self-management strategies such as tallying on paper or using counters to track their positive-to-negative statement ratios.

Additionally, the curriculum should include content that is relevant to the student (e.g., connecting a lesson about parts of the body with a local professional basketball player who has experienced an injury). Further, it should include functional outcomes such as opportunities for students to engage each other in socially appropriate ways (e.g., allowing students to engage in a debate rather than write a report). The pace of the instruction should be appropriate to the students’ academic levels and responses. Finally it should provide students with multiple opportunities to respond to and engage with the instruction (e.g., “Give me a thumbs-up if you agree with this statement, or a thumbs-down if you disagree”).

Continuum of Responses to Inappropriate Behavior

Although teaching and acknowledging behaviors are critical to preventing problem behavior, there will be times when students will not respond to these supports alone. Teachers should be prepared in advance with a range of responses to address problem behavior when it occurs. The overall goals for these responses are to

- redirect the student back to the appropriate behaviors,
- decrease the problem behavior’s level of disruption to the environment,
- provide time to reflect on how to prevent the problem from occurring in the future (e.g., analyzing the triggers and outcomes of the interaction),
- model appropriate responses to inappropriate behavior, and
- generally prevent an escalation of the problem without becoming a part of the problem (e.g., not escalating with the student).

These goals are dependent on the teachers’ ability to be clear that problem behavior will occur and that they must have systems in place to provide effective responses for students and themselves.

Some of the key components of having a continuum of responses to problem behavior include ensuring that teachers are aware of their own internal feelings and bodily conditions (e.g., lack of sleep, anxiety, hunger) and antecedents that are likely to stir up negative feelings (e.g., student talking back, student–student confrontations) that typically trigger suboptimal responses to student problem behavior (e.g., yelling, shouting, blocking pathways of students). Teachers should be aware that by taking care of their own personal feelings and physical needs (e.g., getting appropriate sleep, managing personal stress) they can decrease the likelihood that they will have more problematic responses to student behavior (e.g., they will be less likely to take behavior personally).

Second, as teachers become aware of the types of problem behaviors that are likely to set off their own negative responses, they can—as much as possible—avoid the problem for a short time and then prearrange the environment for success. For example, if certain problem behaviors (e.g., teasing other students) or specific students are triggers for teachers, they can ask for a buddy teacher to support them by requesting the student to go to a colleague’s class for a short time (while they cool down). Second, teachers also can engage in replacement behaviors, such as using tallies or counters to track the number of times they could have reacted problematically (e.g., engaged in a power struggle), and yet did not. Simply looking at data and having other responses in between the problem behavior and their reaction can be one solution for avoiding escalation themselves.

Other key components of responding include being aware of what they (and school administrators) define as classroom versus office management behaviors. This list of behaviors should be made clear to all teachers and students. Teachers should not spend time in problem-solving issues that are better managed by the office (e.g., cursing directed at the teacher). This also

decreases the likelihood that teachers will be overreacting (e.g., sending students to the office) on the first occurrence of low-level behaviors (e.g., not having a pencil for class). Other key strategies have been developed to support a continuum of responses.

When correcting students, teachers should remember to use proximity (e.g., move within about three feet of the student, but not closer), make eye contact (but do not force it on the part of the student), and to be private (e.g., whisper, use low tone of voice). For example, a teacher can use sticky notes for positive praise and correction. As the teacher walks around the room and places sticky notes on students' desks, the other students in the classroom do not know if others are being corrected or praised. This is an example of using all three approaches as once.

Other suggestions include using novelty by assuming the student did not know the expectation when correcting in order to diffuse his or her reaction when corrected. For example, when a teacher sees students marking on their arms with pens in class (on the first occurrence), the teacher can say privately, "I am really sorry that no one told you it is not OK to mark on your arms in class, we let you down there." Another strategy to diffuse student responses is to use humor (not to be confused with sarcasm). An example would be that two students in a class are engaging in low-level pushing. The teacher can respond by saying, "Are you guys OK? You know, since childhood my arms randomly flop like that sometimes, not really sure why that happens either, but was that really being safe?" In this example, the teacher is changing the prompt in terms of his interaction with the students. The goal is to provide a prompt (e.g., joke) that will diffuse the problem and allow for error correction (e.g., was that really being safe?). Also, starting with specific praise before correction can serve the same purpose. If a student is tapping her pencil at her desk and yet is in uniform, a teacher can say, "Sarah, great job today of being in uniform," and the moment Sarah stops tapping (which often happens), the teacher can praise the student by saying, "and thank you for correcting the tapping, that is really good self-control." Vicarious reinforcement also can be applied in this situation by praising other students who are working quietly and then immediately praising Sarah for being responsible (perhaps privately).

Two other key suggestions include staying out of the content when a student becomes defiant or defensive and ending with a teachable moment when possible. For example, a student is asked to sit down in class and responds by saying, "Why should I listen to you? You are not my mother." The teacher should be encouraged to wait and repeat the direction without making comment or defending his or her authority. In this example, the student is providing a stimulus for the teacher to begin to engage in a conversation that will delay carrying out the

request (e.g., sitting down). By waiting and repeating the question, the teacher is choosing to not respond to the stimulus and therefore not reinforcing further exchange. Finally, when possible, as in the examples above, the interaction should end with some sort of practice or at least discussion of the appropriate behavior. With the reminder that discipline really means to teach, instructors can have a disciplinary interaction (e.g., redirecting the problem behavior and reteaching the appropriate behavior) without ever having to send the student to the office.

Conclusion

For teachers in secondary schools, behavioral supports for effective classroom management include understanding the purpose of students' behavior, teaching desired behavior expectations, acknowledging appropriate behavior, and having a continuum of responses to disruption. Although these supports may not serve as a *cure-all* to prevent or eliminate all challenging, unwanted behavior, they have been shown to reduce that behavior considerably and contribute to a classroom becoming a better learning environment.

Hank Bohanon

See also Beginning Teachers and Classroom Management; Behavioral Approaches, Foundations of; Functional Analysis; Praise and Encouragement; Reinforcement; Schoolwide Positive Behavior Supports

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BELIEFS ABOUT DISCIPLINE INVENTORY

Understanding the way in which teachers approach discipline is valuable in developing an approach to classroom management. Knowing the actions that we typically take will lead to better help in navigating those times when the solutions might not match with core

beliefs. It also allows for increased insight into student reactions in response to discipline. Most importantly, reflecting on the actions we most often gravitate toward will help prompt an opportunity to gain new methods of discipline with the hope of expanding our repertoire of classroom management skills.

The Beliefs About Discipline Inventory, based on the work of Charles Wolfgang, Carl Glickman, and Roy Tamashiro, provides a quick, 12-item self-assessment to identify beliefs on classroom discipline. The inventory is useful in determining a teacher's typical orientation along one of three categories: relationship-listening (noninterventionist), confronting-contracting (interactionalist), and rules-consequences (interventionalist). A description and example of each category is provided below.

Relationship-Listening

The relationship-listening teacher believes that student misbehavior is the result of issues within the child and that the child has the ability to solve his or her own problem. Here, the teacher would have already developed acceptable problem solving with the class. The teacher's role within this context is to provide the child with time and limited support to work through the problem at hand, ultimately arriving at his or her own solution. The student, based on this framework, has a high degree of control, while the teacher takes a lower level of control. These teachers may rely more on active listening and gentle guidance, allowing the child to come up with his or her own solutions. These teachers will use nonjudgmental looking, I-messages (e.g., I am worried that you are not safe), and nondirective statements with limited questioning.

Following is an example of a relationship-listening approach:

Jermaine fails to join in the class meeting. The teacher looks at Jermaine without judgment with a belief that he will join the meeting when he is ready. The teacher makes a nondirective statement, "I see that you are not feeling ready to join the group; I look forward to you joining us when you are ready," to Jermaine after observing his behavior. She allows Jermaine the time to work out his own issues.

Confronting-Contracting

The teacher who leans toward this method supports the idea that student behavior is developed through learning from the student's interaction with the world around him or her. Solutions to problems are the result of equal or reciprocal discussion, along with recognition

that there are rules that must be respected. Both student and teacher are jointly involved on an equal level in this context. Confronting-contracting teachers will restrict student behavior choices to approved rules while gently confronting the student in the face of misbehavior. The classroom will have well-developed and understood rules.

Teachers in this category use active questioning in order to identify the function or purpose of the student's behavior. They believe that knowing whether the student was seeking attention, escaping a situation, or seeking power will help lead to appropriate consequences. The teacher will include some of the elements of the previous orientation, but will rely on active questioning and directive statements to arrive at a mutually agreed upon logical consequence or solution.

Following is an example of a confronting-contracting approach:

Mehnaz has been repeatedly calling out during her teacher-led small reading group. Her teacher considers the motivation behind this behavior is one of attention-seeking. The teacher ignores the behavior at the time, but then meets with Mehnaz to ask her about the calling-out behavior. He then arrives at a mutual agreement with Mehnaz that reassures her that she will be called on three times during the group, but reminds her of the class rule and the problem with calling out.

Rules-Consequences

The rules-consequences teacher exerts the most control over his or her students. Teachers in this category believe that learning to behave is the result of clear reinforcement and consequences. The teacher is actively engaged in teaching standards of behavior. A teacher who supports this belief will rely heavily on techniques such as rewards for positive behavior and restrictions or losses in the face of rule-breaking. The set of rules is consistent throughout the class. The teacher will employ directive statements, modeling of desired behavior, reinforcements, and consequences. The expectations will not change on the basis of individual student needs.

An example of a rules-consequences approach follows:

Sonia has not followed directions when asked to complete her work. Her teacher has clearly posted the class expectations and consequences, but Sonia needs an additional plan. The teacher places Sonia on a response-cost plan where she is provided with five cubes on her desk. The teacher will remove cubes if she has to prompt

Sofia to complete her work more than two times. Sonia is informed that each loss of cubes is equal to a loss of 5 minutes of recess time. She is also told that keeping all five cubes will earn her extra recess time at the end of the day.

Conclusion

When considering discipline, all teachers will pursue techniques along a continuum that ranges from less controlling to more controlling. There is no one absolute way to address discipline issues, since each situation will depend on the child and the nature of the problem. Starting with an understanding of the methods we most gravitate toward helps pave the way to expand and supplement existing skills. The key is to develop a wide range of approaches, which allows for flexibility when addressing classroom discipline issues.

Shamim S. Patwa

See also Active Listening and I-Messages; Approaches to Classroom Management: Types; Beginning Teachers and Classroom Management

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BILINGUAL EDUCATION

In U.S. schools today, one in five students speaks a language other than English at home—resulting in their needing to learn English at school. These English learners (ELs) present unique challenges and a pressing need, since the common goal is to have most of them learning through instruction presented in the English language. This is no easy goal to achieve because academic English generally takes 3 to 5 years longer to acquire than does conversational English.

To meet this goal, schools have employed different types of programs for helping ELs move to being competent and comfortable when instructed in English. The five most common are *English immersion*, *English as a second language*, *transitional bilingual*, *developmental*

bilingual, and *dual language* programs. This entry focuses on explaining these five different types of programs as well as the different supports needed for ELs to thrive in schools—all of which have direct implications for classroom organization and management.

The Five Major Types of Programs Compared

English immersion (also called *English only*) programs have nonnative English-speaking children learning alongside native English speakers in classrooms where instruction is provided entirely in English. The goal is to promote the development of academic English as quickly as possible, relying only on English used at a level appropriate for students.

English as a second language (ESL) programs generally occur as pull-out programs providing supplemental English language instruction focusing on grammar and usage. ESL programs are typically used for classrooms with English language learners using a variety of home (native) languages; furthermore, they are often used as additional supports for different kinds of programs, including English immersion programs.

Transitional bilingual education (TBE) programs serve classrooms with children who share the same, non-English, native language. Instruction happens using children's native language, and then gradually and increasingly, instruction is presented in English, until children can be transitioned to classrooms taught only in English. There are two models of transitional bilingual programs. In the *early exit* model, students are transitioned to all-English instruction by second or third grade. In the *late exit* model, the transition occurs by fifth or sixth grade. Owing to recent regulations incorporated into the No Child Left Behind public law, the early exit model has dominated, since children must be tested in English after 3 years of formal schooling.

Developmental bilingual education (DBE) works to promote and maintain students' home (native) language while students learn English. DBE programs differ from one another with respect to the percentage of instruction taught in English at the start—with some starting with as low as 10% English and others with as high as 50% English. DBE programs typically span the elementary grades. Some research findings suggest that in effective DBE programs, bilingual children, on average, outperform their monolingual, English-speaking counterparts on standardized tests presented in both their native language and in English.

Dual language (also called two-way bilingual education or two-way immersion) programs serve both language-minority and English-speaking students. In dual language programs, language learning is integrated with

content instruction. The goal is to promote bilingualism, academic achievement, and cross-cultural understanding among all students. Dual language programs support learning through social interaction between English learners and English-only students. In some cases, they also have been shown to promote higher academic achievement than when children receive instruction in a second language only.

Supports Needed

Research and close observation indicate that support for learning academic English is critical but not sufficient for ELs to thrive in schools and achieve at the level of their English-speaking peers. In particular, other than helping English learners acquire academic English, the challenges for teachers are (1) to provide ELs an experience of being fully included in the classroom community, and (2) to involve ELs in high-level thinking and not just in thinking about English. These challenges play out differently in the different types of language programs.

In dual language programs, the major challenge is to help ELs feel fully included—because the danger exists that in such programs the dominant, English-speaking culture will become the culture of the classroom—making ELs feel misunderstood, ignored, or worse. In short, dual language programs must also be multicultural programs.

In transitional and developmental language programs, the challenge is more to support higher-order thinking that includes reasoning, evaluating, and applying concepts to real-life problems. Teachers provide such supports when they ask open-ended and probing questions and when they themselves model higher-order thinking. Furthermore, supporting higher-order thinking requires teachers to challenge students to think in ways that are higher than their ordinary ways but no so high that they are unable to meet the challenge—what the Russian educator and psychologist Lev Vygotsky referred to as teaching within a child's *zone of proximal development*.

Conclusion

The message of this entry has been threefold: first, that supporting English language learners requires a thoughtful program to facilitate their acquiring academic English; second, that teachers in classrooms with ELs should strive to create multicultural classroom communities where everyone feels included and respected; and third, that teachers are encouraged to foster higher-level thinking by ELs and not just be content with their becoming competent in academic English. Although

teaching English language learners may require a great deal, it also promises the possibility of a rich and rewarding teaching experience.

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See also Cultural Diversity; Culturally Responsive Classrooms; English Language Learners and Classroom Behavior; English Learners; Linguistic Diversity and Classroom Management; Urban Schools

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BILINGUALISM AND STUDENTS WITH DISABILITIES

As the U.S. population becomes increasingly culturally and linguistically diverse, so too have the numbers of students participating in the U.S. K–12 public education system who speak a language other than English at home—some of whom have disabilities. According to the National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition, during the 2008–2009 school year there were over half a million kindergarten to Grade 12 English language learners (ELLs) with disabilities, the majority of whom were diagnosed with specific learning disabilities and speech/language impairments. Schools' assessment of and provision of special education services for these students is a recognized challenge.

However, with greater understanding of student characteristics, needs, and instructional approaches, educators can provide an equitable, culturally, and linguistically appropriate education. This entry discusses students with disabilities who are bilingual. Specifically, it addresses the following topics: (1) definitions of disability and bilingualism, (2) strengths and benefits of bilingualism, (3) identification of disabilities for students who are bilingual, and (4) instructional programs for bilingual students with disabilities.

Defining Disability and Bilingualism

In a U.S. public school context, disability is defined by federal special education law, specifically the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) of 2004. Based on this mandate, students with disabilities show deficit or delay in at least one development domain (i.e., physical, cognitive, social-emotional, communicative, adaptive behavior). Students can qualify and participate in special education and related services after meeting federal eligibility criteria under several disability categories, such as learning disabilities, cognitive disabilities, autism, and emotional/behavioral disorder. Students must also demonstrate that for school success they need special education services.

Students with disabilities may also receive other educational services such as those to support English language acquisition and even home language skills. Federal legislation, the Elementary and Second School Education Act, defines students who are limited English proficient (LEP) as those elementary or secondary school students whose level of English is not proficient enough to ensure school success without additional support and who have a native language other than English. In education practice, ELLs refer to students who are acquiring English and whose English skills are not yet proficient enough to allow them to participate in English language education. Schools are tasked with determining students' English language proficiency levels using state-level assessments and other procedures.

Taking a broad view of bilingualism, individuals with nearly any level of proficiency in two languages can be considered bilingual. Thus, being a bilingual student is more than having limited English proficiency or being an ELL. The focus of this entry is on bilingual students who qualify to participate in school services for ELLs as well as special education services. For these students, special education, English language, and home language education services are important.

Strengths and Benefits of Bilingualism

At times, schools may take a deficit perspective regarding bilingual students, which suggests that these students

have few linguistic strengths. Educators may only see these students' lack of English proficiency and be unaware of their home language skills. Particularly for bilingual students with disabilities, educators may erroneously assume that bilingualism is not desirable, impossible, and/or that it causes disabilities. Therefore, some professionals may incorrectly recommend English-only education and suggest that families stop speaking the home language to focus only on the student's English skills.

Culturally and linguistically appropriate educational services for bilingual students with disabilities include recognizing students' home language and culture as strengths. Research (such as that conducted by Elizabeth Kay-Raining Bird and her colleagues) illustrates that bilingualism does not cause disability or delay; moreover, students with disabilities can be bilingual when there is a need within their different contexts and environments to be bilingual, though disability may negatively impact their abilities in both languages. Furthermore, bilingualism for students with disabilities has many benefits for successful functioning in school, home, and community. For example, Ellen Bialystok and her colleagues have found that bilingualism for students who are typically developing affords cognitive advantages and supports the learning of English language and literacy. Additionally, bilingualism can support students' cultural identity and family functioning. As discussed by Lilly Wong Fillmore, family socialization is valuable to students' development, and when students lose their home language, parents and other family members who only speak the home language may be unable to support their children's learning. These outcomes appear similar for students with disabilities who are bilingual. Thus, supporting the home language and English for students with disabilities can provide many benefits.

Identification of Disabilities for Bilingual Students

Special education evaluation (i.e., implementation of assessments and procedures to determine if a student qualifies to participate in IDEA-related services) for bilingual students warrants caution and care. Educators and programs may not recognize typical linguistic functioning of bilingual students (e.g., vocabulary used in their home, such as foods, may be better developed in the home language compared to English). Likewise, schools may implement evaluation procedures that do not allow bilingual students to illustrate their skills. For instance, too often, English is the only language assessed and used during assessment for bilingual students. Consequently, evaluation results may only reflect a portion of a student's communication capacities and

knowledge. Other challenges while evaluating bilingual students can be students' cultural adjustment to U.S. schools (for students who have recently immigrated) and second-language acquisition processes, which can result in students exhibiting characteristics and behaviors similar to those of students with disabilities. Thus, bilingual students may be suspected of and mistakenly identified as having a disability.

Appropriate and meaningful assessments are crucial to the identification of disabilities for bilingual students. IDEA mandates nondiscriminatory evaluation processes for all students suspected of having disabilities via a team evaluation in which multiple data sources about the student and contexts are collected; these data sources provide the information on which a disability determination is based. The evaluation team should consist of trained professionals from several backgrounds (e.g., general education and special education teachers, bilingual teacher, ELL teacher, school psychologist, speech pathologist/therapist, social worker). The student (as appropriate) and parents are also included in the evaluation team, because they provide, for example, information about the student's learning history, language(s) use at home and community, family relationships, community involvement, and family priorities. Parents are to be integral participants in team decision making.

Best practice dictates that evaluation teams collect data to understand a student's communication skills and understand the contexts in which those skills show themselves. The data collection process itself includes implementing various assessment instruments and procedures such as Response to Intervention (RTI), curriculum-based assessments, standardized assessments, classroom and home observations, and family and teacher interviews. When assessment tools in students' home languages cannot be located, educators can utilize high-quality translators and interpreters who are also trained in the field of special education to help with assessment. The evaluation goal is to develop a comprehensive view of the student's communication, functional, academic, and developmental competencies illustrated across school, home, and community. When making IDEA-related decisions about disability, evaluation teams determine the extent to which student difficulties can be attributed to disability or not. Indeed, bilingual students' disability determinations are complicated tasks and require care.

Instructional Programs for Bilingual Students With Disabilities

IDEA mandates individualized and appropriate education designed to benefit students with disabilities through an individualized education program (IEP).

Although IDEA does not require bilingual educational programming for students with disabilities, special education services can include both English and students' home languages to allow students to benefit from school education and facilitate family and community functioning. Focusing instruction to include both languages allows for building on students' linguistic and cultural strengths. Student competence in the home language can facilitate rather than inhibit second language (i.e., English) learning. That is, cross-language associations occur such that skills learned in the first language facilitate second language acquisition. Research is emerging, such as studies conducted by Elin Thordardottir that indicate that bilingual intervention (i.e., including both home language and English) can be as effective or better than English-only intervention for bilingual students with language disabilities. Similar findings have been reported for students with other disabilities, such as autism and cognitive disabilities (see Cheatham, Santos, and Kerkutluoglu, 2012, for a review). Moreover, from a culturally and linguistically responsive viewpoint, students with disabilities who are bilingual need to learn both English and their home language to not only function at school but also build strong family relationships, preserve cultural identity, impart positive self-concept, and be involved in their communities.

Many programing approaches are possible for bilingual students with disabilities to ensure that educational services address both disability-related and language acquisition needs. Approaches can include constructivist and direct instruction as well as other specialized instruction as appropriate for individual students. We focus here on two promising approaches to special education programing (discussed by Leonard Baca and Hermes Cervantes) that provide opportunities for students' academic development and development of both home language and English: two-way bilingual programs and education programs including bilingual and ELL instruction. Importantly, decisions about students' educational programing must be made in partnership with their parents in addition to special educators, general educators, and language acquisition experts.

Two-way bilingual programs are designed to serve both native English-speaking students and students with a home language other than English. In two-way bilingual programs, language learning in two languages is integrated with content instruction. For example, each of the two languages can be used for instruction 50% of the school day. The goal is to promote bilingual development, academic achievement, and cultural competence among all students. To facilitate learning and development for these students, modifications and accommodations, additional language instruction, pull-out special

education services, and/or inclusionary special education services can be provided. Special educators who are proficient in at least one of the students' two languages can provide support and related services.

Another educational program for bilingual students with disabilities is special education services provided within inclusive, general education settings with bilingual and ELL support. In these programs, accommodations and modifications are often needed to address the academic, linguistic, functional, and developmental needs of students with disabilities. Highly trained bilingual and special education teachers, teaching assistants, and paraprofessionals can collaborate with monolingual teachers to provide home language instruction and bilingual content instruction as well as special education services. Trained ELL teachers can also play a role in instruction. Instruction can occur within general education contexts though pull-out services may also be necessary depending on student need. The goal of these programs is to facilitate linguistic and social development as well as academic achievement through instruction in both languages for bilingual students with disabilities.

Conclusion

The message conveyed in this entry is fourfold. First, bilingualism is neither the same as disability nor the cause of disability; thus, students with disabilities can be bilingual and bilingual students can have disabilities. Second, students with disabilities who are bilingual have important cultural and linguistic strengths that educators can build upon. Third, a multidisciplinary team uses multiple data sources, evaluates both of the students' languages in context, and is sensitive and responsive to cultural differences when identifying disabilities for bilingual students. Finally, culturally and linguistically appropriate instruction for bilingual students with disabilities includes development and maintenance of both English and students' home languages. Educator understanding and appropriate practices can result in equitable, culturally and linguistically appropriate educational services for bilingual students with disabilities.

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See also Bilingual Education; English Learners; Inclusive Classrooms; Language Differences; Linguistic Diversity and Classroom Management

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BOUNDARIES

Boundaries are the ground rules by which instruction proceeds and positive classroom climate develops. Essentially, boundaries establish that the classroom is bounded off from other types of contexts (playground, home, school bus, etc.) where the rules for behaving might be quite different. Without clear boundaries, there can be chaos in any classroom.

Some teachers may think that students in their classrooms already should know what the boundaries are but that is not always the case. Boundaries need to be taught. Boundaries change based upon the age of the students being taught, the grade level, the learning objectives of each instructional activity, the individual abilities and special needs of the students in the class, the teaching philosophy of the teacher, and the policies of the school.

Boundaries set limits regarding the ways in which an individual student or group of students can behave within a specific learning context or with regard to a specific group of other students within the classroom. Learning environment boundaries include rules, routines, and procedures for behavior that help the class function as a positive learning community. Depending on the dynamics of the class, learning environment boundaries that address rules, routines, and procedures may change from class to class and from year to year.

Another important type of boundary that should be addressed at the beginning of the school year is the interpersonal relationship boundary between the teacher and students. This boundary includes limits on the

professional role of the teacher and those of the students. What learning context boundaries in the classroom and interpersonal relationship boundaries between teacher and students have in common is that both types of boundaries serve to establish much-needed academic and social limits in the classroom.

How to Create Boundaries in the Classroom

In order to establish boundaries to limit behavior for the creation of a good learning environment, the successful teacher will begin the school year by establishing rules and procedures for the class. Rules should be stated in a positive manner, such as, "Please raise your hand to ask a question." Initially there should be no more than three to five rules. New rules can be added as new situations arise. The procedures taught and established early on should be structured ways of functioning well in predictable daily activities, such as procedures for exiting for recess or entering and departing the school bus, bathroom breaks, handing in homework, and traveling on field trips.

To establish a sense of ownership for rules, teachers can allow students to play a pivotal role in the development of classroom rules and procedures. The teacher should start by asking students why rules and procedures are important; then ask the students what kinds of rules and procedures they would like to have in their classroom. Students should regularly self-evaluate with the teacher the extent to which rules and procedures are being complied with, and whether modifications might be required to get back into compliance. Although ultimately the teacher is in charge of the class, the development of a shared learning community helps immensely by allowing the students to own the rules and procedures, feel like they belong, and can express their opinions openly. Student participation in the setting of boundaries will go a long way toward establishing the positive classroom climate required to set and maintain the types of boundaries necessary in any class.

Types of Boundaries

Several boundaries must be addressed if classrooms are to function well as learning environments. In particular, there are student-teacher and student-student boundaries, as well as boundaries relating to the physical environment.

Student-Teacher Boundaries

From a family systems perspective, there are at least three types of boundaries for assessing the student-teacher

relationship: boundaries that are *rigid*, boundaries that are *diffuse*, and boundaries that are *clear*.

Rigid boundaries are those that make mutual conversations between students and teachers difficult or next to impossible. When the boundaries are rigid, some students may feel underappreciated and unrecognized by the teacher as the special individual each one is in the class. Such is the case when teachers are so strict and authoritarian that they dampen all conversations not immediately relevant to the lesson and make students feel like their personal experiences are unimportant, irrelevant, and unvalued by the teacher in the lesson.

Diffuse boundaries are those that ignore the power differences and roles that differentiate the teacher from students. Teachers can create diffuse boundaries when they share too much personal information and feelings about their own personal lives. When teachers allow their relationships with students to move past the boundaries of respect and friendliness to one of friendship, they risk losing their authoritative position as a classroom manager. They also risk crossing the professional line and becoming too personal with their students both in and out of class.

Clear boundaries are those that allow for give-and-take conversations and for the sharing of feelings and experiences. It is essential that such sharing of feelings and experiences should relate to in-school topics so that the roles of the teacher and student remain intact. Clear boundaries can be found most often when teachers adopt an authoritative style. Such a style makes it clear to the students that the teacher is in charge, but with the guidance of the class, together they set reasonable limits for the class that encourage students to more willingly participate and comply.

Student-Student Boundaries

At times, teachers need to manage the boundaries between students. For example, students such as those with autism spectrum disorder may feel threatened if other students stand too close to their personal space. They may require help from the teacher communicating to other students that they need their space.

The opposite can also be true. Most of the time students should feel that there are not unnecessary boundaries between themselves and their classmates. Such overly strict and unnecessary boundaries could leave the students feeling isolated and not a part of the classroom community. The teacher must ensure that the learning environment is a positive one for all. Even unintentional remarks called *microaggressions*, such as "That is so gay," or "That's retarded," can have unintended consequences for some students, making them feel unwelcome. Classrooms where swearing, passing

gas, and marginalization are tolerated create impolite environments. Under such circumstances, courtesy and inclusiveness must be discussed and managed.

Student–Physical Environment Boundaries

Sometimes the physical environment can create an insurmountable boundary for students. Students with attention deficit hypersensitivity disorder may not be able to learn in classrooms with lots of auditory and visual distractors. Some students with hearing or visual impairments will need accommodations and adaptations to overcome the boundaries set by certain types of classroom assessments and lessons. In most primary and secondary classrooms, how the desks are arranged, where pencil sharpeners are placed, and other such organizational matters affect the extent to which the physical boundaries of the classroom are clear, rather than rigid or diffuse. Similarly, in early childhood classrooms, activity corners can be bounded off from one another to such a degree that children cannot move easily from area to area. In contrast, some classroom spaces, such as open school environments, can be so unbounded and open as to invite running and other behaviors between classrooms, more appropriate for playground activity.

Conclusion

When rules, routines, and procedures are applied to create clear physical boundaries in the classroom, the result is a more positive and successful learning environment for all. Such is also the case when establishing and maintaining appropriate teacher and student roles. Teachers must ensure that interpersonal boundaries remain clear, in contrast to rigid or diffuse, when organizing the social environment of a classroom as well. Boundaries remain a central consideration for anyone given the responsibility of transforming classrooms into good social environments and spaces for learning.

Robert G. Harrington

See also Climate: School and Classroom; Organization of Classrooms: Space; Routines; Rules and Expectations

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BROPHY, JERE

Jere Brophy (1940–2009) was Distinguished Professor of Teacher Education and Educational Psychology at Michigan State University (MSU) when he died on October 16, 2009. He left a legacy of more than 300 articles, chapters, and books, many of which had a basis within the concept of classroom management. His most well-known text, *Looking Into Classrooms*, currently in its 10th edition, provides a review of the key literature surrounding effective classroom instructional practice. Research he conducted on classroom management, student motivation, and effective teaching practices influenced both theory and practice within the field of education.

Background and Achievements

A native of Chicago, Jere Brophy received his Bachelor of Arts degree from Loyola University of Chicago in 1962. He then earned his PhD in human development and clinical psychology from the University of Chicago in 1967. He started his career in academia at the University of Texas in Austin in 1968, as a member of the Department of Educational Psychology. In 1976, he relocated to MSU in East Lansing where he was named University Distinguished Professor in 1990, the highest faculty distinction within the university. He also served as co-director of the Institute for Research in Teaching at MSU, cultivating his role as a forerunner in understanding how teachers think about their students and ways in which these beliefs affect their actions.

Brophy received several awards during his lifetime, a highlight being the American Psychological Association Division 15’s Edward Lee Thorndike Lifetime Achievement Award, given to him in 2007 for recognition of outstanding career achievement and substantial accomplishments in research within the field of educational psychology. In addition to receiving the aforementioned Thorndike award, he received the National Council on Social Studies Exemplary Research in Social Studies Award and an honorary doctorate from the University of Liege in Belgium. Moreover, he was elected as a Fellow in the American Psychological Association, the American Psychological Society, the American Educational Research Association, the National Academy of Education, and the International Academy of Education.

Research and Beliefs

Brophy’s research interests included teacher expectations and the effects of self-fulfilling prophecies; connections between classroom processes and student outcomes; the

dynamics of teacher–student relationships; classroom management and coping with difficult students; and student motivation for learning. He drew upon his extensive experience in human development and clinical psychology to understand how a teacher’s way of thinking can influence the way he or she perceives his or her students. Brophy then used his research to lay the foundation for transforming the way teachers are educated and trained.

Brophy firmly believed that teachers’ expectations could become self-fulfilling prophecies and highly contributed to making them effective or noneffective educators. His body of work has provided useful and constructive tools for facilitating teachers’ abilities to determine how they should manage their classrooms and, consequently, handle students who encompass a variety of motivational and achievement-related characteristics. The text he coauthored with Thomas Good of the University of Arizona in 1973, *Looking Into Classrooms*, has been used in the field for over 30 years. Widely recognized as being the most authoritative and comprehensive text to synthesize research on classroom life, it contains and discusses research in a variety of areas such as classroom management, differentiating instruction to meet the needs of unique learners, classroom teaching, teacher expectations, and student motivation.

Within the text, the two discussed research they conducted that was supportive of the idea that teachers’ beliefs about their students can have a positive or negative effect on the outcomes of progress achieved by their students. Additionally, Brophy contended that motivation was fundamental to success in the classroom environment. He elaborated on this concept within his text, *Motivating Students to Learn*, by providing research-based ideologies for motivating students to learn, that were also applicable within the true context of a classroom learning environment.

With regard to classroom management, Brophy maintained three assumptions: a teacher is both an instructional leader and authority figure in the classroom; good classroom management entails good instruction; and that ideal classroom management strategies are not only effective, but cost-efficient. Current research supports these assumptions by verifying that successful classroom management involves not only responding appropriately when problems arise, but being proactive and preventing them from occurring. One way that Brophy specifically addressed this issue was to outline 12 common problems that teachers encounter daily within the context of their classrooms. In his book *Teaching Problem Students*, Brophy offered suggestions for techniques and strategies that had proven success in alleviating classroom management problems, in addition to addressing and analyzing ones that were not shown to be effective.

Conclusion

Jere Brophy’s impact in the field of education is profound and extensive and continues to influence educators today. He sought to focus his research on the areas that impacted teachers the most, which in his opinion seemed to revolve primarily around classroom management and addressing the needs of the problem learner. Through his extensive work, he has left a legacy of provisions for the classroom teacher—strategies and techniques for motivating students, enabling teachers to manage their classrooms and be inclusive of all learners.

Alicia Brophy

See also Beginning Teachers and Classroom Management; Climate: School and Classroom; Methods, Ineffective; Motivating Students; Teacher Education and Classroom Management; Teacher Knowledge, Beliefs, Attitudes; Teacher Self-Efficacy

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BULLYING, GENDER DIFFERENCES IN

Some educators may think that bullying is gender-neutral. Although it is true that anyone can be bullied by anyone at any time in schools, there are some distinct patterns that differentiate males from females. This entry focuses on how boys and girls differ in the types of bullying in which they engage, who they tend to bully, the effects of bullying on the target and the bully, the responsiveness of the bystanders to bullying events, and what can be done about these gender-related forms of bullying.

Types of Gender-Based Bullying

Boys are equal-opportunity bullies. They will bully both boys and girls and will engage in all forms of bullying, but mostly physical intimidation and sexual harassment and abuse, especially in middle school when bullying is at its peak. Alternatively, girls bully mostly other girls and engage in mostly indirect, relational forms of bullying. That is, girls will gossip, marginalize, create rumors, and demean other females. Both boys and girls can be intolerant of alternative gender identity, race, and ethnicity, especially if the teacher has not taught and modeled tolerance, understanding, and acceptance. Females targeted for bullying often have a poor body image, low self-concept, evidence an eating disorder, and may engage in self-injurious behavior.

Differential Perceptions and Effects of Bullying

Bullied boys and girls will often be absent from school and will underachieve. Boys are more likely to be bullied and to be bullies than girls. Boys in the 10- to 17-year-old age group are more likely than girls to continue bullying and escalate to criminal behaviors without intervention. Girls can, too, but are less likely to do so. When both boys and girls in the 8- to 18-year-old age range were asked to provide their own implicit definitions of bullying, neither included the three components of the research-based description of bullying: intentional infliction of harm, repeated over time, and a power imbalance between the bully and victim. What is clear is that neither have a very accurate view of what bullying actually is, and this fact may contribute to the escalation of bullying itself since students may not think they were bullying. That is why some bullies will defend their bullying behaviors by saying, "I was only kidding."

Cyberbullying by Males and Females

Evidence suggests that girls and boys are equally likely to be bullied in cyberspace. Girls are more likely to be the perpetrators of cyberbullying than boys. It has been proposed that girls may prefer cyberbullying compared with boys because of their proclivity toward verbal bullying. Girls are more likely the victims of vicious rumors, and boys are more likely the victims of physical threats of harm online. In response to these two different gender-based forms of cyberbullying, girls are more likely to feel frustrated and boys are more likely to feel scared.

Gender Differences in the Roles of Bystanders

Girls and boys play different roles as bystanders witnessing bullying. Male bystanders are more likely to be active

bystanders supporting the bully or taking part in the bullying themselves. Girls are more likely to be defender bystanders or otherwise not participate in defending, fearing that if they do they will be next. When boys and girls do intervene to help the victim, they are equally likely to use physical force, but girls are more likely than boys to use verbal assertiveness additionally. It would appear that girls are more likely to use their verbal skills in perpetrating bullying as well as defending others. Boys are more likely to defend other boys, and girls are more likely to defend other girls. Despite the fact that boys and girls are about equally successful in stopping bullying, neither gender is very effective in doing so, nor are bystanders, whether boys or girls, very likely to intervene as a bystander, for fear of retribution.

Need for Bullying Policy Development and Training

Some observers have recommended school-sponsored training for males and females alike—for the bullies, the victims, and bystanders. This approach is likely to be helpful because (1) students are apt to find themselves in one or more of these roles before they complete their education, and (2) bullying is more likely to decrease with appropriate school bullying policy development and training for all, including students, teachers, administrators, and parents. Without training, some parents actually encourage bullying. Currently, most schools do not have a bullying policy, do not provide training, and when bullying is reported, most teachers take no action. That is a formula for the escalation of bullying events.

Conclusion

Antibullying policies and training need to include resources to prevent and intervene in gender-based bullying. Accordingly, teachers and administrators are strongly encouraged to become more cognizant of the existence of not only physical bullying but also more subtle forms of indirect, relational bullying. Given that relational bullying involves exclusion, marginalization, and cyberbullying that often occurs off-campus and after school, a good deal of relational bullying can be difficult for school personnel to identify. Some school personnel may even think that relational bullying, such as that which occurs with cyberbullying and that takes place off-campus or after the end of the school day, is not really bullying that should concern the school. However, regardless of when and where bullying occurs, educators are responsible for both detecting bullying wherever and whenever it occurs—and responding appropriately, such as by developing policies to raise awareness and conducting workshops on creating a positive social climate, how to

respond to a bully when victimized, and what to do when viewing bullying as a bystander.

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See also Bullying and Bullying Prevention; Bullying and the Law; Climate: School and Classroom; Law and Classroom Management

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BULLYING AND BULLYING PREVENTION

Over the past decade, a rich set of studies has been conducted that have implications for bullying prevention in schools and classrooms. These studies have identified a number of characteristics of students who are more likely to be involved in bullying, as well as characteristics of schools where bullying is more likely to occur. They also have led to the implementation of effective strategies and programs to prevent and reduce the frequency of bullying. This entry is aimed at providing information from the research on bullying and on the strategies and programs for helping to make classrooms and schools safe from bullying.

What Is Bullying?

Bullying is a subtype of aggression. It is behavior perpetrated with intent to harm, which is repeated over time (or has the potential to be repeated) and occurs within the context of an actual or perceived power imbalance. Bullying can be categorized into overlapping but distinct types: physical bullying and social or relational bullying. Although the types of bullying are seen across development, the behaviors, prevalence, and gender contexts vary. In first grade, an incident of social bullying might look like mocking a classmate behind her back in a sing-song voice; in seventh grade, it might mean spreading malicious rumors. In middle childhood, physical forms of bullying are more common, with male bullies likely to target boys, and female bullies likely to target girls. In adolescence, social forms become increasingly prevalent as do incidents of cross-gender bullying.

Does Bullying Matter?

Bullying is neither scarce nor benign. In a representative sample of U.S. sixth to tenth graders, one in nine indicated they had been bullied two or more times in the past month. A large body of literature documents the potential consequences of bullying—although research varies and causal conclusions are cautioned. Most studies suggest bullies are at risk for externalizing behaviors, including delinquency and violence, whereas victims are at risk for internalizing problems, including anxiety and depression. School performance is compromised for victims and often for bullies as well. Children who are both bullies and victims are at greatest risk for academic and social-emotional problems.

Bullies and Victims

Although identifying common characteristics of bullies has proved challenging, recent research has debunked traditional images of bullies as poorly behaved boys with limited social skills and few friends. Members of both sexes are involved, though some research suggests boys are more likely to be involved in physical forms of bullying, particularly in middle childhood, and girls are more likely to be involved in social forms of bullying. In some cases, bullies have poor social skills; in other cases, bullies are socially competent. Bullies may not be well-liked generally, but they may be perceived as popular or influential. To the extent that bullying serves a function—such as enhancing social status—the behavior is likely to continue.

Victims of bullying are often unable or unlikely to defend themselves. They are likely to be submissive, insecure, socially isolated, and/or emotionally vulnerable. In addition, children and youth who are outside the social norm are targeted, including those who are obese, gay, lesbian, bisexual, or disabled. Taken together, victims may lack social skills and coping mechanisms, as well as external supports and resources to deal effectively with bullies.

Bullying in Classrooms

Contrary to common assumptions, bullying incidents often include more than just a bully and victim. They also include *followers* who encourage and reinforce bullying, *bystanders* who watch without acting, and *defenders* who intervene to protect the victim. Thus, a major focus of research has been on those who are indirectly involved in bullying and on what can be done to influence the behavior of followers, bystanders, and defenders through the creation of a more positive classroom and school climate.

Classroom climate involves the social system, organization, and expectations that relate to opportunities for learning in school. Classrooms with poor climates, particularly those characterized by reactive and inconsistent behavior management, have more negative peer interactions. Teachers who create warm and responsive climates—providing supports for good student–teacher relations, quality learning opportunities, and positive proactive behavior management—are more likely to have students who reject bullying and aggression.

Teacher support is related to and embedded within a peer context. Classmates’ attitudes toward and display of bullying are related to use and acceptance of aggression. When peers befriend or defend victims, bullying decreases; when peers use or approve of bullying, it increases. New research suggests that the structure of classroom social connections matters: Classrooms with rigid social hierarchies are more likely than those with egalitarian social structures to have aggressive students in high-status positions and peer victims unable to shift their status over time. It may be that social cohesion, flexibility, and equity deprive socially connected bullies of the peer regard they require in order to sustain their bullying.

What Teachers Can Do: Universal Strategies

Effective classwide strategies to counter bullying are multilevel in nature: designed both to enhance youth resilience (e.g., social, emotional, and behavioral skills) and to build effective classrooms (e.g., organized, interconnected, and supportive).

Child Skills: Emotional, Social, and Behavioral

Social-emotional learning (SEL) programs have been developed and evaluated in elementary, middle, and high schools. One common element of effective SEL programs is interactive instruction. Designed to be active, participatory, and engaging, interactive instruction aims to build students’ awareness and management of their emotions, develop social skills and competencies, and increase knowledge and use of constructive approaches to address social challenges. By introducing age-appropriate information and strategies, as well as time to practice in a safe and supportive setting, these programs aim for skills to generalize to interpersonal interactions within and beyond the classroom.

Classroom Organization: Rules, Routines, and Reinforcement

Classrooms with structured routines, clear and positive rules, and consistent behavioral reinforcement

enhance positive peer interactions and reduce bullying. Several bullying prevention programs emphasize the need to start the school year with clear teacher expectations and classroom procedures regarding how students treat one another. Likewise, scholars and interventionists recommend that students are made aware of the consequences of bullying. It is through expectations, reinforcement, and consequences that teachers shape classroom-normative behaviors and beliefs about bullying.

One elementary classroom practice for increasing positive behavior management and social norms is the *good behavior game*. A group contingency classroom management practice, the game has been shown to promote behavioral regulation and reduce aggressive behavior in elementary school-age children both concurrently and over time. Through rewarding students as a team for demonstrating on-task behaviors and displaying low levels of inappropriate behavior, students create a positive learning environment by managing their own behavior and encouraging productive behaviors from classmates.

Classroom Relationships: Positive Interdependence

Warm and supportive classroom interactions can protect against bullying. Teachers have an invisible hand in children’s peer relationships; thus, teaching practices that encourage positive interdependence across a diverse population of students are critical. For instance, carefully constructed cooperative learning groups may enhance classroom social integration and decrease bullying. The provision of frequent opportunities to work together in safe and organized groups toward common goals may increase peer acceptance and support, effective communication, and conflict resolution.

Whole classrooms can be structured to increase positive interdependence. For example, the classroom component of the *Child Development Project*, an empirically based schoolwide program designed to build caring communities, places emphasis on justice, kindness, and responsibility. Through regular community meetings, the students and teacher make decisions, set goals, and plan activities. Students collaborate on challenging academic tasks and read literature to discuss ethical and social issues. Positive effects have been demonstrated in high-implementation schools on multiple aspects of children’s development, including peer relationships, mediated through children’s sense of community.

What Teachers Can Do: Targeted Strategies

Multilevel universal strategies may prevent many—but not all—bullying incidents. Equally important is to

learn to recognize which children and situations may be at risk for bullying. The burden of awareness lies with teachers as students face multiple barriers to seeking teacher support, such as fears of retaliation, concerns that no solution exists, and worries about being a tattletale. Once teachers have identified areas of concern or individuals at risk, concrete and targeted steps can be taken to prevent or stop bullying.

Adult and Peer Relationships: Protective Factors for Vulnerable Students

One critical step toward recognition and early intervention is for teachers to get to know their students. Students who have close relationships with teachers or other school personnel are more engaged in school and more likely to seek adult support in the face of difficulties. Getting to know students may enable teachers to identify students with characteristics that place them at risk for bullying as well as students with the social skills and emotional strength to defend a victim. Attentiveness to the classwide social dynamics may inform shifts in seating arrangements or academic groups as problems are identified. Pairing a potentially vulnerable student and a prosocial leader for activities may enhance the reputation of the former and build a protective social bond. Engaging students in evidence-based peer mediation programs can benefit mediators and recipients alike.

Effective Communication Among Adults: School Personnel and Families

Teachers who effectively communicate with other adults may be better able to identify problems and intervene early. Bullying extends beyond the classroom to cafeterias, hallways, schoolyards, and buses. Exchange of information is important to developing common norms, rules, and consequences to reduce bullying and address aggressive incidents effectively. Teachers can partner with families to build home-school systems of behavioral reinforcement for individual students (e.g., *School-Home Note* or *Daily Report Card*). Classroom programs for behavior management and peer mediation can be implemented in lunchrooms and on playgrounds. Consistency across contexts in rules, reinforcement, and consequences—achievable through regular, productive, and positive communication—may prevent bullying incidents from starting or worsening.

Conclusion

The results of a decade of research indicate that bullying in classrooms and schools is both frequent and preventable. Teachers play an important role. Evidence-based

strategies can be implemented to enhance students' social, emotional, and behavioral skills, classroom organization, and classroom relationships. Teachers' knowledge of student needs and strengths, and awareness of classroom social dynamics, may create opportunities to build protective relationships for targeted students. Regular, productive, and positive communication among adults can facilitate early identification of difficulties and enhance the effectiveness of management strategies across contexts. Classroom universal and targeted practices are critical to the success of broader local, state, and federal initiatives to reduce the prevalence and impact of bullying in our schools.

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See also Bullying, Gender Differences in; Bullying and the Law; Climate: School and Classroom; Peers and Peer Relationships; Teacher-Student Relationships

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BULLYING AND THE LAW

Schools can and should be safe places to learn, and educators have a moral and legal responsibility to keep children safe. Educators are responsible for maintaining a learning environment that is both physically and emotionally safe for everyone. Unfortunately, when bullying occurs on a school campus, it can create an

environment that is fearful for some and not conducive to learning for anyone. Although no federal or state laws make bullying an illegal act, educators have a legal responsibility to address bullying prevention and intervene when bullying occurs.

Bullying can be defined as a pattern of aggressive behavior that is intended to cause harm to another person. It is an intentional act of aggression where a more powerful person(s) physically or emotionally attacks a less powerful one. The power differential between the person(s) who is bullying and the person who is being bullied may be a difference in physical size, strength, or even social status. Bullying is generally repeated conduct that falls along a continuum of behaviors ranging from overt acts of physical or verbal bullying to more subtle patterns of relational aggression intended to harm someone's self-esteem or group acceptance.

Legal Implications

Bullying is no longer viewed as a rite of passage. It is now widely recognized as a form of school violence with consequences negatively impacting students' academic, social, and emotional well-being, as well as the overall school environment. When looking at bullying within the context of the law, there are several areas that can be viewed in greater depth (see the entry on Law and Classroom Management in this encyclopedia).

1. The doctrine of *in loco parentis*—the concept that teachers and others can stand *in place of the parents* when critical decisions need to be made regarding the safety of children.
2. Negligence—where the failure to do something (e.g., failing to report a problem) or doing something wrong (e.g., walking away from a bullying situation) can lead to student injury and possible litigation.
3. Federal/state laws.

Legal considerations surrounding bullying go beyond local policy and state law. In addition to the rights and requirements afforded by specific statutes, educators must be aware of other areas of the law that may come into play when dealing with bullying prevention and intervention.

Federal Laws and Civil Rights

A 2010 letter to school districts from the U.S. Department of Education Office for Civil Rights reminded school leaders that bullying based on race,

color, national origin, sex, or disability violates civil rights laws and may trigger responsibilities under one or more federal antidiscrimination laws.

- Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibiting discrimination on the basis of race, color, or national origin
- Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 prohibiting discrimination on the basis of gender
- Title II of the Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990 and Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 prohibiting discrimination on the basis of disability

If discriminatory bullying or harassment occurs, the school must take steps to not only end the behavior and prevent future occurrences but also eliminate any hostile environment to ensure the learning environment is not conducive to bullying. Simply following the school's policy may not be enough to ensure that a student's civil rights are not violated.

State Laws

As of this writing, 49 states have antibullying laws; Montana is the only state that does not. The state statutes are somewhat diverse, but there are commonalities making it clear that schools must take steps to address bullying. A review of state laws finds that they generally

- require school districts to develop a policy to prohibit bullying;
- require states to provide model policies and technical assistance;
- encourage action such as implementation of a bullying prevention program rather than requiring direct reform;
- require training for faculty and staff, as well as education of students regarding bullying; and
- require a mandatory reporting mechanism/process if bullying incidents occur.

Trends in recent legislation include requirements for specifically addressing cyberbullying, bullying students with disabilities, and bullying lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender students. Some laws also provide direction on what should be written into the bullying prevention policy. Guidelines generally specify that policies should include

1. a clear statement that bullying is prohibited;
2. a definition of bullying that lists examples of bullying behaviors, including cyberbullying;
3. an outline of acceptable and unacceptable behaviors;

Table I State Bullying Prevention Legislation and Year Initially Enacted (as of August 2013)

| <i>State</i> | <i>Year</i> | <i>Citation</i> |
|---------------|-------------|---|
| Alabama | 2009 | AL Code § 12-28B; §16-28B |
| Alaska | 2006 | AS § 14.33.200 |
| Arkansas | 2003 | ACA § 6-18-514 |
| Arizona | 2005 | Chap 155 § 15-341.38 |
| California | 2001 | Cal. Ed Code § 35294.2 ; §234; §32251; §32265; §32270; §32282; §32283 |
| Colorado | 2002 | Colo. Public Act No. 02-119; Colo R.S. §22-32-109.2(2) |
| Connecticut | 2002 | Ct. Public Act No. 02; 10-145a; Ct. General Statutes §10-220; §10-222 |
| Delaware | 2007 | Del. Code Ann. tit.14 § 4112D; §4123A |
| Florida | 2008 | FL Statute § 1006.147 |
| Georgia | 2000 | Ga. Code Ann. § 20-2-751.4-6; §20-2-1181 |
| Hawaii | 2011 | H.B. 688 |
| Idaho | 2006 | Id Code § 33-205; §18-917a; §33-132; §33-512 |
| Illinois | 2001 | ILCS §105 5/10-20.14; §5/22-12; §5/27-13.3; §5/27-23.7 |
| Indiana | 2005 | IC 5-2-10.1, IC 20-33-8 |
| Iowa | 2007 | Iowa Code §280.12; §280. |
| Kansas | 2007 | KSA 72-8256 |
| Kentucky | 2007 | KRS 158 KY Rev. Stat § 525.070 |
| Louisiana | 2001 | La. R.S. 17 § 416.13; §14:40.7 |
| Maine | 2005 | PL 1999 Sec. 1. 20-A; MRSA 20-A § 6554 |
| Maryland | 2005 | Md Code §7-424 |
| Massachusetts | 2009 | Mass General Laws §71 Section 37 |
| Michigan | 2011 | Michigan Compiled Laws §380.1310b |
| Minnesota | 2006 | Minnesota Statutes 121A.0695 |
| Mississippi | 2001 | Education Law Sec. 37-11-20; §37-11-67 |
| Missouri | 2006 | Mo. R.S. §160.775 |
| Nebraska | 2008 | LB 205 amending NE §79-267; NE §79-2,127 |
| Nevada | 2005 | NRS 388.132, 1325; §388.122; §388.123 |
| New Hampshire | 2000 | N.H. RSA 193-F |
| New Jersey | 2002 | N.J.S.A. 18A:37-13-32 |
| New Mexico | 2006 | New Mexico Education Code §22-2-21 |

(Continued)

Table I (Continued)

| <i>State</i> | <i>Year</i> | <i>Citation</i> |
|----------------|-------------|---|
| New York | 2002 | NY CLS Educ § 2801-a; NY Education Law §10-18 |
| North Carolina | 2004 | Policy # SS-A-007 §115C-407.15 |
| North Dakota | 2011 | HB 1465 |
| Ohio | 2007 | ORC 3313.666, ORC 3301.22; §3313.667 |
| Oklahoma | 2002 | Ok Stat. 70 § 24-100.2-5 |
| Oregon | 2001 | Ore. Laws 617; Or. Rev Stat. § 339.351; § 339-353; §339.356; §339.359; §339.363; §339.364 |
| Pennsylvania | 2008 | PA Consolidated Statute §13.1301.1A |
| Rhode Island | 2003 | R.I. Gen, Laws § 16-21; §16.21.34; R.I. Gen, Laws § 16-21; §16.21.34 |
| South Carolina | 2006 | S.C. Code Ann § 59-63-120 |
| South Dakota | 2012 | SB No. 130 |
| Tennessee | 2005 | Tenn. Code Ann. §§ 49-6-1014 through 49-6-1019 |
| Texas | 2005 | Tx Code § 25.0342 §21.451; §28.002; §37.00, §37.083 |
| Utah | 2008 | Section 53A-11a-101; §76-9-201 |
| Vermont | 2001 | V.S.A. 16 § 570c |
| Virginia | 2005 | Va. Code § 22. .1-208.01, 22.1-279.3:1, 22.1-279.6 |
| Washington | 2002 | RCW 28A.300.285; §28A.600.480 |
| West Virginia | 2001 | W.Va. Code Ann. § 18-2C-3-6 |
| Wisconsin | 2010 | Wisconsin Statute §118.46 |
| Wyoming | 2009 | Wyoming Statute annotated §21-4-313 |

4. an explanation of consequences;
5. details for enforcement of the policy;
6. procedures for reporting acts of bullying;
7. a statement prohibiting retaliation for reporting acts of bullying;
8. a statement regarding immunity for reporting in good faith;
9. steps for investigating reports of bullying;
10. procedures for data collection; and
11. a plan for publicizing policy and providing instruction on best practices in prevention and intervention.

Cyberbullying and the School's Responsibility

Cyberbullying is an intentional, repeated action involving the use of technology to harass, intimidate, or threaten another person. There are unique legal considerations related to this newer form of bullying. Although it often occurs off-campus, the school may have a responsibility to address cyberbullying if it is brought to the attention of school personnel. Cyberbullying is within the nexus of the school if

- school equipment was involved;
- the incident occurred or originates at school or during a school-related activity; or
- the bullying created a substantial disruption on the school campus.

Under any of these conditions the school should investigate and may move forward with disciplinary action if appropriate. If these conditions are not met, disciplinary action would not be appropriate and may violate a student's First Amendment rights.

Conclusion: Key Points to Remember

There is no doubt that educators have a legal responsibility for addressing bullying prevention and responding to bullying incidents. Making a conscientious effort to prevent and intervene in bullying incidents is integral to fulfilling this responsibility. The following are key points regarding prevention and intervention.

- Ensure the district and school have a policy addressing bullying that aligns with state law.
- Know and implement the policy.
- Implement an evidence-based program that incorporates a blend of environmental, prevention, and intervention strategies.
 - Environmental strategies are systemic and focus on changing aspects of the learning environment that may contribute to the bullying problem (survey students, staff, and families; increase supervision; develop school rules; be sure students know reporting procedures; review the physical design of the school; schedule activities that promote positive interaction; involve families and community).
 - Prevention programs must incorporate multilevel strategies that are integrated into existing school initiatives and include the entire school population. Prevention should begin with core instruction to benefit all students, including classroom activities and curriculum integration designed to increase awareness of bullying and empower students to respond to bullying. Small group or individual prevention lessons for students needing additional support should be built into the prevention program. All prevention strategies should be supported with ongoing staff development.
- Intervention efforts focus directly on students involved in bullying and are designed to stop existing bullying behavior, as well as prevent future incidents (know warning signs, investigate reports, protect the victim, provide appropriate consequences, redirect behavior, involve parents).
- Take appropriate action when incidents are reported.
- Maintain a safe environment that is conducive to learning.

Understanding legal issues will help educators to be proactive and respond in legally appropriate ways when bullying occurs.

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See also Bullying and Bullying Prevention; Bullying, Gender Differences in; Climate: School and Classroom; Law and Classroom Management

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CARING APPROACHES

All teachers consider themselves caring. No one advocates an uncaring approach to classroom management. So what is it that singles out some approaches to classroom discipline and management as caring? Caring approaches to classroom management differ from most approaches in their goals, their view of children, the nature of the curriculum, and their concrete strategies for managing students and the classroom.

While most approaches to classroom management focus on obtaining efficient control over student behavior, caring approaches focus on building a caring learning community. Care—not control—is their central goal. Furthermore, the ethical development of students, as well as their commitment to caring and democratic values, is as important a goal as academic learning in caring approaches.

Caring approaches are guided by a different theoretical model than most other approaches. Since the early part of the twentieth century, most approaches to classroom management have been grounded in *learning theory* and thus viewed children as being primarily self-interested, individually responsible for their behavior, and needing to be controlled through the judicious use of rewards and punishments.

Caring approaches have a more complex view of children and their motivations. Children are viewed as needing a supportive social context in which to learn and develop as good and capable people. Yes, children seek pleasure and avoid pain, but empathy, basic morality, and an intrinsic desire to learn are also part of their inbuilt nature. In a supportive context wherein their basic needs are met, they will be intrinsically motivated to care and learn as well as to avoid pain and seek happiness.

Because caring approaches strive to honor students' intrinsic desire to learn, these help shape the curriculum around children's interests and events in their own lives to enliven units of study. These approaches strive to relate classroom learning to students' interests so that they will want to learn what the teacher is required to teach.

Finally, in caring approaches, explanation and guidance replace extrinsic rewards and punishments. You will not see color charts, names on the board, or point systems posted on the walls. Caring approaches eschew the many ingenious extrinsic means on which other approaches to classroom management depend. Rather, they focus on creating a caring, supportive context that will *allow* or *help* rather than *coerce* or *entice* students to behave well. We turn now to examine in more detail each of these defining features of caring approaches.

Goals

In caring approaches, building a classroom in which students feel cared for because their physical, intellectual, and emotional needs are met is both a goal in its own right as well as a means to foster students' learning and ethical development. From the perspective of caring approaches, it is the moral duty of educators to do all in their power to create a caring community of learners. In such an environment, it is assumed that children will want to make the most of their educational opportunities and contribute to the happiness of others.

While all approaches to classroom management share the goal of fostering the academic development of each student, caring approaches add the element of fostering students' ethical development. Harkening back to the early work of educator and philosopher John Dewey, caring approaches view the development of a

commitment to democratic values as an essential goal of schooling. Reaching this goal involves immersing children in a moral, democratic environment and teaching the social, emotional, and ethical competencies needed to live up to democratic values.

View of Children

Caring approaches begin with the teacher's attitude of respect for children—for their interests, feelings, values, and ideas. On first glance, caring approaches may seem to have an unrealistic, rose-colored view of children. However, a considerable body of research stemming from multiple theoretical positions supports viewing children as natural learners possessing an innate capacity for empathy and a desire for social connection. Research on children's behavior and development in the family has documented the early dispositions of children to learn, be empathic, and seek caring relationships. In recent laboratory research, very young children have demonstrated spontaneous helpfulness to strangers for no personal gain. Studies in human motivation across ages and cultures document the pervasive need for children as well as adults to have a sense of autonomy, a feeling of belonging, and the experience of competence.

It is clear from research that children are intrinsically empathic and eager to learn. However, in order for them to thrive they need to be in an environment where they can succeed, where their teacher and classmates care about them, and where they generally feel they are acting in accord with their own free will. Hence, when children misbehave—fail to work hard, are mean to classmates, disrupt the learning environment—caring teachers do not begin by looking for the source of the problem in the child. First, they check out the learning environment. Is it safe and caring? Are the learning activities too challenging? Are they interesting and sufficiently challenging? Is there room for students to be guided by their own interests?

Sometimes, however, the problem is in the child. A teacher may do everything to meet a student's needs and still fail to reach the child and help him or her become a productive member of the classroom community. The following comment from one teacher about her efforts to reach one of her third-grade students describes such a situation:

I'm having difficulty knowing what to do—Martin is having so much trouble. . . . I know it's my job to teach that child, and I know it's my job to do anything and everything humanly possible to make him successful. But I'm at the point where all I do is think about him. He consumes me.

While most students respond positively to the reasonable efforts of a caring teacher, it is not the case for all children. Some children, because of previous harmful experiences, challenge the teacher, disrupt the learning environment, harm classmates, or fail to engage in learning activities. Caring approaches advise teachers to keep on trying while exercising whatever control is necessary to prevent those students from harming themselves, others, or the learning environment.

One caring approach—developmental discipline—draws on a body of research on children's attachment relationships with their primary caregivers. Studies in nearly every country have documented that all infants form attachment relationships with their caregivers. Most of these relationships are secure, allowing children to form new positive relationships and learn about the world. These children will enter the classroom expecting their teacher to be caring and thus generally comply with their teacher's guidance insofar as they are able.

Sometimes, however, the early attachment relationship is insecure for a variety of reasons. Children will not trust their teachers or peers. They will have poor social and emotional skills and a withdrawn or combative nature. Trying to control their behavior through rewards and punishments further confirms their mistrustful view of human relationships. Developmental discipline, as well as other caring approaches, stresses the importance of teachers continuing to treat students with care while controlling their harmful behavior firmly but kindly. The goal is to change students' view of the world—to help them realize that they are cared about and that they are worthy of care.

An Engaging Student-Centered Curriculum and Pedagogy

Sometimes the problem is in the curriculum. Given the focus on the need to respect student autonomy and the belief that children want to learn if their learning tasks are interesting, relevant, and within their capabilities, we should expect caring approaches to be concerned about curriculum and pedagogy, as well as about management strategies. Even with their positive view of intrinsically motivating students to learn, caring approaches would not expect students to willingly embrace a top-down curriculum focused on rote learning. And so teachers adopting a caring approach strive to connect classroom learning to the students' interests, thus giving students freedom, a voice, and ownership in their own learning process.

In caring approaches, then, curriculum, pedagogy, and classroom management are all part of one goal—creating a caring community of learners. The curriculum is focused on building student understanding, its relevance to students' lives and interests, and moral

as well as academic learning. The pedagogy involves active engagement, choice, collaborative learning, and authentic opportunities to share one's learning with the community.

Classroom Management Strategies

Caring approaches begin with a strong focus on building a caring, relational community and aim to meet students' physical, emotional, and intellectual needs. Teachers conduct activities so they can get to know and like their students and, in turn, enable students get to know and like their teachers. For example, Marvin Berkowitz describes a middle/high school teacher who creates an autobiographical niche in the classroom, and an elementary school teacher who begins the year having students interview her. Many caring teachers use humor and a variety of activities to foster the exchange of personal information across all members of the classroom community. For example, students might be asked to interview one another and share the information they learned about their partner with the rest of the class. Learning activities involving a partner or a small group are frequently used and are focused not only on getting tasks done but also on relating to each other and attempting to resolve inevitable conflicts in ways that maintain the relationships. In caring approaches, there is a conscious striving to create an atmosphere of mutual caring and respect in the classroom, and the role of a teacher often seems like that of a good parent.

Because caring approaches aim to foster students' ethical as well as intellectual development, teachers often involve students in deciding the guiding principles for their classroom. Students from preschool to high school know they should be kind and fair, but they are sometimes not.

Teachers using a caring approach strive to build on their students' emerging moral knowledge by involving them in developing classroom rules or norms. For example, at the preschool level students can make decisions about rules for the block area and for the use of art materials; older students can set guidelines for the classroom, and still older students can determine the rules for their school.

Involving students in establishing guiding principles for their school not only honors their growing moral knowledge but also supports their sense of autonomy. When students help to develop the guidelines for their classroom, they realize that they really want to follow those guidelines even when they would sometimes not want to.

A defining characteristic of caring approaches is the supportive stance that teachers take with students. Because teachers view students as wanting to learn and

be good people, teachers view their own role as one of helping students succeed, whether in academic learning tasks or social behavior. When students are struggling, teachers may provide encouragement and allow more time for the students or look for ways to scaffold the students' learning.

Whatever the area of difficulty, the focus is on support. For example, when students are engaged in a conflict, teachers can send them to a conflict resolution table where they will be guided by a step-by-step process to resolve the conflict. Teachers using a caring approach strive to afford students opportunities for autonomy while being ready to scaffold or guide struggling students to good solutions. For example, when a student is making little progress in an extended curriculum unit, the teacher might provide more support by conferencing with the student to plan and manage his or her time better.

Whether the students' problems are academic or interpersonal, the general goal is to provide them with sufficient help rather than punish or allow them to experience the natural consequences of their poor behavior. As Alfie Kohn argues, this *working with* approach asks more of the teacher than does a *doing to* approach. Even if the latter succeeds in improving order temporarily, it does so by undermining students' moral development and compromising the relationship between teacher and students.

Of course, classrooms are busy places, sometimes inundated with a wide variety of student misbehavior, and there is usually only one teacher. How does a caring teacher deal with the myriad of problems? Depending on his or her judgment about the cause of the problem, the teacher might ignore, externally control, alter the environment, engage students in joint problem solving, teach needed social or emotional skills, or help students assess the harm their behavior has caused while guiding them to repair that harm. When misbehavior occurs, caring teachers favor a light touch. Often walking close to a student or calling out the student's name will serve as a reminder to a misbehaving student to change his or her behavior.

During moments when the teacher is unable to offer the needed explanation or guidance for a student's persisting misbehavior, a caring teacher will use common classroom control techniques. For example, a student who persistently disrupts a class meeting or a lesson may be asked to move to a different place. However, if such measures are taken, the focus is on solving the problem caused by the student's behavior—not on punishing the student for the behavior. Such actions are usually followed by explanation and guidance, and every effort is made to minimize the student's discomfort or embarrassment.

Caring teachers focus on establishing caring relationships with students and convincing even the most

troublesome students that their teacher can be counted on to provide support and guidance. In one high school, for example, when students broke a serious community rule, the students on the disciplinary committee were encouraged to support the offending students by showing them that they were not alone, that they belonged in the school community, and that they had it within them to live up to the community's expectations for good behavior.

Is a Caring Approach Right for All Students?

Some educators have argued that a caring approach to discipline may be appropriate for some students but not for students who may be accustomed to more authoritarian or demanding child-rearing approaches. However, teachers can be both caring and demanding. What is important about a caring approach to classroom management is that the students perceive that their teacher cares about their well-being and that the teacher's actions are meant to help the students. Research in family socialization practices has found that children thrive when they perceive that their parents' actions are designed to help them regardless of how controlling the parents may be. Teachers have successfully used caring approaches in schools in the inner city as well as in the suburbs. Teachers have the responsibility to exercise their authority for the good of all the students in their care. In some situations or with some students, they may need to be highly demanding. For example, for students who put little effort into their learning, teachers may need to reject shoddy work and tell them to do their work over or stay in from recess or after school to complete the work. However, whether demanding academic effort, respect, or kindness toward others, the caring teacher's actions need to carry the message: "I care about you too much to let you fail to learn or fail to be the best person you can be."

Conclusion

Teachers using a caring approach to classroom management focus on creating a caring classroom community with the goal of supporting the development of their students' social, emotional, and moral as well as academic competencies. Because they view children as not only self-interested but also interested in learning and needing caring relationships, they believe that students will learn and try to be fair and kind if their teachers provide guidance and support. Caring teachers avoid controlling student behavior through rewards and punishments. Instead, they seek to join with each student in a caring learning partnership.

Marilyn Watson

See also Active Listening and I-Messages; Approaches to Classroom Management: Types; Class Meetings; Climate: School and Classroom; Democratic Practices in Classrooms and Schools; Just Community; Kohlberg, Lawrence; Moral Development Theories; Progressive Education; Respect; Trust, Building; Warmth and Classroom Management

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CASEL

See Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning

CHARACTER EDUCATION

Character education refers to a broad set of methods used to teach character development in educational settings. It is highly pertinent to classroom management

because it targets the students' psychology and behavior. For example, character development invariably attends to students' antisocial behaviors that could have a deleterious impact on any classroom climate. What is more, some character education initiatives address psychological variables that are not only relevant outside school but also affect a student's orientation to classroom learning (e.g., self-confidence, motivation, attitudes, ability to interact with peers, and general emotional intelligence). This entry discusses outcomes of character education that pertain to classroom management and offers recommendations for educators for attending to best practices.

Common and Divergent Definitions

In the United States, many different labels denote methods for teaching character in institutions of learning, and each is historically associated with divergent philosophical views about what constitutes character and how it should be taught. At one time, the term character education denoted conservative, traditional, and behavioral approaches. It sharply contrasted with the comparatively liberal, constructivist, and cognitive approach of moral education and with the attitudinal, atheoretical, and empirical approach of values education. International preferences in terminology also proliferate, with the terms *moral education* and *values education* frequently used in parts of the United Kingdom and *moralogy* used in Japan, for example.

In recent decades, however, a shift toward data-driven practices in education and a shared understanding that character development includes all aspects of thinking, doing, and feeling have bridged competing perspectives. Today, character education is used as an umbrella term for initiatives that share the aim of impacting student development of a particular type: Prosocial attitudes, behaviors and emotions, knowledge of ethical issues, moral identity, prevention of risky behaviors, conflict resolution skills, or virtues that allow students to act as moral agents may be target outcomes. The terms moral education, values education, citizenship education, social-emotional education, and social skills training are now all included in a taxonomy of character education, though this list is not exhaustive.

Outcomes of Character Education

There are many established, formal character education programs in the United States (e.g., Child Development Project; Facing History and Ourselves), but the vast majority are homegrown, constructed, and then conducted in institutions such as schools, churches, and nonprofit organizations. Relatively few programs have

been studied scientifically, and yet it is clear that evaluation is critical to identifying the effective strategies educators can replicate.

Fortunately, a few research reviews of American school-based programs do exist. Findings on the effectiveness of character education in these reviews are mixed, but likely have something to do with the wide variety of practices implemented in the programs examined, the specific programs studied, the designs of the studies, and the age of the students assessed.

In one review, Berkowitz and Bier (2004) combed the literature for information about both self-identified character education initiatives and those categorized as character education even though they used different labels (social-emotional learning, violence prevention, service-learning, etc.). Their interest was in identifying the types of positive effects these programs displayed, and they limited their examination to only those studies that researched prekindergarten to Grade 12 programs with acceptable scientific designs.

The review has found that many of these programs pertain directly to classroom management outcomes, such as positive and negative behaviors, attitudes and attachment toward school, and initiative and independence in classroom learning activities. And it underscored the fact that character education programs can indeed be effective depending on the particular form they take and the best practices they use. Berkowitz and Bier found that several programs positively impacted school-related behaviors and attitudes. Programs that targeted students' attitudes toward teachers exhibited positive effects for 50% of the statistical tests run to ascertain impact. The findings were 59% for programs targeting academic achievement and 61% for those addressing attachment to school.

In contrast, several targeted outcomes of these programs were directly related to character variables, yet only indirectly related to school. Forty-three percent of the tests that assessed personal morality were significant when tested statistically, as were 87% of tests that assessed increases in students' character knowledge. The social-emotional outcomes, such as emotional competency, relationships, and socio-moral cognition—the most common focus of these programs—were positively affected in 43% to 87% of the tests across the reviewed studies. Additionally, outcomes associated with behavioral intervention or prevention (i.e., sexual behavior, drug use, violence, and aggression) showed positive effects in 43% to 91% of the tests run. Overall, 88% of the programs reviewed showed some positive impact.

In another review, the U.S. Department of Education's Institute for Educational Sciences (IES) screened all available studies on character education programs in kindergarten to Grade 12 for relevance,

soundness of research measures and design, and strength of evidence offered. Using a more parsimonious categorization system than Berkowitz and Bier's review, IES's analysis agreed that most character education programs do indeed boost academic achievement and impact some student behaviors, knowledge, attitudes, and values.

Although character education has been found to be effective in several cases, these findings are not without nuance. Berkowitz and Bier noticed that some of the programs they reviewed delivered detrimental rather than beneficial impacts to some outcomes. Likewise, a longitudinal study by the IES found similar results when they convened a special research consortium to examine the effectiveness of seven universal elementary school-based social and character development programs. Their sample was a cohort of students moving through third to fifth grade, and it included a comparison group of nontreatment schools. Their overall analysis found that, both collectively and individually, the programs had no real effects on student outcomes: Some improved the outcomes, some worsened them, but overall the positive effects were no more than what would be expected by chance. By their estimation, this could be attributed to failure of program designs or to weak implementation. Perhaps the differences in implementation between the treatment and comparison schools were not substantial enough to yield significant differences in statistical tests: A good number of U.S. states already mandate or endorse some sort of character education, so perhaps there were no substantive differences between the two school groups studied.

In any case, the relatively limited amount of current data on character education effectiveness continues to generate more questions than answers about the finer details of efficacy, but our hope is that character education is a plausible method for impacting positive student outcomes. As Berkowitz and Bier's review shows, although not all targeted outcomes may be positively affected by character education, a significant number are. Furthermore, given the rather eclectic nature of programs deemed character education, they claim that the appropriate question is not *whether* character education can work—it certainly can *if* it is of quality—but rather what are the features of quality character education.

Effective Character Education Practices

Character education initiatives range from single-classroom lessons to individual school-based prevention programs, to whole-school community approaches. What is more, there is a rather ubiquitous list of specific methodologies used in these programs. So, ascertaining what makes for quality character education is at least in part about examining the efficacy of *specific* strategies.

Studies do suggest that some of the effective character education programs employ multiple strategies. Multifaceted, systematic, and comprehensive programs are more likely to address the diverse and complex psychological phenomena that are a part of character development. Likewise, the school itself is a multifaceted environment that borders on so many other ecologies in the child's life that a comprehensive approach is warranted if it is to have a significant impact on the child's experience.

What does a multifaceted and comprehensive approach look like? Leading advocates of character education recommend long-term programs that involve regular assessment and school–community partnerships where all members of the school community are involved. The Character Education Partnership, for example, promotes 11 principles that schools should follow. They propose that schools start with a comprehensive definition of character and offer students opportunities to practice moral skills. When character education is implemented across the whole school community, the entire school culture is transformed. This approach to school reform theoretically results in positive student behavior, positive student–teacher relationships, and development and implementation of shared standards among all members.

In recent research conducted by the IES, teachers in schools with a comprehensive character education program used classroom activities to promote character and social development significantly more than teachers in comparison schools that did not have such programs. Perhaps this is because in schoolwide programs all participants agree to endorse a set of standards—such as core ethical and performance values—that they will apply across the school. Often, this occurs through a process of discussion that develops a vision and goals for the school environment.

Ideally, a comprehensive and multifaceted strategy implements and supports classroom rule setting that is normative in classroom management techniques: The rules are now better supported because students and faculty take greater ownership as participants in the process. With strong staff involvement and led by an effective school leader, adults in the school are more likely to serve as role models, not as detached instructors of character. Consequently, students experience more consistency in expectations across the school day because the standards are schoolwide and endorsed by teachers and staff. Ideally too, they are supported by parents. In short, this process of communitywide standard and goal setting builds common purpose and sets the foundation for the type of student behaviors that do not disrupt classroom learning.

This is not to say that stand-alone approaches are not effective. Berkowitz, Victor Battistich, and Bier

observe that moral dilemma discussions, cooperative learning, and some prevention programs are among the single-faceted approaches that have been highly researched. Moral dilemma discussions and cooperative learning, in particular, are pertinent to classroom management because they show how character education methods are easily integrated into classroom teaching so as to serve classroom management goals. Apparently, a host of research lends support to the effectiveness of moral dilemma discussions for heightening students' moral reasoning, and when done effectually, cooperative learning impacts conflict resolution skills, cooperation, and academic achievement.

Conclusion

Regardless of whether the approach to character education is multifaceted or stand-alone, an underlying theme emphasized by character education experts is that ensuring effectiveness depends on ensuring quality of strategy implementation. As with any educational method, character education strategies must be fully and properly implemented to be effective, with character educators receiving proper training and students engaging for the duration of the program.

Jenni Menon Mariano

See also Caring Approaches; Climate: School and Classroom; Community Approaches to Classroom Management; Cooperative Learning Groups; Democratic Practices in Classrooms and Schools; Ethics, Power, and Classroom Management; Japanese Model of Classroom Management; Just Community; Kohlberg, Lawrence; Quaker Education and Classroom Management

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CHEATING

Surveys indicate that cheating is widespread among high school and college students. News media report cheating scandals at highly regarded institutions. Nefarious websites such as WriteWork (formerly cheathouse.com) make the work of others available to students who are inclined to cut corners by plagiarizing. WriteWork's home page quotes a college professor as saying it is good news that one can turn to others' writing for help—and then reports one student's testimonial saying how the website helped get essays done faster and achieve better grades. That an epidemic of cheating has afflicted our educational system at all levels is no overstatement.

There are ways of fighting back. Turnitin, an innovative company founded by many academicians, provides useful assistance in identifying work that has been plagiarized. Banning programmable calculators, cell phones, and other messaging devices during exams can reduce the incidence of cheating. So also having two versions of the same exam that look similar but have different questions can result in some unpleasant surprises for students with wandering eyes.

However, policing and disciplinary measures, though necessary, do not get at the root of the problem. Underlying the cheating epidemic is a crisis of cultural values, with many viewing cheating as nothing more than what one does to get ahead. Moreover, simply resorting to policing and disciplinary measures makes an *us versus them* type of situation. Teachers intent on curtailing cheating almost always lose out in this contest of wills. With students outnumbering teachers, the side with the numerical advantage wins more often.

In short, if the incidence of cheating is to be reduced, it is essential that the culture of the classroom changes, a task that is admittedly far easier said than done.

What Is Wrong With Cheating

Although the inappropriateness of cheating might seem to be a matter beyond debate when viewed from the perspective of those who teach, one should not assume that students see things the same way. Indeed, they might well be operating on the assumption that there are all sorts of good reasons to cheat: getting better grades that improve one's chances of getting into a first-rate college, saving time on homework so as to have more time to spend with friends, or for a myriad of other reasons. Moreover, cheating in school might seem to some as simply an extension of what is happening elsewhere in society. We live in an era in which professional athletes use performance-enhancing drugs and dishonest business executives lie and cheat for personal gain.

However, the fact that cheating is widespread neither encourages teachers to excuse it nor gets them off the hook with respect to maintaining standards of integrity in the classroom. It does mean, though, that the case for academic integrity can no longer be assumed. Rather, it is something that teachers must address in the classroom in a proactive way every day of the academic year. This proactive approach must begin with teachers providing students with reasons for opting for integrity, rather than trying to cheat their way through school. What might some of those reasons be? Consider the following:

- Those who attempt to cheat their way through school (and through life) almost always end up hurting themselves in the long run. To be sure, some get higher grades on exams and written assignments than they would have got had they not cheated. The irony, however, is that they have cheated themselves by failing to learn what they should have learned while in school and, as a result, have limited their life chances.
- Cheating deprives oneself of the self-respect and sense of gratification that comes from working hard to achieve something.
- One who cheats is deprived of the respect of others.
- Cheating violates a fundamental (community-based) trust that all have the same opportunities to succeed and that everyone is operating on a level playing field.

In short, it is incumbent on teachers to give students valid reasons for opting for academic integrity rather than sliding into the easy, but costly, path of cheating.

Treating Others With Respect and Dignity

The widely read Jewish philosopher Martin Buber was on to something when he distinguished between the *I-Thou* relationship and the *I-It* relationship. The former views others as fellow human beings with whom we

share the wonderful gift of life—individuals who, like all of us, have hopes and fears, times of success and times of failure, times of joy and times of sorrow. The latter views others as nothing more than problems to be dealt with or tools to be used to accomplish whatever one might be attempting. Put very simply, there is way too much *I-It* in the classroom and not enough *I-Thou*—a shortcoming that is true of students and faculty alike. It is essential to go beyond the *us-them* mindset and transform the classroom into a learning community characterized by mutual respect and a shared desire to learn.

What can teachers do to increase awareness of the humanity of others and foster an environment of mutual respect in the classroom? Learning the names of every student in the class is certainly a good place to begin. So also is being genuinely interested in the activities in which students are involved and commending them for their achievements, be it a successful swim meet or a drawing in an art exhibition.

In the classroom, giving students generous measures of positive reinforcement when they participate in class discussions is essential. So also is respecting the views of students on controversial or debatable matters—in short, respecting students' academic freedom. Growing up is a brutal process that can sap adolescents and college-age students of every ounce of self-confidence they can muster. They need every bit of positive reinforcement teachers can give them.

Fostering an environment of mutual respect in the classroom is, of course, something worth doing simply on its own merits. It can also help curtail cheating. There is ample data suggesting that patients who view their doctors positively are far less likely to sue them in court than are patients who have not bonded with their doctors. The same is undoubtedly true in other areas. Though the data are hard to come by, it is a pretty good guess that students who respect their teachers and other students in their classes and view their classes positively are less likely to cheat. And they are far more likely to be eager to learn. Is it not what the classroom is all about?

Seeing the Person Behind the Faults

As previously noted, those who cheat should be held accountable and subjected to appropriate disciplinary action. The fact that someone has done something wrong, however, does not necessarily mean he or she is a bad person. Human nature is such that sometimes good people make bad decisions. Indeed, we all make mistakes from time to time, mistakes for which we can and should be held accountable.

Whether cheating occurs inside or outside the classroom, it is very easy for teachers and administrators

alike to block out the humanity of the one who cheated. Instead of being viewed as a person who has made a mistake, the person simply gets labeled a *cheater* and becomes an *it* instead of a *thou*, to use Buber's labels.

The reality, however, is that students who cheat are still human beings with hopes and fears, times of success and times of failure, times of joy and times of sorrow, and everything else that is involved in being human. It takes a certain strength of character for teachers and administrators to reach out and relate to the humanity of the person behind the faults, even as appropriate penalties are imposed. It is very easy to throw the book at the person and demonize him or her, which is often the worst way to respond.

Exceptional teachers and deans of students are able to reach out to students who cheat (or make other mistakes) and say to them, "Yes, you made a mistake and must accept the consequences for what you have done. We want you to know, however, that we still care about you and think the world of you." That is not an easy thing to say, but sometimes this is exactly what needs to be said.

Sometimes reaching out in other ways can help get the message across. For example, suppose a student who was held for cheating is a varsity volleyball player and has had an outstanding game. It can mean the world to that person if the teacher or the dean of students sends an email to the student the next day to say, "I greatly enjoyed seeing you play last night! You did a great job placing the ball where the defenders couldn't reach it. Keep up the good work!!"

There is a broader point to be made here. If we demonize those who make mistakes and treat them with contempt, we push them down the path of rebelliousness and sow the seeds for future misconduct. If we have the wisdom and strength of character to relate to the humanity of those behind the faults, while still holding them accountable for what they have done, we increase the likelihood that they learn from their mistakes. Redemption is often possible, but only if we and others are able to see the person behind the faults and treat that person with dignity and compassion.

Society Beyond the Classroom

Many have observed that cheating in the classroom reflects broader cultural values in an era in which cheating is widespread. Some have suggested that working to curb cheating elsewhere is essential if the problem of cheating in schools is to be fixed. The first statement is probably true. The second statement is not. The fact that cheating is widespread does not mean that measures to curb cheating in the classroom are exercises in

futility. While cheating in the classroom will never be eradicated completely, appropriate proactive measures can reduce the incidence of cheating.

There is a broader point that bears underscoring here as well. It is an incredible privilege to spend time in the classroom helping the leaders of tomorrow. Teachers who instill and nurture core ethical values such as integrity are in a unique position to help define the character of the society of the future. Teachers are very important agents of change.

Daniel E. Lee

See also Assessment of Tests and Exams; Caring Approaches; Character Education; Discipline, School and Classroom; Discipline Codes of Conduct; Schoolwide Discipline Policies

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CHECK IN/CHECK OUT

The Check In/Check Out (CICO) program (also known as the Behavior Education Program) was designed as a secondary (tier 2) targeted behavioral intervention for use within Schoolwide Positive Behavior Support (SWPBS) systems. In the three-tier SWPBS system, universal supports are implemented with all students (tier 1), secondary supports are implemented with students who are at risk of engaging in severe problem behaviors (tier 2), and tertiary interventions are implemented with students who show severe and/or dangerous behaviors (tier 3).

Tier 2 Interventions

For a behavioral intervention to qualify as a tier 2 system, the following should apply.

- Consistent, standardized implementation across students
- Easily accessible—that is, the intervention can begin within a few days of referral
- Continuously available
- Implemented by all school staff
- Aligns with and complements the schoolwide expectations and interventions

Given that the CICO program meets all of the above criteria, it is a popular and time-honored behavioral intervention perfectly suited for tier 2 implementation with students who are at risk of developing severe and/or dangerous problem behaviors. Thus, the primary goal of the CICO program is to prevent students from engaging in severe problem behaviors, thereby reducing the number of students who require intensive, individualized (and possibly function-based) interventions at tier 3.

Ideally, schools adopt the CICO program as a standard intervention for tier 2 behavioral needs. In doing so, a method for referral and decision making is necessary. Students for whom the tier 1 behavioral strategies were ineffective can be recommended for CICO based on the data collected through the SWPBS system. Another common method for referring students to tier 2 supports is teacher nomination.

Research on CICO interventions suggests that it is most effective with students whose problem behavior is primarily maintained by adult attention. Less success has been found with behaviors maintained by peer attention or escape from academic tasks. The suspected function of problem behavior can help teams determine the appropriateness of a CICO intervention for specific students. Although this is an important point to consider during team meetings, there is emerging evidence that CICO interventions can be combined with function-based components to enhance the program's effectiveness.

The Behavior Report Card

The CICO program is a behavior report card intervention embedded in a cycle of positive, encouraging, structured interactions with adults. Behavior report cards come in many forms, but the daily progress report in CICO specifically contains the behavioral expectations outlined in the SWPBS program. With supportive, standardized intervention, students are frequently monitored throughout the day according to the school's expectations and provided encouragement and feedback.

By design, daily progress reports should provide (1) structure and prompts for the student at regular intervals throughout the day, (2) written feedback from a coordinator and teachers, (3) visual reminders of personal goals and progress toward earning points, (4) data collection and progress summary, and (5) school-home communication. Reports include the school's behavioral expectations and an outline of the daily CICO schedule. For middle school students, the schedule follows the student's class periods, and for elementary students, it aligns with natural transitions throughout the day (e.g., morning recess, lunch, afternoon recess).

At each check out, the teacher uses a 1- to 3-point rating scale to judge the extent to which the student adhered to the expectations in the period, where 1 indicates not very well, 2 indicates acceptable, and 3 indicates very well. Figure 1 provides a sample of a generic daily progress report.

Implementation

The five essential components of CICO are implemented during each school day (see Figure 2).

1. Every morning, the student and CICO coordinator have a brief individual check-in meeting. Some schools hire a paraprofessional for 10–15 hours a week to serve as the CICO coordinator. During this morning meeting, the student should return the previous day's report card, signed. The coordinator awards points, praise, and encouragement based on the student's accomplishments. Then, the student is asked whether he or she is prepared for the day (e.g., has the necessary materials) and is prompted to identify a goal for that day. The coordinator reviews the behavioral expectations with the student.
2. At the beginning of the day or each class period, the student gives the daily progress report to the teacher. The teacher observes and provides typical feedback to the student throughout the period. At the end of the time period, the teacher completes the rating (1, 2, or 3), indicating the success of the student toward meeting the expectations. This is repeated for each time period in the daily schedule.
3. At the conclusion of the day, the student takes the daily progress report to the coordinator to check out. The coordinator calculates the daily points earned. Typically, a standard criterion for earning rewards is 80% of points possible. If a reward is earned, the coordinator offers praise and delivers the reward, which usually involves candy, snacks, school supplies, or activities (e.g., games, lunch with principal). Points can be saved over time or dispensed daily.

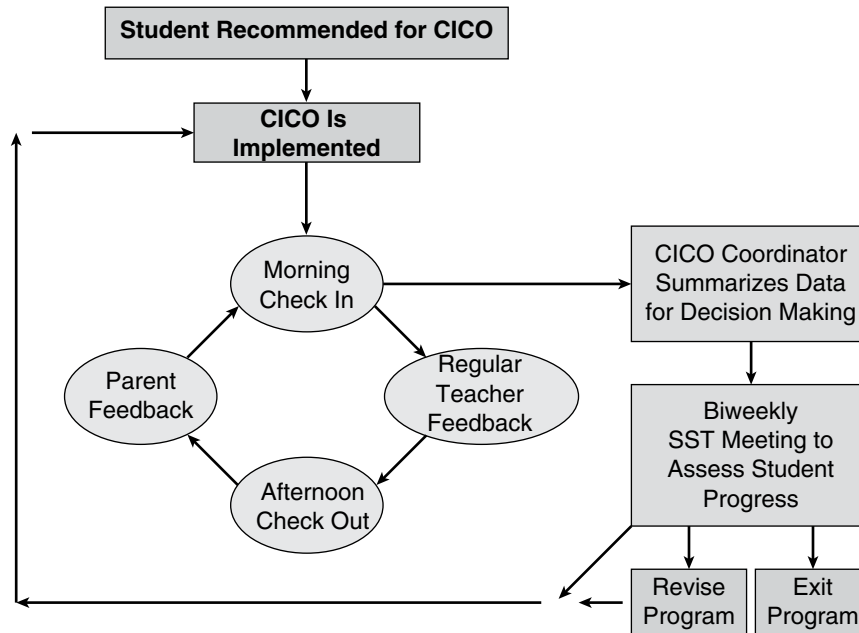
Figure 1 Sample Daily Progress Report

| Period # (Teacher Initial) | Name | | | | | | Date | | |
|----------------------------------|-----------|---|-------------|-------------------------------|-----------------|---|------|---|---|
| | 3 = Great | | 2 = OK | | 1 = Try Again | | | | |
| | Safe | | Responsible | | Respectful | | | | |
| Period 1 (_____) | 3 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| Period 2 (_____) | 3 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| Period 3 (_____) | 3 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| Period 4 (_____) | 3 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| Period 5 (_____) | 3 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| Period 6 (_____) | 3 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| Today's Goal _____ | | | | Today's Total Points _____/48 | | | | | |
| Signatures & Comments | | | | | | | | | |
| CICO Coordinator _____ | | | | | Parent(s) _____ | | | | |

Source: Everett et al. (2011, p. 52). Reprinted with permission.

4. The coordinator sends a summary report home with the student. Reports can either be a separate written report of the student's successes or a copy of the daily progress report. It is important that the coordinator retains the data so that they can be graphed and used to make decisions. The student is responsible for showing the report to his or her parents and getting it signed.
5. During the next morning's check in with the CICO coordinator, the student returns the signed progress report and receives points for returning it.

School teams should meet regularly (weekly or biweekly) to examine behavior data and make decisions. Generalization and maintenance of behavioral improvements can be accomplished by fading components of the CICO program (e.g., reducing the number of check ins/outs with teachers). Eventually, students who experience a significant reduction in problem behavior can be dropped from the program, and students who continue to engage or intensify their problem behavior can be given more comprehensive,

Figure 2 CICO Implementation Cycle

Source: Everett et al. (2011, p. 52). Reprinted with permission.

personalized intervention (tier 3). If fidelity of implementation is responsible for decreased effectiveness, revisions to the program and/or increased professional development may be needed.

Research Findings

A great deal of research has demonstrated CICO's effectiveness in elementary and middle schools. Measures to determine effectiveness include office discipline referrals, behavior reduction, and academic engagement. In addition and due to its efficient and simple execution, CICO is a favorite among teachers, parents, and students.

The success of the CICO program is directly related to its research-based foundation and to its following ingredients for effective intervention, namely (1) targeted and explicit skill instruction, (2) recognition of appropriate behavior, (3) increased adult support and supervision, and (4) frequent opportunities for feedback.

Conclusion: Setting Up a CICO Program

For those who are ready to set up a CICO program, there are many excellent resources to help. The most

comprehensive manual to get started and sustain a CICO program is the *School-Wide Tier II Interventions: Check-In Check-Out Getting Started Workbook*. It includes sample forms, self-assessments, procedural checklists, and training materials. In addition, if a CICO program is not adequate for the current need, there are a number of similar tier 2 behavioral intervention programs such as *daily report cards*, *check and connect*, and *first steps to success*.

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See also Behavioral Approaches, Foundations of; Schoolwide Positive Behavior Supports; Screening and Classroom Management; Tiered Assignments; Universal Screening; Whole-Class Measurement of Disruptive Behavior

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CHINESE MODEL OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

A great many factors come into play when considering classroom management in China. Given that China is a very large and diverse country, the way a classroom is managed in Sichuan Province, southwestern China, may be very different than the way it is managed in Beijing, in the east. Therefore, it can be difficult to generalize about the management of all classrooms in China.

Nevertheless, classrooms in China and the ways they are managed have deep roots in the culture itself; so classroom management goes beyond the teacher's personal methods of engaging and disciplining students. In this entry, the focus will be on the assertion that culture, society, parents, school, teachers, and students come together to provide a particular pattern that can be identified as a Chinese model of classroom management.

Culture and Society

Traditions of classroom management in China can be traced back to the days of Confucius over 2,500 years ago. The philosophy of Confucius emphasized personal and governmental morality and correctness of social relationships, and Confucian practices still play a large part in modern Chinese classroom management strategies. A particular influence, discussed throughout this entry, is the Confucian hierarchical system of management, which emphasizes the relationship between the superior and the inferior—parent and child, teacher and student, more capable student and less capable student. The system also emphasizes the importance of self-management and the understanding of one's place within the system, with the purpose of increasing social harmony. Essentially, each individual plays a role within the social order, and it is important that those roles are

clearly demarcated and followed. Chinese people are always aware of their position or rank within a group. Having an understanding of the Confucian hierarchical system can be beneficial to understanding the behaviors and expectations of Chinese students.

Parents

In Chinese society, success commonly means finding a high-paying, high-status career, and this success is viewed as being achieved through hard work in school. Education plays a very important role in Chinese society, as it is viewed as the gateway to success. Parents are major contributors to their children's pursuit of this success. Chinese parents often push their children to achieve top marks in class. It is extremely common for parents to spend thousands of dollars on their children's after-school and weekend tutoring programs, particularly in subjects such as math, science, English, and the arts.

Parents often see education as the key to ascending the social ladder and are often willing to do whatever it takes to see their child succeed. This can translate to a zero-tolerance policy when it comes to poor behavior or performance in class. Thus, parents often have a strong, indirect influence over the classroom environment.

School

Education is one of the major tools that drive the social agenda in China. Most schools impose a uniform dress code to encourage conformity and avoid outside distractions, keeping the focus on academics and away from issues such as class distinctions. Schools expect teachers to show students how to follow and fit into the social hierarchy. Academic programs are often focused heavily on testing, including high-stakes exams such as high school and college entrance exams. Class sizes can often be large (40–60 students per class), leading to a curriculum and pedagogy that promotes structure and order.

Teachers

In the Chinese society, teachers play a very important role as the ones who drive the success of future generations. Teachers are highly respected for their knowledge and understanding of their content areas, as well as for their roles within the social hierarchy.

Teaching Methods

Owing to large class sizes and a traditional teaching methodology known as *spoon-feeding the duck*—a method that compares the teaching to force-feeding livestock—classes are often highly organized,

lecture-based, and teacher-centered, providing limited interaction between the teacher and the students. For example, in a question/answer section of a lecture, the teacher may pose a question and call on one student to give an answer. This process may be repeated for several questions. If a student would like to volunteer, she or he is expected to raise her or his hand and should not speak until called upon. There is often little or no room for informal discussion of study topics, and if a student does have a question, she or he may feel too uncomfortable to ask during class. Many will choose to wait until after class and ask their classmates for help or meet with the teacher privately.

Punishment Methods

Corporal punishment is no longer lawful in China. When a student acts out in class, she is often sent to stand in the back of the classroom for the duration of the lecture, so as not to distract her classmates. She will also likely be expected to speak with the teacher after class about her behavior. As rote memorization is a large part of the Chinese education system, unruly students may also be asked to memorize passages from their textbooks or from famous historical poems. They may also be asked to clean the classroom after school.

Level of Command

If a teacher is having issues with the behavior of a particular student, there is often a strict policy to follow. Upon the first occurrence, a teacher will directly punish the student in the way she sees fit. If the teacher is forced to punish a student due to poor behavior, it is expected that she will send home a note to the parents explaining the student's behavior and the accompanying punishment. The parents will then be expected to sign the note and send it back.

If the poor behavior persists and does not improve, the teacher will schedule a meeting with the parents and the student to discuss steps to resolve the issue. If the behavior is considered particularly serious, such as if it involves violence or theft, the issue will be brought to the administrative level and handled according to the school's rulebook.

If the behavior involves the class as a whole, the teacher will hold a class meeting called a *bānhuì*. Class meetings are held to explain the issue at hand and discuss about what should be done to resolve the issue.

Students

A large portion of the management of Chinese classrooms is actually handled on a peer level, by the

students themselves. At the elementary school level, Chinese students are often treated not as children but as young adults, and their behavior is expected to reflect this. Children are expected to act as responsible members of the community, understanding their particular role in the hierarchy and how they should navigate it.

As the social hierarchy is an essential aspect of Chinese society, social status exists even within the classroom, particularly through the establishment of leadership roles. Each class has as many as eight leaders per semester. Roles are often assigned based on merit, although they are sometimes assigned through a democratic voting process among students. These roles can include the following: president (*bānzǎng*), who ranks behind the teacher as number two within the classroom and whose roles include managing all class leaders, helping struggling students, and helping in any way the teacher sees fit; monitor (*zhìxù wēiyuán*), who manages the behavior of his classmates, handling behavioral issues personally or reporting to the teacher when classmates do not follow the rules; study leader (*xuéxí wēiyuán*), who manages the academics of his classmates, providing them with a positive academic model and aiding those who struggle, sometimes by forming special study groups; and little teacher (*xiǎo lǎoshī*), selected by the study leader as his assistant to give particular attention to and tutor classmates struggling in a particular subject. Through the maintenance of these roles and through the perpetuation of the Confucian hierarchical management system, much of the classroom management in Chinese classrooms is handled among the students themselves.

Concluding Remarks: New Trends

Owing to the increasing number of Chinese teachers traveling abroad to study as well as the growing number of foreign teachers moving to China to teach, much is being shared and discussed in terms of best teaching practices and education reform in China. As a result, more and more Chinese teachers are feeling comfortable to branch out from the traditional Chinese style of management and to explore new methods of working with students. This experimentation is having an impact on the roles of both the teacher and the students, and so in the years ahead, an updated review of the Chinese model of classroom management will likely appear quite different from the one presented here. The most apt generalization about classroom management in China may be that classroom management in China is changing.

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See also Asian American Students; Asian Americans as Model Minority; Japanese Model of Classroom Management

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CHORAL RESPONSE

Choral response is a whole-group teaching strategy in which the class responds aloud and in unison to a teacher-posed question or statement. This technique is effective in promoting active engagement from all students, as it increases students' opportunity to respond and the rate of active student response (ASR). In addition to serving as a quick gauge of whether most students have understood key concepts, choral response can be utilized to efficiently focus the attention of the class during transitions. When skillfully planned and executed, choral response offers a simple and effective means of fostering a dynamic and inclusive classroom environment.

Drawbacks of Traditional Response Formats

Classroom interaction patterns between teacher and students are often clearly discerned in question/answer rituals. Students actively participate by responding to questions, but opportunities for engagement are severely limited if the teacher uses only conventional techniques.

In the typical *traditional* scenario, the teacher poses a question that is audible to the entire class, but is expecting to hear a response from a single student. After several seconds of waiting, the teacher may either select from one of several volunteers or designate a student without regard for who is raising a hand to answer. Although this approach to questioning has a place in most classrooms and sometimes works well, several pitfalls commonly occur.

In the first (hand-raising) variation, teachers often lament that only a few high-achieving, motivated students choose to participate in this way and that these same students are chosen again and again to answer questions. If

no hands are raised, the teacher may begin to *fish* for the correct answer—after giving additional hints or reframing the question—in an effort to end the awkward silence that arises in the wake of a lingering question. Unfortunately, this sequence of events can easily put a damper on any existing instructional momentum. Moreover, by posing multiple questions in one, the well-intentioned teacher sometimes fuels further confusion on concepts that students are already hesitant to speak aloud about. The teacher may eventually become frustrated or disheartened by the fact that no one appears to be able to answer, despite his or her impression that he or she is practically giving away the answers. This, in turn, can lead to more self-doubt and acting out on the part of the students, some of whom may sense they are being patronized.

In the latter variation, the students are at the mercy of the teacher, waiting to be called on. At worst, this can place them in the disempowering role of passively hoping to avoid all interaction with the teacher and the curriculum. Students who are struggling with the material are more vulnerable to feeling embarrassed and alienated in this situation. In addition to causing some student discomfort, this approach does little to maintain the interest of the rest of the class, especially once the teacher has named a student to answer. Having successfully escaped from the teacher-as-interrogator, others are free to disengage from thinking about a question that was perceived as a threat from the start. Similarly, students who were previously called on to answer may begin to relax with the knowledge that they are off the hook for the remainder of the lesson. Repeated interactions of these types can essentially deplete the energy of the classroom. Clearly, this is a highly undesirable result, as active engagement is the cornerstone to academic success.

Benefits of Choral Response

In contrast, a few spirited rounds of choral response can have the effect of reinvigorating a class, by inducing participation and encouraging group cohesiveness and positive morale. Furthermore, students are socially reinforced when they respond alongside their peers, without fear of being exposed as being different or not knowing the answer. Having partaken in this collective experience several times, the student who is reluctant to answer individually may gain the courage to raise his or her hand.

The strength of choral response as an instructional strategy lies in its capacity to increase ASR, which is shown to promote academic success. Feedback is immediate, so students can monitor their own comprehension in real time and compare it to the rest of the class. This is a key advantage over traditional response methods for students who mistakenly believe they know the answers to questions being asked. If these students are not fully

attentive, they are likely to miss hearing the correct answers and thus persist in holding misinformation.

For teachers also, there is no easier way of assessing, *in vivo*, whether the class is generally keeping up with the pace of instruction. Although it can be difficult for teachers to pick out which students are falling behind, this inherent drawback can be addressed by interspersing choral response with other methods of ASR and formative assessment.

Choral response can be of particular use in working with students with behavior disorders, such as attention deficit hyperactivity disorder and other types of special needs. By increasing ASR, choral response can help to decrease the frequency of disruptions and lead to a greater proportion of time on task in the classroom. One caveat, however, is that the more stimulating nature of the activity itself may lead to unruly behavior from some students. As with the introduction of any new practice, teachers are advised to thoroughly model, teach, and practice behavioral expectations in order to optimally enjoy the many benefits of choral response.

Choral Response in Practice: General Uses and Strategies

Despite it being one of the most long-standing classroom practices used across the world to teach students of every age, many modern educators in the United States neglect the potential of choral response. It is typically associated with second language classrooms where it is used to teach pronunciation or increase fluency, but applications can extend into any subject area. Instructionally, it can be used to introduce new content or vocabulary, practice learned skills, or review previously learned concepts. Choral response can also be used as a more general attention-getting strategy to manage classroom transitions.

Using choral response in instruction requires careful attention to planning the questions that will be asked, the sequence they will be asked in, and the pacing of the session. Questions that are appropriate for this format have only one correct answer that can be related in a word or short phrase following a signal from the teacher. Sessions are most effective when they are well-timed and fast-paced in order to maximize engagement. A teacher might briskly alternate between eliciting choral and individual responses during a single session, in which case she may reinforce concepts by having the class repeat individuals' correct answers. Given the need for short responses that are likely at the recall level of comprehension, it is not recommended that teachers excessively rely on this practice to the exclusion of other techniques that might promote higher-level thinking. In moderation, however, choral response is an excellent tool for helping students to build their skills and cement their knowledge.

Choral Response Within an Equitable and Culturally Responsive Pedagogy

Equity pedagogy, as conceptualized by James Banks, is a teaching approach that emphasizes the importance of providing students from diverse backgrounds the necessary knowledge and dispositions to have equal opportunities for full participation in a just society. Teachers subscribing to this philosophy seek to broaden their repertoires to include a variety of practices to reach all students. Within this framework, culturally responsive teaching capitalizes on the unique cultural and linguistic strengths that ethnically diverse students bring to the classroom to make their learning more accessible and personally relevant. Geneva Gay has extensively discussed the theory and practice of culturally responsive teaching, citing evidence of positive effects on academic outcomes. Culturally responsive teaching not only addresses histories, customs, and traditions held by ethnic groups through curricular content but also acknowledges and validates distinct interaction styles, linguistic conventions, and behavioral norms. These are incorporated into practice for the purpose of enriching student instruction.

Cultural anthropologist Thomas Kochman has contrasted what he calls the *participatory-interactive* discourse pattern of a number of ethnic groups with the *passive-receptive* mode usually expected of students in Western society. One detail that scholars note about the communication style of African Americans is that it often invokes a call-and-response element. This is best exemplified in the singing and oral storytelling that is a fundamental part of the religious experience in African American churches, but the same feature is present to a lesser degree in conversational patterns and other forms of discourse. This element, along with speech that is conspicuously expressive or narrative in nature, is prevalent among numerous cultures around the world, especially those rooted in oral traditions. By adopting varied communication and response formats, including choral response, teachers draw on these differences to foster a more positive classroom community that affirms the cultural experiences of all students.

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See also Active Student Responding; Culturally Pluralistic Classrooms; Culturally Responsive Classrooms for African American Students

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CLASS MEETINGS

In a classroom, a class meeting is a process to involve all students in a discussion about a specific topic. It serves the purpose of actively engaging students in both the academic and social life of the classroom and school. Many rationales have been given for holding class meetings, including improving classroom climate and promoting values and skills central to being a citizen of a democratic country.

One of the rationales is that student engagement has been shown to be essential to student learning. Although student engagement is necessary for all students to succeed, it is especially important for students who come from disadvantaged circumstances, families, or neighborhoods. Disadvantages associated with economic and social marginalization, especially in high-poverty and urban areas, can be mitigated by an engaging school community that promotes students' confidence, belief in the value of education, and a sense of belonging.

Class meetings have long been associated with the work of William Glasser, whose widely read book, *Schools Without Failure* published in 1969, contended that activities such as class meetings give students a sense of belonging; they empower students by actively involving them with other students to solve problems and engaging in discussions about content they perceive to be relevant to their lives.

Purposes of Class Meetings

Class Governance

One of the primary purposes of class meetings is to serve as a vehicle to involve students in class governance. In order for students to learn about democratic processes, they must have hands-on experiences that engage them in rule making and problem solving in the

classroom community. Toward this end, the first days of school should introduce students to class meetings and use the first class meeting as a way for students to establish class rules and to discuss both the teacher's and students' expectations for the school year.

To be most effective, rules should be few (around five) and worded positively, rather than negatively. That is, the rule should state expected behavior rather than what is prohibited (e.g., *Use inside voices* rather than *Don't yell*). The teacher should participate in the discussion, but should allow students to bring up their ideas first. Generally, students will have many ideas about rules. Teachers may need to not only guide students on how to consolidate rules and make them positive but also present rules that may not be negotiable. This is an opportunity to learn about how democratic communities govern themselves. Students should come to consensus about the final rules.

Establishing class rules through class meetings is appropriate for both elementary and secondary settings and can be done in early childhood settings with the right supports. In situations where teachers have multiple classes, such as in middle school and high school where there may be several periods each day, each class should establish its own rules. To more thoroughly engage students in this process, teachers may have each class make its own poster to display class rules and ask each student to sign it. Students may also want to give their rules a special name, such as *Sixth Hour Bill of Rights* or *Ms. Chance's Class Constitution*.

Beyond the first days of school and using class meetings to make rules, Glasser recommends that class meetings be held regularly—once a week or every other week. The topics of regularly scheduled meetings may be left open so that students can suggest areas of concern or interest to them.

Problem Solving and Social Skill Development

A second purpose for class meetings is to engage students in problem solving and to guide students' learning in the areas of social skills and human relations. Students often do not have the needed strategies to solve issues that arise in their social situations. Class meetings can serve as a way to directly instruct students in social and problem-solving skills, even giving them an opportunity to try out exact ways to word questions or statements.

Teachers may want to design questions ahead of time for problem-solving class meetings. Some examples of possible questions include the following:

- What problems were encountered when?
- How did you try to resolve the problem?
- Did your strategy solve the problem? Why or why not?
- What could you say (do) differently next time?

In addition to open-ended questions, the teacher may want to provide examples of how students might word their responses in ways that provide critique but not personal criticism. Possible sentence starters include the following:

If I had been in that situation, I might have . . .

When the same thing happened to me, I . . .

Teachers who use cooperative learning strategies as part of their classroom instruction will find that the social skills that are directly taught for small group work also apply to class meetings. David Johnson, Roger Johnson, and Edythe Holubec categorized these skills as (1) forming skills, (2) functioning skills, (3) formulating skills, and (4) fermenting skills. Forming skills include things such as using quiet voices, taking turns, making eye contact, and addressing others by name. Functioning skills include ways to give direction to the discussion such as restating the purpose or offering procedures, expressing support and acceptance of others, asking for clarification, and paraphrasing. Formulating skills include processes such as summarizing, seeking elaboration, and asking others to explain. Fermenting skills are needed to engage in academic controversies and conflict resolution, such as synthesizing ideas, asking for justification, and probing for deeper analysis.

Academic Discussion

In addition to problem solving, a class meeting is a way to effectively engage everyone in whole-class discussion about academic content. It is especially appropriate with units that require students to be active participants in decision making and problem solving.

Classroom projects that simulate real-world applications not only engage students in something relevant but also provide opportunities for students to interact with one another in meaningful ways. For example, a class project that involves publishing a website, studying cafeteria waste, or investigating water pollution in a nearby lake not only teaches academic content such as writing, measurement, mathematics, and science, it also requires students to collaborate in their research and problem solving. Class meetings associated with relevant and engaging academic content provide interesting discussion and engage students in generating possible solutions and designing ways to test hypotheses.

Schoolwide Meetings

An extension of classroom meeting is the use of a similar format by school leaders (administrators, club

sponsors) to engage students in meetings regarding schoolwide issues. Schoolwide class meetings generally involve a heterogeneous group of students representing a cross-section of the student population. Adults who conduct these meetings may want to have students sign up for meetings but make final selection of 15 to 20 students in order to ensure group heterogeneity.

The subject for such meetings may include ways students can become involved in school improvement efforts, and a product of such meetings is often the breaking down of social barriers between various student cliques. When such meetings are undertaken, it is important that administrators and teachers are willing to listen to student ideas and implement reasonable suggestions. If no action follows these meetings, their effectiveness will be greatly, if not totally, diminished.

Planning and Conducting Class Meetings

Physical Arrangement

Class meetings usually involve anywhere from 20 to 35 students. Students should be seated in a tight circle so that everyone can see everyone else. The teacher should include himself or herself in the circle.

Ground Rules

Ground rules for classroom meetings should be clearly stated at the outset of the meeting. Such ground rules may require some discussion at the first class meeting, and all participants should be asked to agree to adhere to these rules. At subsequent class meetings, students can simply be reminded of the ground rules. The teacher may want to keep these posted in the classroom. Examples of possible ground rules are the following:

- Listen to others without interruption.
- Members may criticize ideas but not individuals.
- Objectivity and honesty are valued by the team.

Planning the Meeting

Effective class meetings do not happen without preparation and planning. Guiding questions for discussion should be developed prior to the meeting and appropriate time limits established. For young elementary students, a maximum of 30 minutes is suggested, and a maximum of 45 minutes is suggested for older elementary and middle-level students. High school students may be able to attend for an hour if they are highly engaged. The time limit for the meeting should be announced before starting, and the teacher should pace the questions and discussion accordingly.

Once the meeting begins, teachers should ensure that everyone has an opportunity to engage in discussion and that no one person or small group of persons dominates the discussion. Thus, teachers/facilitators may call on those who have not spoken. As students become more familiar and skilled with the process of class meetings, they can act as facilitators and plan meetings themselves.

Framework of Questions and Discussion

Generally, class meetings should follow a four-step process that includes the following preplanned questions:

1. Identify the topic
2. Define the topic
3. Personalize the topic
4. Pose a challenge or develop a plan of action

The following example depicts a planning discussion guide on the topic of improving student learning in the classroom.

1. Topic: improving student learning
2. Questions to help define the topic:
 - a. What do we mean by student learning?
 - b. What kinds of things are important to learn?
 - c. What kinds of skills do we need in order to make a living?
 - d. What kinds of skills do we need in order to be a good friend, neighbor, family member, or community member?
3. Questions that personalize:
 - a. What do YOU do well?
 - b. What are areas that YOU need to develop or improve upon?
 - c. Where and when do YOU practice effective learning?
 - d. When are YOU most engaged in learning?
4. What are ways we could help each other improve our learning? What plan (goal) could we commit to over the next 3 weeks?

Conclusion

Class meetings provide a structure and process to engage students in both academic and social problem

solving and discussion. They help students develop social skills necessary to actively participate in a democratic process, and they encourage students to take responsibility for their own actions, thinking, and learning. In doing so, class meetings become an invaluable asset to classroom management.

Patti L. Chance

See also Democratic Meetings; Democratic Practices in Classrooms and Schools; Managing Classroom Discussions

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CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT AND MASLOW'S HUMANIST PSYCHOLOGY

Humanism is a term used to describe a variety of movements unfolding over the course of millennia, from ancient Greek social and political policy to contemporary models of psychopathology. Although the term *humanism* was not applied to philosophy until the early Renaissance and attained wider circulation only in the nineteenth century, the humanist philosophical tradition dates back to classical antiquity. At the heart of humanism is a deep reverence for humanity's capacity for reason and moral behavior. To be a humanist, then, is to not only have faith in being human but also to adopt a particular emphasis in one's relationships with others—relationships marked by trust in and encouragement for others to express their human capacity to reason and be moral.

The following sections present a brief overview of the principles of humanism and their historical connection to education, particularly U.S. public school education, and to the seminal work of American psychologist Abraham Maslow (1908–1970), whose concept of the *hierarchy of*

needs has been widely influential and remains especially pertinent to classroom management.

The Humanist Tradition

In the ancient world, the humanist perspective was expressed in philosophical discussion, politics, and public policy. Greek philosopher Protagoras (480–420 B.C.E.) provided the first notable insight into the subject, by arguing that “Man is the measure of all things.” This implies that the world that an individual lives and works in can only be what he or she perceives it to be. As a result, responses to the environmental context are deeply situated in individual perception. This led to Protagoras’s conceptualization of *relativism*—that truth is relative to the individual perceiving it and that there is no absolute truth, only various truths as perceived by individuals. Put another way, if student A experiences a particular situation under the influence of particular intentions, beliefs, and ideals, while student B experiences the same situation under an alternative set of intentions, beliefs, and ideals, the two will have distinct perceptions of truth, potentially leading to divergent behavioral responses to, objectively, the same situation. Though this explanation diverges from the way contemporary science is practiced, the notion that subjective experience grounds the way through which individuals perceive *truth* is an essential consideration when trying to navigate behavioral intention. While Truth (with a capital T)—objective reality—may not deviate from person to person, the perception of that Truth does, and thus individual responses to static reality differ on a case-by-case basis. Thus, when working with children and adolescents, understanding truth as a relative concept can provide substantial insight into what may be hindering and/or empowering learning.

Humanism has figured centrally in the history of American public school education. Humanist arguments can be found in the writings on education and democracy by Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Franklin, and Horace Mann—all of whom were deeply affected by the enlightenment and humanist movements occurring in Europe. For example, in Horace Mann’s early nineteenth-century battles with Boston schoolmasters over corporal punishment, we see Mann’s humanist argument for trusting children’s natural tendencies toward being good—if and when they are provided with guidance and nurturance. Similarly, humanist philosophy was readily expressed throughout the twentieth-century progressive education movement, the most famous example being John Dewey’s philosophy of education, which emphasized building on children’s interests and making children co-developers of curriculum.

More recently, humanism has been associated with one of several reactions against psychoanalytic and behaviorist psychology that dominated clinical psychology in the mid-twentieth century. Behaviorism, as its name implies, focused not on whole persons but on rote behaviors such that humans were treated as, in theory, no different from nonhuman animals since both human and nonhuman animals fall under the same principles explaining behavior.

Similarly, psychoanalytic thinking, especially Freudian thinking, focused not on will power and human reasoning and morality but on subservience to irrational thinking, selfish motivation, and repressed wishes and fears. The aim of psychoanalysis, of course, was to liberate patients from such subservience, but the starting point was the irrational, selfish, and repressed—vastly different from a humanist approach.

Understanding the Individual Needs of Students

The leading proponent for a transition to a humanist perspective was the American psychologist Abraham Maslow, perhaps best known for his positive psychology and his theory of the *hierarchy of needs*. Maslow proposed his hierarchy of needs as a catalog of criteria that must be met in order for individuals to thrive (e.g., students in classrooms). The hierarchy is often depicted as a pyramid, initially focuses on the satisfaction of specific physical conditions, and eventually categorizes the development of healthy psychological states. These are generally organized into five ascending tiers of needs: physical needs, safety/security, social/emotional intimacy, esteem, and self-actualization (i.e., the pinnacle of function for human beings).

Physical Needs

The physical need tier is concerned with needs for physiological well-being, including breathing, eating, sleeping, and other necessary functions for human survival. If these needs are not met, it may be impossible for individuals to invest time and energy in addressing higher-order needs, including learning and establishing positive relationships. Therefore, it is critical that educators take note of whether their students are hungry, sleep-deprived, in chronic pain, or demonstrating unmet physical needs. These needs should be addressed immediately or all other pursuits will suffer, as learning and positive behavior will prove difficult to achieve. When these needs are not met, it is unreasonable to expect any young person to positively contribute in classroom environment, and he or she may act out in ways that are inappropriate or disruptive. A very simple example

is a child or adolescent who chronically sleeps in the classroom. This behavior indicates that he or she is not getting enough rest outside of school, and without rest, he or she is incapable of being an active and functional classroom participant.

Security/Safety

Once individuals have their basic physiological needs met, they need to feel secure and safe. These can range from the physical safety and security of having a shelter or a stable family life to feeling safe and secure in the classroom (i.e., no bullying; teachers engaging in positive and validating, rather than threatening or shaming, ways). If a student is preoccupied with where he or she will sleep, or whether his or her parents are available, it may be unreasonable to expect the student to have cognitive or emotional resources to focus on school work. Thus, any attempt to direct the student toward classroom tasks may be met with resistance or lack of interest. The wise teacher might try offering the student understanding and reassurance that at least in the classroom the student is safe and can feel somewhat secure.

Social/Emotional Intimacy

Once the needs of physical safety/security are met, the need for intimate connections with others becomes more critical for the well-being of an individual. Love and belonging are powerful motivators and contribute to the overall psychological health of human beings. This can include developing friendship or gaining affection from parents and/or teachers. This is a critical area through which educators can offer students empathic relationships, offer positive regard, and establish trust and mutual respect. Acknowledging students' growth, no matter how small the increment, and letting students know that their teacher is available for support can communicate care that satisfies the social/emotional intimacy necessary for ultimate school success in whatever domains the student seeks to achieve success (e.g., academics, behavior, socialization). If an educator can successfully provide such care, that care should serve to facilitate a positive learning relationship in the future. Even if other sources of intimacy are difficult to find, having a reliable and trustworthy figure in the life of a student, at home or at school, can result in psychological benefits and improved behavior and investment in learning.

Esteem

When an individual establishes the aforementioned meaningful relationships, the focus of his or her needs

shifts to self-worth, self-efficacy, and mutual respect between the individual and other individuals considered important in his or her life. These needs are particularly relevant to achievement and having a sense of self-perceived competency when working or learning in the classroom. Now, utilizing the positive relationship and reinforcing a student's interest and efficacy through opportunities for his or her success, an educator can aid the student in meeting the need for a positive self-image by supporting the student's work and progress. This may be accomplished in part by offering students opportunities to work independently and demonstrate that they are reliable, trustworthy, and capable of self-management. At this point the student may show greater investment in education, transitioning classroom management from limiting or controlling particular behaviors to facilitating accomplishment.

Self-Actualization

Self-actualization is the pinnacle of what individuals need. This might include, but is not limited to, being creative, being moral, being capable of abstract problem solving, and confronting dissonant facts and opinions with an open mind. If an educator can aid students in reaching this highest tier of the hierarchy, the need for direct classroom management should be minimal, as students who have achieved self-actualization can adequately self-regulate their behavior enough to pursue personal and professional interests out of self-motivation and the desire to have novel, challenging, and positive experiences.

Conclusion

Maslow's construct of the *hierarchy of needs* is useful in providing teachers with the essentials of what they should be aware of when working with students. It suggests that the job of teaching is more than attending to curriculum and pedagogy. Instead, every educator should pay particular attention to the ways in which each student progresses and take focused action to facilitate growth depending upon what each student may require. Being aware of student needs can be as simple as recognizing that a student is tired or hungry and then providing the student with the opportunity to rest or eat. Conversely, it can be as complex as identifying students who are struggling emotionally with family turmoil or low self-efficacy and offering them positive support and opportunities to express agency and creativity.

Teachers have considerable potential to positively influence the lives of developing children and adolescents. For that potential positive power to be realized,

teachers must recognize, adapt to, and invest energy and focus in optimizing their response to the specific needs of each student.

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See also Gordon, Thomas; Teacher–Student Relationships

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CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT CONSULTATION STRATEGIES

For students to become successful learners, they must be exposed to engaging instruction in a purposefully managed classroom environment. Teachers are tasked with designing such instruction and creating expectations and routines that enable students to effectively engage in independent and collaborative learning activities. Additionally, teachers are currently expected to use evidence-based curricula and practices while skillfully differentiating academic and social-behavioral instruction to meet the needs of an increasingly diverse population of learners. To support teachers as they work to navigate the difficult task of managing a classroom and resolving challenging student behaviors, many schools now prioritize giving teachers access to consultation.

While there is no one definition for school-based consultation, it can generally be described as a nonhierarchical process in which professionals work together to improve practices and student outcomes. Typically, consultation is viewed as a triadic relationship that includes the consultant, the consultee, and the client. Consultants may be individuals who work within the school system

and have particular expertise (e.g., school psychologist, school counselor), or they may be external professionals who contract with the school. The consultee is often the person engaging in the practices to be improved or learned (i.e., teachers), and the client is the individual(s) benefiting from the targeted practice (i.e., students). The goal of consultation is generally to increase the skill set of the consultee so that he or she can independently and effectively work with the target client as well as other clients with similar characteristics in the future. In this way, consultation can be considered a preventive, problem-solving approach.

Models of Consultation

There are a number of different consultation models that have been developed and refined over the years. For example, Gerald Caplan, a psychiatrist who worked in a child mental health center in Israel after World War II, developed what is known as Mental Health Consultation (MHC). The premise of this model is that if consultants could work to build the mental health awareness and skills of the adults who work with children, the positive impact on children could be more expansive. The MHC model can be either client-centered, where the consultant engages in an assessment and intervention planning process specifically for the client, or consultee-centered, which focuses on attending to the knowledge, skills, or feelings of self-efficacy of the consultee. Helping the consultee to understand his or her own professional challenges and mental health needs that may influence his or her work with clients is the goal.

Another consultation model with a great deal of empirical evidence supporting its use is Behavioral Consultation (BC). BC was derived from principles of behavioral psychology, which focus on operant conditioning or observable relationships between the environment and behaviors of individuals or groups of individuals. BC was originally framed by John Bergan in 1977 and later on honed by Bergan and Thomas Kratochwill. Typically, BC involves a structured process in which the consultant works with the consultee to clearly define a target challenging client behavior, identify contingencies within the environment that make the target behavior more or less likely to occur, and develop a plan for systematically reducing the occurrence of challenging behaviors while increasing the occurrence of adaptive alternative behaviors. Plans developed through BC often focus on helping the consultee to arrange environments that may prevent the challenging behavior from occurring, to teach strategies that build client skills, and to engage in response strategies that encourage use of adaptive skills versus challenging behaviors. A derivative of the BC model, Conjoint Behavioral Consultation

is similar in approach and emphasizes the inclusion of parents in school-based consultation and intervention practices.

Social-Cognitive Consultation, which shares some similarities with BC, also focuses on the interactions between one's behavior and the environment; however, the role that one's thoughts and emotions play in interpreting situations is also prioritized. This consultation model is based on social-cognitive theory, stemming from the work of Albert Bandura, which focused on the importance of learning through observing models of particular behaviors and then reflecting on those models when planning to enact future behaviors.

Other consultation models such as Adlerian and organizational/systems models are applied in school settings; however, there is less empirical evidence to support them. Adlerian consultation, based on the work of Alfred Adler, is often considered to be in opposition to BC; however, it too is based on the philosophy that behavior is goal-oriented and is centered on addressing unmet human needs. Consultation includes use of encouragement and focuses on building intrinsic motivation.

Organizational models of consultation, including models influenced by family systems theories, focus on providing support that aims to help a system change. Using this model, problem behavior and/or students considered to be problematic are seen as reflecting a dysfunctional classroom system. Of particular concern to organizational models are the ways that the organization of time, space, lessons, and materials can create a classroom ecology that unwittingly contributes to unwanted behavior. Of particular concern to interpersonal systems models are the transactional patterns that develop in groups that may benefit some or all to a certain extent but maintain unwanted patterns of behavior. One of the key strategies for interpersonal systems models is to reframe problem behavior and problematic students so that positives are found and communicated—positives that can pave the way for meaningful guidance.

Stages of Consultation

While each model of consultation is grounded in varying theories of change, many follow relatively generic problem-solving steps that mark the beginning, middle, and end of the consultative relationship. These steps include (1) joining, establishing the consultative relationship, (2) problem identification, (3) intervention selection and design, and (4) intervention implementation, progress monitoring, and wrapping up. These steps are not always completely linear; however, within each step, there is a range of strategies that can be used

and that may vary according to the consultation model embraced by the consultant. The following are examples of strategies that may be used at each step in the process.

Joining

In this phase, the consultant will introduce himself or herself to the consultee and engage in friendly conversation to build rapport. During this phase, it is important for the consultant to explain his or her typical process and to carefully avoid use of professional jargon that may be confusing or off-putting. This is also a good time to instill hope in the consultee and to communicate the commitment to working together on behalf of the client.

Problem Identification

To develop a common understanding of the problem, it is often important for the consultant to work with the consultee to clearly define the problem. To begin the assessment of the problem, the consultant often engages in either structured or unstructured interviewing practices. There are several structured interview protocols available to consultants, and these generally help to name the problem, explicitly define the problem, and identify the circumstances under which the problem is more or less likely to be evident. For example, when identifying a challenging classroom behavior, the teacher (consultee) might report that a student's (client) out-of-seat behavior occurs when the student leaves his or her seat without permission, and this is most likely to happen during independent seatwork. During the interview, it is important for the consultant to engage in active listening, where he or she works to reflect and summarize what the consultee is communicating.

Often, following an interview, the consultant then works to verify the information gathered through direct observations of the client in context. Again, observations may be structured or unstructured. Unstructured observations are often narrative and anecdotal in nature, while structured observations may be organized so that the consultant can count the frequency or time the duration of behaviors. Consultants may also collect information from other sources that know the client well. They may use checklists or rating scales that help them quantify the presence, absence, or intensity of certain behaviors related to the problem behavior.

Intervention Selection and Design

Following the assessment practices described above, the consultant and the consultee often work together to

analyze and better understand the information that was gathered. This is important because it allows the consultant and consultee to better target an intervention that is likely to be effective. When working to select or design an appropriate intervention, the consultant can share expertise in efficacious treatment and practices, and the consultee can serve as the expert in the environment in which the intervention will be implemented. In this way, the consultee can help to define which intervention practices will likely be useful, feasible, and acceptable within the classroom context.

Intervention Implementation and Progress Monitoring

Recently, more research and consultative emphasis has been placed on practices that help professionals to monitor both the process and outcome of interventions. For example, consultants may develop observation or self-monitoring protocols that measure the extent to which components of interventions are being consistently implemented. These tools can help an observer (i.e., the consultant) or the teacher (i.e., the consultee) track the parts of intervention implementation that are going well and determine which parts are challenging.

Research suggests that when a consultant can provide a consultee with performance feedback related to treatment fidelity, then there is greater likelihood that a consultee's performance will improve. Engaging in performance feedback meetings can also help the consultant and consultee troubleshoot parts of the intervention that are harder to implement or do not seem to be working well.

For example, a simple classwide intervention that is often used as a classroom management tool includes a systematic approach to increasing teachers' use of specific praise in the classroom. A consultant may occasionally observe the teacher and simply tally the frequency of specific praise statements used. A performance feedback meeting may involve the consultant sharing the data gathered on praise statements, reviewing progress made by comparing previous observation data to current data, and setting a goal for increasing teacher use, specificity, or genuineness of praise.

Oftentimes, consultants are involved in helping to monitor the student behaviors that have been targeted for change. This, too, may include observations or some sort of data tracking of the student behavior over time. The consultant may be an important resource in helping the consultee to review the student's behavioral data and determine if the intervention is working or if it needs to be modified, intensified, or discontinued. This process

can also help to identify when the consultant is no longer needed and can conclude his or her work.

Barriers to Consultation

There are several potential barriers that could limit progress made during a consultative relationship. One barrier that is often cited in the literature relates to the social power dynamic that might influence a consultant or a consultee's behavior. For example, if a consultant is viewed as an expert, a consultee may change his or her behavior because he or she would like to be associated with the expert or the expert's opinion. The consultee may also choose to not change his or her behavior so as not to be affiliated with the expert.

An additional barrier to consultation may also be related to the consultee's readiness to change his or her behavior. Several behavior change models suggest that individuals often move through a process of consideration or ambivalence before engaging in active change. For a consultee to readily change his or her practices in the classroom, the consultant must be attentive to how the consultee feels about changing. If a consultant suggests a new intervention that is beyond the skill set or perceived skill set of the consultee, change may not occur easily.

Behavioral change may also be slow to occur if there is limited organizational support for either the consultative process or for suggested intervention use. For example, if time is not consistently made for a consultant and consultee to engage in a problem-solving process, then clearly, change will occur slowly. Additionally, if resources are needed for particular interventions or additional professional development, and if those resources are not available, then behavioral change again will be stunted.

Conclusion

Given that teachers are increasingly facing students with challenging behavioral needs, it is critical that they have access to ongoing consultative support to help them resolve problems with individual behaviors and increase their capacity to adequately manage classroom behavior. Although there are many models of consultation, each focuses on a collaborative process in which professionals come together to better serve the needs of students. There are a variety of consultative practices that globally focus on assessing consultee/client needs, collaboratively planning interventions, and monitoring intervention implementation and outcomes.

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See also Behavioral Approaches, Foundations of; Mental Hygiene Movement; Organization of Classrooms: Space; Organization of Classrooms: Time; Reframing

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CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT PROGRAM

Beginning the school year is often a daunting task for even experienced teachers. It is apt to be even more daunting for those with limited experience or those experiencing transitions (changes in grade level, subject matter, etc.). To provide help beginning the school year, the Classroom Organization and Management Program (COMP) at Peabody College, Vanderbilt University, has been training teachers in ways to develop and enhance their classroom management systems so as to begin the school year in the best possible way. This entry explains the origins of COMP in the work of classroom management researchers, outlines the key premises underlying the program, describes a COMP inservice training session, and concludes with a brief review of studies evaluating the program's effectiveness.

Research and Background

COMP incorporates both foundational and recent research on classroom management, particularly the seminal research of Jacob Kounin, Jere Brophy, and Carolyn Evertson.

Jacob Kounin

COMP is rooted in the research of Jacob Kounin, one of several pioneers in classroom management. Kounin's research on the characteristics of good classroom managers yielded an understanding of the importance of preventing student misbehavior in the first place. He showed that how proactive teachers are in designing, initiating, and maintaining effective learning environments determines classroom behavior. For example, teachers who give directions without ensuring that students are listening or who assume students will

remember stated expectations without being reminded are more likely to experience misbehavior. In contrast, teachers who proactively require their students' attention in advance of sharing important information and who use signals to help students remember classroom expectations are more likely to experience appropriate behavior.

Kounin described a teacher with advanced awareness of students' actions, dynamics, and potential directions as being *withit*—and defined *withitness* as a central variable in proactive teaching that promotes good, productive learning environments.

Jere Brophy

COMP also draws heavily from another pioneer in classroom management, Jere Brophy. Brophy observed how teachers communicate their expectations to students and found that teachers often communicate preferences and prejudices that can hamper student achievement. For example, teachers may subconsciously communicate differing standards of achievement for high- versus low-performing students, when they stand near low-performing students but encourage them less often, ask fewer questions, make less eye contact, and smile less frequently.

Alternatively, teachers who hold high standards for all students use best practices to help each student work toward his or her potential. These include providing all students with multiple opportunities to respond to questions about content; ample, immediate feedback on their responses to guide them toward content mastery; frequent, brief, supervised practice with content; and acknowledgment of their individual value through proximity, smiles, and encouragement. In keeping with Brophy's research, COMP helps teachers adopt a more equitable and powerful way of communicating expectations of students.

Carolyn Evertson

Carolyn Evertson's research provided a clear understanding of the components needed to establish effective learning environments at the beginning of the school year. Her research showed that teachers who only allude to but not teach their expectations at the beginning of the year tend to have students who do not achieve as well on standardized tests at the end of the year. This results in part from the necessity of using instructional time to repeatedly address issues about meeting teachers' expectations and from reduced safety in risk-taking. Her research also showed that teachers who do teach their expectations at the beginning of the school year,

typically through establishing rules and procedures, and who consistently reinforce these expectations have students who achieve higher on end-of-the-year standardized tests. In part, this success comes from having fewer distractions and increasing certainty of how to thrive in the learning setting. In light of this research, COMP trains teachers not only how to develop effective rules and procedures but also how to teach them to students.

COMP Design

Learning is central to the well-managed classroom. Consistent with the definition of classroom management utilized in this encyclopedia (*what is needed to create good learning environments*), both COMP's subtitle—*Creating Conditions for Learning*—and tag line—*A Comprehensive Program for Creating an Effective Learning Environment*—demonstrate its focus on learning in helping teachers to become effective managers.

Four premises of effective classroom management undergird the COMP: *teachers are proactive; management and instruction are interrelated; students are active in the learning process; and teachers benefit synergistically through professional collaboration*. These four premises surface repeatedly across eight content modules: organizing the classroom; planning and teaching rules and procedures; managing student work and improving student accountability; maintaining good student behavior; planning and organizing instruction; conducting and facilitating instruction to maintain lesson momentum; getting off to a good start; and climate/communication/student self-monitoring.

Teachers Are Proactive

Good classroom management requires forethought, and so anticipating the ways classroom work gets accomplished helps teachers develop routines and practices that support learning. For example, students often misbehave during transitions—in particular, transitions from one instructional activity to another and transitions between classes. COMP helps teachers identify potential transition problems and develop and teach procedures that make transitions go smoothly—by helping participants become proactive teachers.

A proactive teacher anticipates ways to effectively prepare students so that students know how to enter the classroom, which materials to bring and where to place them, where to sit, and what activity to begin upon entering. As teachers teach an opening routine, they offer feedback that demonstrates an awareness of student compliance and potential distractions. The teachers' continued, daily awareness of student interactions during transitions helps guide their reinforcement

of desired patterns. The predictability of routines for facilitating transitions and teachers' awareness of student compliance set the stage for both smooth transitions and student productivity.

Management and Instruction Are Interrelated

COMP trains teachers to prepare effectively for a variety of instructional formats, as well as for a variety of tasks within lessons that can be used to assess student understanding. Connecting management and instruction is integral to the success of both. When teachers plan well for instruction, planning includes forethought about associated management issues. In the same manner, when teachers plan well to manage their classrooms, they do so in light of the content students are to master.

One example is formative assessment. To include effective formative assessments, teachers consider what content will be included in the instruction, how the content will be presented, and with what materials and equipment and how students might react to the content and at what points in the lesson. In addition, teachers plan the structure of the formative assessment in advance; if it will be individual, small group, or whole group; and whether written, oral, or nonverbal.

Even with all of this planning connecting management and instruction, in the moment of an assessment, an alternative way may seem more effective. In light of the advance planning completed, the teacher can accurately and quickly assess the advantages of this alternative and can have the flexibility to meet students' needs.

Students Are Active in the Learning Process

Determining student understanding of instruction is one means for students to be active in the learning process. By applying and being involved with the content, students develop a level of mastery with it. Students' active participation enhances their commitment to both the content and the structure within which it is presented. For example, teachers involve students when they help students become accountable for the quality and timeliness of the work they complete. Teacher clarity is a critical component of this process as well as an additional key influence on student achievement. Ensuring that students are provided quality instruction; timely, specific feedback; and consistency in expectations enables them to become accountable for the work they do, how they do it, and when and where they submit it. COMP instructs teachers in developing student accountability systems, assigning student work, and improving teacher clarity.

Teachers Benefit Synergistically Through Professional Collaboration

COMP promotes the professional collaboration of teachers because teachers benefit synergistically through their interactions. The problems one individual teacher may be having can, in collaboration with other teachers, become solvable. Or, if a solution is not immediately clear, a cadre of teachers may use their combined wealth of experience and expertise to recommend appropriate resources for finding a solution. For example, teachers often struggle with how to respond to student misbehavior. Fellow teachers can support one another by evaluating the causes of student misbehavior, level of severity, goals of students and teachers, and the reasonableness of potential reactions.

COMP Implementation

COMP provides a 3- to 4-day inservice training, where the final half to full day serves as a follow-up session, scheduled 6–18 weeks after the initial training. Up to 30 teachers gather in a cohort from the same school, the same district, or multiple locations from multiple grades and subjects (K–12). This cohort is led by a certified workshop leader as a classroom-in-brief, establishing group norms and procedures, modeling the techniques presented, and serving to form an effective learning environment where participants feel safe to learn and empowered to become additional resources for one another.

Participants utilize their COMP manual and materials as a resource guide to explore research-based principles through small group activities. Case studies, charts, tabulated data, and other examples provide groups with rich descriptions of actual classrooms to analyze. Through discussions, participants develop greater understanding of the principles and share related strategies from their own and others' classrooms. In addition, participants seek group suggestions to meet self-identified needs. The participants then set goals for applying these principles, strategies, and suggestions to their learning environments. These goals serve as focal points for the follow-up session. Participants jointly revisit their goals to review significant content, be acknowledged for efforts made, share successes, request clarification, seek advice, and be empowered toward continual improvement of the learning environments they oversee.

Conclusions: Evaluations of COMP

Studies suggest that COMP is effective in helping teachers establish effective learning environments. A number of studies have shown that teachers who complete the program are likely to improve their classroom

management systems and skills as well as increase the achievement of their students. In addition, participating in COMP results in teachers reporting greater job satisfaction as well as diminished student misbehavior and office referrals.

Participating in COMP will result in teachers experiencing an enriched sense of job satisfaction, greater confidence in meeting student needs as well as the ability to prevent student misbehavior, improve clarity in instruction, and amplify instructional effectiveness. For teachers who participated in COMP, their students have showed greater academic engagement with content, increased on-task behavior, and decreased referrals for misbehavior. Schools in which the entire faculty participates in COMP demonstrate significant decreases in disruptive student behavior and incidences of violence.

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See also Elementary Education and Classroom Management; Middle School and Classroom Management; Organization of Classrooms: Space; Organization of Classrooms: Time; Routines; Transitions, Managing

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Websites

Classroom Organization and Management Program (COMP): <http://www.comp.org>

CLASSWIDE PEER TUTORING

Classwide peer tutoring (CWPT) is an evidence-based instructional approach that has been shown to be effective for students with and without disabilities, low-achieving students, and students with limited English proficiency. One purpose of this entry is to explain the different ways that CWPT can be implemented in the classroom. In addition, the entry will describe the benefits of CWPT, including positive student outcomes. Ways to enhance the effectiveness of CWPT will also be presented. Finally, some challenges associated with the implementation of CWPT in different settings will be reviewed while acknowledging the overall efficacy of CWPT within regular education, special education, alternative education, and inclusive settings.

Development and Implementation of CWPT Interventions

Initial development of CWPT took place in the early 1980s by researchers and classroom teachers as part of the Juniper Gardens Children's Project of the University of Kansas. The main goal of the teachers was to employ CWPT to facilitate effective instruction in classrooms where students with mild disabilities were integrated into regular education. CWPT strategies are based on effective instruction literature. CWPT allows for same-age reciprocal peer tutoring in which students in the same class serve both as tutor (teacher) and tutee (student) to review and learn academic skills such as spelling, reading, math, language, social studies, science, and history. The entire classroom is engaged in CWPT, and students are paired while the class is divided in two halves or teams. Either random assignment is used to pair the students, or they are matched by ability (i.e., students functioning at the same level or adjacent levels) or by level of language proficiency. Although implementation may vary, typically each CWPT session takes 20 to 30 minutes and occurs two or three times a week; student pairs rotate weekly.

The CWPT teachers' manual, written by Charles Greenwood and colleagues, includes a description of 10 core procedures. These include reviewing new materials, determining which content materials will be tutored, changing partners weekly, using different strategies to form partners, engaging in reciprocal roles as tutor and tutee daily, competing as teams, earning individual points, correcting errors, posting scores publicly, and obtaining social rewards as teams. At the elementary level, CWPT supplements traditional content area instruction by replacing teacher lecture, group reading activities, and individual study time. At the secondary

level, CWPT slightly changes its structure and includes practice, skill building, application, and review. Student interactions are structured by using study guides.

During CWPT, frequent opportunities are given to practice and receive performance feedback. Student performance is measured via different methods. Weekly performance evaluations, self-management through performance monitoring, individual and group reinforcement contingencies, and public posting of performance outcomes are among strategies that may be used. A group reward contingency managed by both the teacher and the students is used to reinforce positive peer interactions. For example, appropriate tutoring behavior and academic responding during the tutoring sessions are rewarded with points. Tutors give their tutees points for correct responses and corrected mistakes, and tutors may earn bonus points from the teacher for following appropriate procedures. During CWPT sessions, teachers are responsible for monitoring teamwork and awarding bonus points for appropriate task-oriented behavior.

At the end of each CWPT session, teams receive rewards for meeting a minimum standard or showing improvement. The most outstanding team members, as well as the winning and losing teams, may all be recognized for their effort. For example, each team may be applauded. The half of the class with the most points may earn a prize such as a reward certificate, and the other half may be encouraged to work harder. An interdependent group contingency may also be used in which both halves of the class earn a reward based on meeting certain criteria selected by the teacher. For example, the rule may be that a certain percentage of students (60%–100%) are required to earn a stamp for good tutoring behavior or for answering all questions correctly during testing, for the class to earn a reward.

Benefits and Outcomes Associated With Participation in CWPT

CWPT has been shown to increase positive interactions between students, encourage students to work together, help students gain self-confidence, increase time spent on-task, and ultimately prevent school failure. Data on the instructional effectiveness of CWPT also show that students retain more of what they learn during tutoring sessions and make greater improvements in social competence with CWPT compared to traditional teacher-led instruction. It has been further reported that the following are among distinct advantages of CWPT for students: (1) different levels of the curriculum can be covered by different groups of students; (2) the needs of lowest and highest functioning students can be met without overwhelming the students; (3) students have the opportunity to receive one-on-one mentoring with

corrective feedback; (4) mastery of new material can be established rapidly, which results in increased academic responding; and (5) use of CWPT is usually cost-effective.

Overall, teachers have reported high levels of satisfaction with the CWPT intervention, since it enables general educators to meet the instructional needs of a broad range of students by dividing the classroom into dyads during a portion of weekly instruction. In addition, the use of CWPT allows teachers to capitalize on effective instructional components such as allowing students to experience high levels of academic engagement via partnering with peers to review coursework. Thus, teachers can make the most out of the limited time they have for student instruction, and social and academic goals can both be addressed during the same instructional time.

At the elementary level, CWPT has been validated for at-risk students and students with mild disabilities. Research has shown that among students enrolled in CWPT in multiple subject areas such as reading, language, math, science, and social studies, skill acquisition was faster, higher growth in achievement was observed over time, fewer at-risk students were placed into special education programs, and fewer students eventually dropped out of school.

In addition, CWPT has been successfully used with elementary school English language learners (ELLs) with instructional adaptations. Modifications made to CWPT to use with ELLs include, but are not limited to, use of native language translation for vocabulary words, use of audiotapes of story passages prior to peer tutoring, and shortened passages for oral reading. CWPT has also been modified for use with students receiving special education services, so that these students are provided with smaller passages/units of study, shorter oral tests and study texts, and the ability to select partners they are comfortable working with during tutoring sessions.

At the middle school and secondary level, attendance in CWPT programs has been associated with increased oral reading fluency, reading comprehension, spelling, and listening comprehension scores, and social studies content knowledge.

Ways to Increase the Effectiveness of CWPT

To increase the effectiveness of CWPT, other motivational and behavior management components have been made part of intervention designs. For example, supplemental interventions such as Classwide Self-Management, peer coaching, and parent training have been used in combination with CWPT, resulting in increased classwide academic performance and reduced

inappropriate behaviors for elementary and secondary-level students. In addition, self-management strategies such as student self-assessment of their classroom behavior and engagement in opportunities for continuous practice and feedback have been successfully incorporated into CWPT programs. During combined CWPT and peer coaching interventions, students may engage in CWPT procedures while being coached by a new peer nominated by the teacher. The peer coach typically helps the target student set social goals and engages in daily check-ins with the student to monitor progress. Parents of both general education middle school students and students with mild disabilities may be encouraged by teachers to assist their children with homework assignments, studying, and test preparation using texts and other materials as part of the CWPT intervention. Accommodation of student preferences during CWPT procedures, such as selection of individual rewards or student selection of tutoring partners, has also been identified as important factors to maintain motivation.

Computer programs have been developed to use with CWPT. For example, the CWPT-LMS (Learning Management System) is a software program capable of linking, planning, graphing, and implementing student progress information. Teachers or students enter the number of correct answers into the CWPT-LMS. The CWPT-LMS Data Analysis Tool provides a set of graphs for viewing students' weekly individual or group progress. The CWPT-LMS Data Management Tool provides ways to delete, copy, back-up, and restore program data.

Classwide Student Tutoring Teams (CSTT) is another application of CWPT developed specifically for content area instruction at the secondary level. CSTT applies the peer-teaching procedures of CWPT to small groups of four or five learning teams per classroom. These small groups are heterogeneous, in the sense that at least one student performs at each level of performance—low, medium, and high. All students take turns being the teacher, and as in CWPT, the classroom teacher is responsible for monitoring teamwork and awarding bonus points.

Challenges Associated With the Implementation of CWPT Programs

Fidelity of implementation is an important factor for the success of CWPT interventions. While the majority of research studies on CWPT have demonstrated high levels of satisfaction and implementation by teachers, some teachers who lack the time necessary for both initial training in CWPT procedures and continuous progress feedback from research staff may find it challenging to ensure high levels of implementation fidelity. Thus, the implementation and evaluation of CWPT

programs should be efficient for optimum teacher time investment. In addition, feasibility of CWPT strategies may be difficult to generalize to classrooms with more limited adult assistance. Thus, availability of additional teaching staff should also be considered while designing CWPT intervention programs. In alternative schools with small teacher–pupil ratios, CWPT has been effectively used. In these settings, however, some challenges associated with the implementation of CWPT have been reported, including smaller class sizes, smaller peer groups, high number of students in class with significant behavioral problems, and absence of typically developing peers.

In general, CWPT used with reinforcements results in higher learning gains for students than CWPT programs implemented without reinforcements. Some research evidence has given rise to controversy over the use of reinforcers, especially at the secondary level. Although reinforcers in general increase student performance, they may decrease the intrinsic interest in academic activities if they are not administered appropriately. Among other challenges are finding rewards that are reinforcing to all students, repetitive use of the same reinforcers that may cause the reinforcement effect to disappear, and effectively fading the use of reinforcers, especially during the implementation of interdependent group contingencies. Thus, careful use of reinforcers is recommended when incorporating them into CWPT programs.

Among other concerns that may hinder successful implementation of CWPT are factors such as maintaining material that is adequately challenging for all students, reductions in weekly CWPT sessions, too much material to be learned per week, low-quality peer teaching, and lack of sufficient daily and weekly practice.

Finally, evaluations from teachers and students while using CWPT are important for improving the effectiveness of CWPT interventions. Social validity of the CWPT instruction can be measured through questionnaires and one-on-one interviews, so that teachers and students involved in using the instructional procedures are able to evaluate the efficacy of the intervention and report their attitudes. Conversely, adopting instructional procedures that lack teacher and/or student buy-in may result in failure.

Conclusion

CWPT is an effective instructional strategy used in elementary, middle, and high school classrooms to increase student learning outcomes and improve social and behavioral functioning. Evidence-based components of CWPT include partnering with peers to review and master academic content, alternating between roles as tutor and tutee, giving and receiving immediate

feedback (e.g., error correction), earning points for good tutoring behavior, posting scores publicly, and obtaining rewards based on individual and group performance. CWPT can be co-implemented with other motivational and behavior management strategies to increase program effectiveness. Despite some potential challenges associated with the use of CWPT, decades of research suggest that CWPT is an effective and feasible instructional strategy for educators who seek evidence-based teaching methods to meet the needs of increasingly diverse students in general education and inclusive education settings.

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See also Cooperation and Competition; Cooperative Learning Groups; Peer Mediation

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CLIMATE: SCHOOL AND CLASSROOM

Climate is a meteorological concept. There are polar, temperate, and tropical climates, among others. Some climates are more hospitable to certain life forms than others. The question of climate is, therefore, tied to questions about desirable forms of life.

So, too, it is with school and classroom climates. In wondering about the kinds of school and classroom climates that are desirable, we must first decide what forms of communal living we wish to sustain. For the purposes of this entry, we can assume that individuals thrive best under *democratic communal living*. Democratic communal living provides individuals with the richest levels of individual experience and provides societies with the most equitable distributions of such experiences. The following discussion considers the types of school and classroom climates that best sustain rich, democratic communal living. It begins at the most local level: the classroom.

Aspects of Classroom Climate

Classroom climate might best be approached through examining its three types of aspects: esthetic and physical, intellectual and emotional, and social and political.

Esthetic and Physical Aspects

Esthetic and physical aspects refer to the physical resources of the classroom, how they are brought together, and what type of mood they set for the individuals inhabiting the classroom. We are speaking here of books, posters, and desks—how many there are, what types, and in what sorts of arrangements. We are also speaking of how light, color, sound, smell, and texture are brought together in the physical classroom space. And we are speaking of how these and other objects and sensations impact behavior.

In assessing classroom climate, therefore, there are a number of questions for a teacher to ask related to esthetic and physical aspects:

What mood is invoked upon first entering my classroom? How have I arranged the desks, tables, and other furniture? How are the walls decorated? Do I have personal artifacts present? If so, what message do these artifacts send? Is student work on display? If so, whose

work? Are there distinct spaces in my classroom for different sorts of activities? If not, can the classroom quickly be reconfigured, so as to promote different ways of learning: small group discussion, large group meetings, individual contemplation?

Intellectual and Emotional Aspects

Intellectual and emotional aspects speak to the way the teacher elicits a range of possible thoughts and feelings in students. Some classrooms require very formal behavior and little show of personal emotion. Other classrooms allow less formal behavior and permit a type of teasing that excludes some students from the social and intellectual networks being formed. Some classrooms are set up for the single-minded pursuit of correct answers, while others allow for intellectual exploration and creativity. The questions related to intellectual and emotional aspects include the following:

What are the predominant emotions in my classroom on any particular day? Is there evidence of boredom? Of joy and happiness? Of silliness? Of anger? Are such emotions talked through or acted out? Are they acknowledged or suppressed? How good am I, and how good are my students, at picking up on each other's emotional cues? How do we deal with a person who is having a bad day?

What are the predominant intellectual operations in my classroom on any particular day? Do I see more lower- or higher-order thinking? Are students afraid to take intellectual risks in my classroom? Are students comfortable getting the answer wrong in my classroom? Do I ask students to work through different intelligences and learning styles? Do I often find myself intellectually engaged by a thought or idea, or do I feel like I am simply repeating something that I have said many times before?

Social and Political Aspects

Social and political aspects speak to the norms guiding the manner in which the teacher and students interact with each other in the pursuit of both shared and distinct goals. They speak, in short, to the classroom expectations for how one will participate in classroom life. Behavior can be competitive, cooperative, or individualistic, in both its means and its aims. Students can be grouped heterogeneously or homogeneously, interacting across the relatively wide or narrow range of their

abilities, interests, goals, and life histories. Students can occupy the same physical space, yet interact very little. Students may be allowed to initiate many of the intellectual and social exchanges that take place in the classroom; by contrast, the teacher may take sole responsibility for initiating almost everything that happens in the classroom. Finally, the classroom can open itself up to the interests and problems of the larger world, or it can put up firm barriers, resisting such interactions with larger and more distant groups. The questions about social and political aspects include:

What sorts of social interactions predominate in my classroom? Do I need to constantly keep students on task, or is their behavior more self- or group-regulated? Do students make and keep friends in my classroom, or do they stick largely to the groups they have already formed? If I have to leave the classroom for a few minutes, what happens? Can I trust my students, or do I always need to keep my eyes on them? Do students volunteer information and news, about themselves and the world, or do I need to pull it out of them? Does my classroom run more like a family, a football team, or an army platoon?

Each of these three types of aspects contains elements that overlap with others. Yet, as a rough checklist, these three seem to cover what we think about when we talk about a warm or inviting or engaging or democratic classroom climate. While no teacher is likely to have a classroom strong on each type—because so much of the work of teaching lies outside the control of the teacher—such a checklist of types seems helpful for inviting reflection on the classroom and its climate.

School Climate

On the face of it, there is no reason to think that the aspects that matter for classroom climate will be any different when we turn to consider the school. That said, researchers have long argued that the individual school stands as the most important unit of analysis when thinking about institutionalized educational life. While it is perhaps the case that a classroom can be an oasis of calm in a stormy school sea, such a situation is both unlikely and undesirable.

Researchers have not done as good a job as communities at recognizing that there is something special about a school and its associated climate. Schools in the United States have long been branded by others, and have increasingly sought to brand themselves, by referring to their overall sense of community, their climate. Students are encouraged to have school spirit, built often through athletic teams, whole-school assemblies,

pep rallies, school songs, colors, and mascots. While these may not be universally common, schools everywhere set up rituals that help define them and establish a particular school climate. Such rituals can be helpful for building a sense of community; yet if cast too narrowly, they can also leave a significant number of students feeling alienated. So in the above set of reflective questions, we can feel free to substitute *school for classroom; students, teachers, and other school workers for students; and we for I*. Doing so, we will start to effectively reflect on a school's climate.

But schools have an added symbolic dimension leading to an additional set of reflective questions, including the following:

Who belongs to our school community? Does the list include janitors, bus drivers, secretaries, and aides? What about parents and other caregivers? When does our school come together as a whole? How often? Do such gatherings have an intellectual purpose, an artistic purpose, an athletic purpose, a spiritual/religious purpose, and/or a strictly social purpose? When people hear our school mentioned, what is their likely reaction? What images come to their mind? Are these images that we are proud of? Are these images reflective of the full range of talents, skills, and life experiences that constitute our school community?

Conclusion

Philosopher and educator John Dewey famously wrote, “Perhaps the greatest of all pedagogical fallacies is the notion that a person learns only the particular thing he is studying at the time” (1938/1997, p. 48). As educators, it is incumbent upon us to remember that our work is always moral in nature because it has to do with the moral climates we help create—climates where individuals not only learn what is in books but also come to be motivated to learn how to be civil, responsible, and caring within an overall climate that can best be described as democratic.

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See also Caring Approaches; Democratic Practices in Classrooms and Schools; Progressive Education; Warmth and Classroom Management

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CLOCKLIGHT

Clocklight is a device and a program designed to provide feedback to students in groups (e.g., classroom study groups) in various school settings such as classrooms and cafeterias. The feedback provided is about the extent to which students are meeting teacher and school standards and expectations for appropriate behavior.

The clocklight device first appeared as part of the *Program for Academic Survival Skills* developed by Charles Greenwood and colleagues at the University of Oregon in the 1970s. The device, along with the program that governs its use, is particularly helpful in managing the behavior of groups of individuals where unruly, uncooperative, and disruptive behavior are commonplace and where such behavior interferes with student-teacher communication, concentration, and learning. This method is used effectively in settings where group members are sitting or otherwise typically oriented where the clocklight can be placed for all to see.

The clocklight program employs a group contingency for reinforcement in which all members of the group receive a reward only when all members of the group exhibit behaviors that meet or exceed a given standard of performance. Thus, the device's clock operates only when all group members are found to display appropriate behavior, and the device's light illuminates only under the same conditions.

Features of the Clocklight and Its Use

The clocklight device typically consists of a large-faced analog wall clock with an associated light, usually green. The earliest versions of the clocklight included a small lightbulb that was embedded in the clock's face.

More recent versions have employed LEDs within a plastic tube encircling the clock's face. Some rudimentary forms of the clocklight have used a separate lamp or trouble light with a colored bulb connected to the same power source as the clock, permitting both the clock and the light to be activated as a single unit. Rudimentary versions have also employed a switch connected to the clock and light by a cord, but the availability of low-cost radiofrequency controllers have made these largely unnecessary.

Clocklight has been used in both elementary and secondary school settings to signal students when their collective behavior matches established rules or expected standards. When all the students in the group are found to be engaged in appropriate behavior, the operator of the clocklight, usually the teacher, activates the device through the means of a wireless controller, similar in function and design to a garage door opener. When even a single student in the group is found to exhibit behavior contrary to the posted rules or accepted standards, the clocklight is switched off and it remains off until the student's behavior once again is found to be consistent with the rules and expectations. The clocklight serves a dual purpose of both signaling the students when their performance meets the acceptable standard and recording the total amount of time that the group's performance met the standard. This second purpose is achieved by setting the clock's hour and second hands at exactly 12 o'clock prior to beginning a clocklight session, effectively turning the clock into a stopwatch. In this way, it is easy to see precisely how many minutes and seconds have accrued during which the collective performance of the group members met the standards, compared to the total amount of time available (such as the total amount of class time).

In most applications of the clocklight program, goals are established for a class period indicating the aggregate amount of time (or percentage of the available time) the light is to be illuminated (indicated by the total time recorded by the clock divided by the total amount of time during which the light could have been illuminated). These goals are often determined by averaging the group's performance over the previous 3 days or three class periods. This method generally results in goal values that increase mildly over time.

Procedures for Using the Clocklight

Introducing the Clocklight

A teacher typically introduces the clocklight to the students in the group by explaining its purpose and use and demonstrating how it will be used in the classroom or group setting. The teacher also likely introduces the specific rules for performance or behavioral expectations that will be in place during the clocklight period. This

may be done by discussion rather than by lecture, a strategy that often results in greater acceptance by the students. The discussion often includes precise and explicit descriptions of behaviors that will result in the clocklight being turned on or off and may also include some role-playing demonstrations of the behaviors consistent with classroom rules or performance expectations (that would result in the clocklight being turned on) as well as behaviors that are contrary to the expectations (that would result in the clocklight being turned off).

Establishing Initial Group Performance Goals

Prior to beginning the clocklight program and in the setting where a clocklight is targeted for use, a teacher or classroom assistant may use a stopwatch or clock to record the total amount of time within an instructional period when all group members engage in behavior that meets the rules or performance expectations. Generally, the amount of time recorded on the stopwatch is divided by the total amount of time in the period, resulting in a percentage of time during which collective group behavior (i.e., all group members engaging in appropriate behavior at the same time) was observed. These values represent a baseline or beginning point for the program and provide a comparison by which improvements can be judged. If this process is followed for three consecutive days or class periods, an average of the three values could be computed that would serve as the first goal once the clocklight is introduced. This ensures that the goal is reasonable and attainable.

Scanning and Tracking Student Behavior

Once the clocklight has been introduced and students have had some experience with its use in a training or orientation setting, the clocklight program begins. The person operating the clocklight uses both scanning and tracking to determine when to turn the clocklight on and off. The clocklight begins in the *off* position, with the clock hands adjusted to the 12 o'clock position.

Beginning with one side of the classroom, the teacher's gaze pans across the class (scanning), stopping only when any student's behavior is noted that violates rules or standards. If no students are found to be engaged in misbehavior, the teacher switches on the clocklight and begins the scanning or panning process once again. If, during the scanning process, a student is found displaying misbehavior, the teacher fixes his or her gaze on the student to track the behavior. This is done simply to determine exactly when the student's behavior ceases to be inappropriate, a signal for the scanning process to begin once again.

In some variations of the clocklight program, teachers employ a corrective teaching procedure for students whose behavior results in turning off the clocklight. This procedure involves an explicit description of both the behavior that violated the rules as well as a description of an appropriate alternative. This approach also frequently involves demonstrations and role plays of the appropriate behavior.

Rewards for Meeting Goals

Using a group-oriented contingency approach, such as clocklight, all the group members receive a reward at the same time based upon the collective performance of the group. In the clocklight program, rewards are generally available only when daily goals are met (e.g., clocklight operated for 55% of available time). Rewards can be selected by a vote of the group or programmed in some other way. Occasionally, a single group member may find it rewarding to be the cause of the group's failing to earn a reward. In this instance, it may be well to exclude this group member from the program for a time and use an individually managed contingency approach.

Fading the Program

Once the group's performance is sustained at levels of 80% of the available time, the use of the clocklight is generally reduced. Gradually, the clocklight is removed from the classroom and replaced by the teacher or classroom assistant monitoring the group's performance using only a stopwatch. If the group's performance drops below the 80% level for appropriate behavior, the clocklight is once again brought back to the classroom for a booster session. As soon as possible, it is removed again until it is no longer needed to maintain the levels of acceptable behavior.

Outside of Classrooms and Added Features

Clocklights are most often used in typical classroom settings, particularly during seatwork or lecture conditions. They have also been used in school lunchrooms and in after-school programs. In the lunchroom setting, clocklight has often been used with a sound level, or decibel, monitor, often with an automatic switch that turns the clocklight on and off when sound reaches a predetermined level.

Clocklight has been paired with music as an additional mechanism for providing feedback. In addition to the light illuminating when the device is activated, music

also plays. This is accomplished by connecting a music player to the same power source as the clocklight.

Richard P. West and K. Richard Young

See also Applied Behavior Analysis; Behavioral Approaches, Foundations of; Reinforcement; Rewards and Punishments; Whole-Class Measurement of Disruptive Behavior

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COGENERATIVE DIALOGUE AND URBAN CLASSROOMS

A great deal has been written about the mismatches that can occur in the common situation of having white, middle-class teachers in urban classrooms with mostly students of color from different cultures than that of their teachers. Furthermore, in this literature, a good deal of the conversation is often about teachers needing to act in more powerful and assertive ways than they may be used to, ways that convey caring but that are more direct and to the point concerning matters of acceptable and unacceptable behavior. *Warm demanders* has been one apt term for capturing what the message is about and what teachers need to strive to become.

However, in this message about teachers needing to be more powerful, what sometimes gets lost is the recognition that students too need to be empowered. It is important for teachers to find ways to *collaborate* with students, even as they (the teachers) act in ways that are more assertive, direct, and powerful. This entry focuses on a process that does just that, namely, empowers students through a collaborative process called *cogenerative*

dialogue—or *cogen* for short. To explain cogen and how it works to both empower students and foster in them healthy/functional ways of being in the classroom, the entry tells the story of a recent research study.

Background of the Study

The study took place in an urban, comprehensive neighborhood school where almost 100% of the youth enrolled were African American students from working-class homes with limited economic resources. Differences between the high school youth and their teachers, resident and new, were striking—especially in terms of social indicators such as race and class and also in terms of the culture that the youth and their teachers could and did enact in the classroom.

One of the first things learned in these classes was that white middle-class teachers struggled to establish control over their students. This presented a dilemma since the researchers themselves understood that optimal learning environments are associated with *collaborating-with* youth rather than simply seeking to establish *control over* them. However, since the teacher researchers were very different than the students in social categories such as race and class, there were predictable problems when it came to teachers and learners fluently interacting with one another. For example, some teachers had difficulty understanding the dialect used by students, and what was perceived by the students as teacher’s big words was often experienced by students as being disrespectful. It was apparent that teachers and students would benefit from activities in which people who differ from one another socially could learn how to successfully interact and come to use difference as a resource rather than as a symbol of deficits and dysfunctionality.

Cogenerative Dialogue as a Collaborative Activity

One of the first innovations tried was to have teachers endeavor to learn from urban youth, “how to better teach kids like me.” Researchers identified two youth from each classroom in which research or student teaching was occurring and met with them and their new and resident teachers at least once a week (e.g., after the school day had finished or during lunchtime). The purpose of the meeting was to obtain feedback on how to become a better teacher of urban youth. Although the activity was a good one and yielded some promising results, one thing learned very quickly is that students had very traditional views about effective teaching and learning. For example, they favored what might be described as busywork, advocated strict control of teachers over students, and often recommended corporal

punishment (and other forms of physical and social violence). In other words, the youth involved in the project had a mixture of good and bad ideas. Furthermore, the researchers noticed that meetings with the students developed social bonds with them that transferred into the classroom. These students had the teachers' backs. This led to considering modifications to the meetings so as to involve a larger number of youth on a more regular basis. The emergent design of meetings was called cogenerative dialogue, or cogen for short.

Cogen is a group activity in which four or five youths and their teachers co-participate in discussions focused on what has happened during a lesson. Discussions orient toward identifying what worked and should be continued, what did not work and should be changed, and what innovations might be introduced to improve the quality of the learning environments.

The cogen meetings were structured so that all participants shared turns at talk and listened attentively to one another. The shared agreement was that the topic of conversation would not change until there was consensus that there was no point in further discussion—either consensus had been reached or the group was at a dead end. It was agreed that all participants should have opportunities to speak, be heard, and that the time individuals spoke would be roughly equal. The metaphor used was that of a level playing field to indicate that participants would have equal power—that dialogue would not be characterized by power differentials. The ground rule was that talk would be respectful and that emotional outbursts would not be permitted. Furthermore, each participant had a responsibility to ensure that the rules of cogen were adhered to. At the end of each cogen, somebody in the group would explicitly list what had been agreed—a practice that heightened participants' awareness about what would be the expected changes in subsequent classes and what would be the reference points for evaluating whether changes agreed to in cogen were occurring.

One of the most gratifying outcomes of these cogen meetings and discussions was that students involved in cogen often became co-teachers with their classroom teachers. That is, participation in cogen produced a shared responsibility for the quality of the learning environments. When it made sense to do so, the youth involved in cogen spoke up for and to others for the purpose of improving others' learning.

Collaborating to Produce a New Classroom Culture

Cogen was a seedbed for the growth of new classroom culture. Since participants for cogen were selected based on differences from one another, it is not surprising that participants (teachers and students alike) were

challenged initially as they navigated social differences and as they endeavored to achieve continuous, fluent, and successful interactions. The main challenge was for all participants to adapt their cultural resources so that synchrony could occur in interaction chains involving individuals who were different from one another in a number of social characteristics.

In the course of cogen meetings, it became clear that the focus on sharing talk and accomplishing successful interactions was more important than reaching agreement on how to change the quality of the learning environments. Students not only learned to interact cordially with one another and the teacher; they also learned when to speak, when to listen, and how to communicate nonverbally. Developed first during cogen meetings, these new cultural resources and ways of interacting were then transferred into the classroom and into interactions with school administrators and life at home.

Cogen has been used successfully in numerous places where teaching and learning occur and in faculty meetings and similar social contexts. Accordingly, there can be many purposes for cogen, but the critical purpose has to do with structures supporting listening, sharing talk, and producing positive outcomes. For example, an important part of cogen involves listening with the purpose of making sense of what others are saying and seeing the possibilities in their suggestions. This kind of listening has inner speech focused on making sense of what others are saying and fully exploring the possibilities of their suggestions—not on developing counterarguments to what is being said. That is, radical listening of the kind encouraged in cogen meetings involves listening with the goal of making sense of and speaking for the purpose of getting clarification, seeking additional relevant information, and expanding the conversation around the ongoing flow of speech. It is only when the possibilities of what is being suggested have been fully explored that it is appropriate to move on to a different topic or to a different set of suggestions. At that time it would be appropriate to present suggested modifications and/or alternatives.

Of course, in any social setting, rules are not determining. What is appropriate is always contingent on what is happening. For example, when injustices occur there is a responsibility to exercise right speech—that is, to initiate corrective action by speaking out. During cogen meetings, all individuals have a responsibility to engage in right speech when and as necessary. A decision on whether to speak out would have regard for the interests of the collective and individuals involved in cogen. Even though right speech might involve courage, it also is necessary to exhibit practical wisdom such that what is said is honest, to the point, caring, and succinct.

Appropriate enactment of cogen can be a challenge. The greatest problems are associated with teachers

enacting a teacher-centered role in cogen—monopolizing time of talk and reprimanding students for what they say even though what was said was within the rule structure for cogen. When participants step outside of the agreed-upon rule structure, it can undermine confidence in the activity itself.

Similarly, youth enjoyed the liberation of being able to speak freely in cogen and often endeavored to speak just as freely in the classroom, not only of the teacher involved in cogen but in other classrooms as well. Often this put them in hot water with school administrators and other teachers.

Obviously, the benefits of cogen are substantial, and it is important that there be heightened awareness of the potential for improving the quality of classroom and school environments. Also, it is necessary to be aware of contradictions such as those that occur when the culture of cogen is enacted elsewhere or/and when the culture from elsewhere is enacted in cogen. Attention to contradictions can resolve problems, catalyze adjustments, and thereby increase the chances of reaping the benefits of *collaborating-with* in activities such as cogen.

Collaborating for Literate Citizenry

Cogen, radical listening, and right speech all involve awareness of self in relation to others. All participants come to understand that differences are a resource from which everybody can learn and benefit. It is not necessary for everybody to have the same understandings or to agree with one another's actions in particular circumstances. Instead, the focus is on understanding what others do and why they do what they do. Individuals have the right to be different as long as they do not disrupt the quality of life for others in a class.

Not surprisingly, the emotional climate associated with cogen is very positive, and the culture associated with producing and maintaining positive emotional climates in cogen can be enacted in other contexts, including the classroom and more generally in the participants' lifeworlds. Accordingly, cogen has a potential role in improving the quality of classroom learning environments and producing citizens who can be successful in diverse social contexts.

Kenneth Tobin

See also African American Styles of Teaching and Disciplining; American Individualisms; Collaborative Approach to Classroom Management; Teacher–Student Relationships; Urban Schools; Warm Demanders

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COLLABORATIVE APPROACH TO CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Collaboration is a process in which two or more people actively work together in a well-defined relationship in order to achieve common goals. A collaborative approach to classroom management implies the involvement of the teacher and students in one or more components of classroom management, with the goal of promoting student learning. This approach is based on proactive negotiations between the teacher and students. Among others, it fosters contributions toward predefined shared goals, active exchange of ideas, innovative problem-solving strategies, and shared responsibility for decisions.

A collaborative approach to classroom management creates a supportive environment in the classroom where everyone can feel valued, which generates positive changes and reinforces the commitment of those involved. The following interactive elements guide the practice of this collaborative approach: “(1) identify the situation, (2) clarify the expectations, (3) establish a collective commitment, (4) ensure open communication, (5) encourage effective practices, and (6) follow specific guidelines.”

Identify the Situation

The situation is a combination of formal and informal circumstances to determine the existing conditions in the classroom. Thus, it is essential for the teacher and students to understand what is taking place, either formally or informally. This is important to set the foundation for everything else that follows in order to create the collaborative environment necessary for effective classroom management.

To identify the situation, for example, a teacher obtains information about the students from different sources before making any decisions, particularly at the beginning of the school year. A teacher also conducts early observations before a specific activity occurs, to understand students' prior knowledge and skills, the

learning context, and to modify instruction accordingly. This provides practical information necessary to make a collaborative classroom function properly in an organized and responsive way. In addition, a teacher pays attention to what students say (during classroom discussions and interactions with others), do (such as ability to follow directions), and write (e.g., does the student demonstrate organizational abilities and use of logic?).

Clarify the Expectations

An expectation is the anticipation of desirable or undesirable consequences of managing a classroom. Having clear expectations is very important, because this influences all the decisions made. By clarifying the expectations, both teacher and students alike understand which issues must be addressed and the best ways to achieve desired results and to sustain a positive classroom environment. A tracking process can be followed to show whether the agreements are being carried out as planned.

To clarify the expectations, for example, a teacher assists students on how to collaboratively build a community to support classroom management. This collaborative classroom community facilitates the accomplishment of unified goals through proactive planning, because the responsibility for what happens in the classroom is shared between the teacher and students. As appropriate to an age group, a teacher grants students active roles in the process of setting clear expectations. A teacher also clarifies with students the extent of their involvement in this effort, checks the adequacy of students' contributions through proactive negotiations, and creates an agreement with them, making clear how specific issues will be addressed.

Establish a Collective Commitment

A collective commitment is an agreement between the teacher and students to meet specific classroom goals without continuous supervision from the teacher. In this way, everybody feels involved and useful, gaining a sense of belonging that makes it more likely that students will comply with the agreement. Establishing a collective commitment creates a desire to reach the shared goals while overcoming any situation that may arise.

To establish a collective commitment, for example, a teacher encourages students to take responsibility for their choices or actions in the classroom, which helps them develop problem-solving skills and strengthens personal relationships. A teacher also assists students to develop a sense of belonging by taking into consideration what they want and need, making them feel connected and accepted. This increases the motivation of the students to make contributions and feel successful due

to their individual and group efforts. For an effective collective commitment, it is important to make collaboration central in the classroom, giving value to students' contributions and building upon these contributions.

Ensure Open Communication

Communication is a process of social interaction that allows the teacher and students to convey information and exchange ideas in order to influence specific actions in the classroom. Communication strategies must be planned to reflect the diverse styles of the teacher, students, and other people within the collaborative classroom community. For the communication to be effective, it is important to foster a group dialogue of openness and exploration among everybody and make sure students understand the classroom communication procedures.

To ensure open communication, for example, a teacher facilitates and supports ongoing dialogue with the students and among students. In a collaborative classroom community, open communication is central to promote student learning. Therefore, a teacher also shows interest and care by having conversations with students (instead of making speeches) that turn them into an active audience. In addition, a teacher observes and maintains awareness of student actions during instruction and provides immediate and consistent feedback through stimulating dialogue (such as beginning with a description of what the class has achieved, followed by what needs to be improved).

Encourage Effective Practices

Effective practices are comprehensive established procedures for promoting student learning in the classroom. This can be accomplished when the teacher and students work together balancing their needs with the available resources. Also, fostering an environment in which everyone is supportive of the capabilities of everyone else increases appreciation of individual contributions to sustain the collaborative classroom community. As a result, everyone feels empowered and able to actively participate in classroom activities because there is a belief that each contribution makes a difference.

To encourage effective practices, for example, a teacher promotes a flexible classroom environment with emphasis on the appreciation of student differences and helps students to understand the diverse characteristics of everybody else in the classroom (such as others' interests, values, and beliefs). Doing so impacts how instruction and learning occur and how students behave. A teacher also considers students' learning styles, developmental level, and diverse characteristics when planning instruction and evaluation, as well as prioritizes lesson planning

based on exemplary benchmarks (outstanding reference points), because this is the basis of a well-managed classroom. When delivering instruction, a teacher monitors the class and makes decisions about the lesson pace, interest, comprehension, and the need to reinforce what is taught.

Follow Specific Guidelines

Guidelines are recommended practices that provide direction and assist teachers in determining the course of action to better manage the classroom. They provide resources to build and sustain collaborative relationships, facilitate interactions with students, and make these interactions more predictable. Involvement, empathy, trust, social support, and empowerment are some of the guidelines that support collaboration in the classroom.

To follow specific guidelines, for example, a teacher builds collaborative relationships with the students through knowledgeable modeling in the classroom. A teacher also shows sensitivity and understanding toward students' emotions and feelings and works with them when necessary to decide how to fix a specific problem and determine the best way to do it. In addition, a teacher (1) establishes procedures to evaluate students in order to be consistent and fair and to keep a well-managed classroom, (2) utilizes guidelines to determine the effectiveness of the classroom practices, and (3) guides the learning process according to students' needs.

Conclusion

Teachers and students implement decisions more effectively if they have collaborated on those decisions. A collaborative approach to classroom management gives focus and provides a strong basis for decision making through long-term collaborative relationships in order to promote student learning in the classroom. If properly used, this approach can help better understand how to develop priorities and achieve a high level of mutual support within the classroom.

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See also Class Meetings; Democratic Meetings; Democratic Practices in Classrooms and Schools

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COLLABORATIVE FOR ACADEMIC, SOCIAL, AND EMOTIONAL LEARNING

The Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL) is a leading organization advancing research, school-based programming, and public policy focused on the development of children's social and emotional competence. CASEL's mission is to establish social and emotional learning (SEL) as an essential part of education from preschool to high school. SEL involves the processes through which children and adults acquire and effectively apply the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary to understand and manage emotions, set and achieve positive goals, feel and show empathy for others, establish and maintain positive relationships, and make responsible decisions. Increasingly, SEL is recognized as the missing piece in school reform, a key to helping young people succeed in school and life and a basic component of building future leaders and citizens. When teachers and students focus on social-emotional competencies and more positive relationships, the result is improved classroom climate, student behavior, and student learning. This entry summarizes CASEL's goals, some key accomplishments, and plans for future field development.

CASEL was founded in 1994 and is based in Chicago, Illinois. It promotes rigorous, evidence-based educational approaches that integrate children's social and emotional development into the process of learning and growing. CASEL translates scientific knowledge into effective district, school, and classroom practices and disseminates information about scientifically based SEL approaches. It works to enhance the professional preparation and learning of educators so they have the knowledge and tools to implement high-quality SEL instruction. CASEL also networks and collaborates with educators, scientists, policymakers, community leaders, and child advocates to establish federal, state, and local

education policies that foster high-quality implementation of SEL practice.

Collaboration is central to how CASEL functions as an organization. It builds working relationships with professional colleagues across a variety of disciplines and acts as a convener, synthesizer of new knowledge, and advocate. CASEL's vision is to ensure that all people have the social-emotional competencies they need to succeed in school and life, to care for themselves and each other, and to create a more just and peaceful world.

Defining Social and Emotional Learning

CASEL introduced and described SEL in the groundbreaking 1997 book *Promoting Social and Emotional Learning: Guidelines for Educators*. CASEL has identified five interrelated sets of cognitive, affective, and behavioral competencies that are critical to being a good student, citizen, and worker:

Self-awareness: The ability to accurately recognize one's emotions and thoughts and their influence on behavior.

Self-management: The ability to regulate one's emotions, thoughts, and behaviors and to set and work toward personal and academic goals.

Social awareness: The ability to take the perspective of and empathize with others from diverse backgrounds and cultures and to recognize family, school, and community resources and supports.

Relationship skills: The ability to establish and maintain healthy and rewarding relationships with diverse individuals and groups through communicating clearly, listening actively, cooperating, and negotiating conflict constructively.

Responsible decision making: The ability to make constructive and respectful choices about personal and social interactions based on consideration of ethical standards, the realistic evaluation of consequences of various actions, and the well-being of self and others.

The short-term goals of SEL programs are (1) to foster students' self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship, and responsible decision-making skills; (2) to enhance their attitudes and beliefs about self, others, and school; and (3) to create caring, participatory classroom environments and school cultures where children and adults feel a sense of safety and belonging. These, in turn, lead to better adjustment and academic performance as reflected by more positive social behavior and peer relationships, fewer conduct problems, reduced aggression and drug use, less emotional distress, and better grades and test scores.

Effective SEL programing begins in preschool and continues through high school. It is based on the

understanding that best learning occurs in the context of supportive relationships that make learning engaging, challenging, and meaningful. Research indicates that SEL efforts are most beneficial when they (1) include theoretically sound, research-based classroom instructional practices that promote children's social-emotional competence and character; (2) encourage student engagement in positive activities in and out of the classroom; (3) are implemented by educators who receive continuing professional development and administrative support at the district central office and school levels; (4) encourage broad family and community involvement in program planning, implementation, and evaluation; and (5) are evaluated regularly to monitor implementation, assess student outcomes, and improve future efforts. SEL is most powerful when it is used as a unifying framework to organize and coordinate efforts to promote positive school culture and climate, student-centered learning, youth development, health and mental health, character, service learning, and citizenship.

Key CASEL Projects and Initiatives

CASEL collaborates with top scientists and practitioners to advance SEL research, practice, and policy in an ambitious effort to take SEL to scale nationwide. Priority areas include the following:

Advancing the Science of SEL

CASEL critically analyzes and summarizes the scientific evidence of SEL effects with particular attention to social, behavioral, health, and academic outcomes. In 2004, CASEL published *Building Academic Success on Social and Emotional Learning: What Does the Research Say?*, which makes a compelling case that SEL programing can improve academic performance. More recently, CASEL published a meta-analysis of 213 experimental-control group studies documenting the positive impact universal, school-based K-12 SEL programs have on students' behavior and academic achievement. It also edited a major handbook on SEL research and practice that is scheduled for publication in 2015. CASEL also conducts original research on the effects of systemic districtwide and schoolwide SEL programing.

Informing Educators About Quality Programs and Practices

CASEL has developed guidelines to help educators adopt and implement evidence-based SEL programing. It reviews and judges nationally available curricula for their effectiveness, and makes information about the

best scientifically based programs available to educators. It recently published the *2013 CASEL Guide: Effective Social and Emotional Learning—Preschool and Elementary School Edition*. A guide for middle and high school programs is expected to be available in 2014. The programs that CASEL recommends must meet three criteria: (1) be well-designed classroom or school programs that systematically promote students' social and emotional competence, provide opportunities for practice, and offer multi-year programing; (2) deliver high-quality initial training and ongoing technical assistance to ensure sound implementation; and (3) be research-based, with carefully conducted evaluations that document positive impacts on student behavior and/or academic performance.

Collaborating With Districts on Systemic SEL

In 2011, CASEL launched a national initiative aimed at supporting districts' capacities to promote SEL for all students. Called the *Collaborating Districts Initiative* (CDI), this effort recognizes that positive student outcomes depend on improving schools and classrooms, which in turn depends on improving district capacities and conditions. To promote such systemic changes, CASEL is partnering with eight large urban school districts: Anchorage, Austin, Chicago, Cleveland, Nashville, Oakland, Sacramento, and Washoe County (Nevada). All are using a theory of action that addresses the following elements:

Provide leadership: Develop an SEL vision and long-term plans; assess the district's SEL-related resources and needs; align budgets and staffing to support SEL implementation; model social-emotional competence in interactions with staff, students, parents, and community members.

Strengthen instruction and programing: Develop SEL learning standards and assessments; adopt evidence-based programs and practices; integrate SEL with other initiatives and priorities, including core content, pedagogy, and student support; design and implement high-quality SEL professional development.

Evaluate and continuously improve SEL programing: Monitor SEL implementation processes; assess school climate and students' SEL outcomes; invite feedback from stakeholders; and share data to guide discussions to enhance future programing.

Funded by NoVo Foundation, the Einhorn Family Charitable Trust, and 1440 Foundation, the CDI involves the American Institutes for Research as an external third-party evaluator. The goals of the CDI are (1) to develop districts' capacities to plan, implement, and monitor systemic changes that will impact schools

and classrooms in ways that enhance students' social-emotional competence and academic performance and (2) to document lessons learned that can inform future efforts to support systemic SEL implementation in districts across the country. CASEL is developing a variety of documents and resources to support district SEL implementation. For example, CASEL currently prepares district and school guides, toolkits, and professional learning opportunities that provide step-by-step guidelines and tools to plan, implement, and evaluate systemic SEL programing.

Promoting Federal and State Policies to Support SEL

CASEL has been working to elevate the profile of SEL in federal policy. It does this through regular contact and presentations with Congressional and U.S. Department of Education (ED) staff, recommending specific language for legislation and promoting the Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning Act of 2013 (HR 1875). HR 1875 will allow flexible use of federal funds to train teachers and administrators to implement SEL programing. CASEL's overarching goal is to have language inserted into the Elementary and Secondary Education Act as well as ED competitive grants (e.g., Race to the Top, Investing in Innovation, Institute of Education Sciences) that promotes SEL adoption, implementation, and evaluation.

CASEL worked closely with the Illinois State Board of Education when, in 2004, Illinois became the first state to establish preschool to high school SEL standards as part of their student learning standards. These standards highlight what students should know and be able to do in the domain of social and emotional development. CASEL also published a scan of SEL-related standards and guidelines from preschool to high school in all 50 states. Since state policies are continually evolving, CASEL will update the scan regularly and post our findings on the CASEL website.

Concluding Remarks

A recent national survey of preschool to high school teachers reported that (1) teachers understand, value, and endorse SEL for all students; (2) teachers believe that SEL helps students achieve in school, work, and life; (3) district leadership and schoolwide programing could enhance teacher interest in and support of SEL; (4) SEL should be embedded in student learning standards; and (5) professional development for SEL should be increased. CASEL agrees with these teachers and believes that effective, integrated SEL programing is the most promising educational reform to promote the academic success, engaged citizenship, healthy actions, and well-being of

children and youth. The next decade of the science and practice of systemic district, school, and classroom SEL programing will require researchers, educators, and policymakers to work together to design evidence-based, coordinated preschool to high school programing, accountability strategies, and support systems to foster the social, emotional, and academic learning of all students. Through these collaborations, CASEL will work to ensure that all students have a chance to thrive in school, their careers, and their communities.

Roger P. Weissberg

See also Character Education; Climate: School and Classroom; Conditions for Learning; Facilitated Social Learning Groups; Open Circle; School-Based Occupational Therapy; Self-Regulated Learning; Social and Emotional Learning for Young Children; Teacher–Student Relationships

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COMMUNITY APPROACHES TO CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Community approaches to classroom management aim at something higher than merely preventing behavior problems and maintaining order. They also aim at developing better people, with *better* defined in moral terms and in terms of active citizenship. With community approaches, the focus widens so as to foster positive relationships not simply or mainly between a particular dyad—such as between a teacher and student—but throughout classrooms and schools so as to create a feeling and reality for every student that they are members of a just, caring, and inclusive community. Therefore, a community approach treats classroom management as essentially a moral endeavor, one that helps each student to become an active citizen.

The aim of active citizenship links community approaches to the American ideal of a democratic community. To adopt a community approach is, then, to feature the goal of supporting children and adolescents learning how to behave not simply in classrooms and schools but also in the larger, democratic society.

Just, Caring, and Democratic (Classroom and School) Communities

The concern for community building and citizenship is nothing new in American public schools. From the beginning, U.S. public schools have espoused the goal of

supporting moral (character) development and citizenship. Over the years, what has changed is not the espoused goal so much as the meaning of the goal and the commitment and means to achieving the goal. For example, there has always been disagreement over what is the wellspring of morality and character development. Is it obedience demanded from teachers' authoritarian control? Is it teachers and parents modeling and teaching virtues such as honesty and humility? Is it students developing appreciation of rules and abstract moral principles? Or is it caring relationships that provide motivation to be moral?

Recently, more and more educators have been adopting the last option as being the most likely wellspring. Not *caring about* but *caring for* has become a central topic in discussions of moral education. This represents a shift in emphasis. Justice had traditionally been the main emphasis in talk about moral and character development and the development of democratic communities. Justice is about rights—rights defining individual freedom and rights defining the common good. Care is about connections. The need for care and not simply for justice comes from the fact that a community can be just but not especially caring. That is, a just community can have little warmth and bonding between members. Therefore, both justice and care are needed for there to be a moral community.

While there may be reasonable clarity about the moral community needing to be both just and caring, there is little clarity about what developing a just and caring classroom or school community means for different groups of students. After all, developing a moral community cannot mean the same for preschool classrooms as it does for, say, classrooms of adolescents. The meaning is also likely to change for groups differing with respect to culture.

In addition, ambiguity comes from the term *community* being impossible to define operationally. *Community* is one of those terms such as *love* and *care* that refers to something real but not to something that lends itself to precise measurement. That is, we feel we know a community when we see one, but we have difficulty measuring precisely what makes the community a community. The measures seem to change with each instance of community. For example, one first-grade teacher said she knew her class had become a community when, late in the school year, the children were working in their cooperative learning groups and broke out in quiet song. While breaking out in quiet song may indeed have indicated this particular group had become a community, it would be silly to use breaking out in quiet song as a universal or even common measure of community. Community, it seems, refers to an experience of oneness among group members—an experience that can be manifest in multiple ways. However, for community approaches,

that experience of oneness is best derived from a shared commitment to moral values.

The multiple, changing, and inherently ambiguous meanings of community partially explain why community approaches have less to say about specific methods than do other approaches. Furthermore, the few methods that are discussed in community approaches are often so general as to be more like guidelines than methods. For example, community approaches stress getting children and adolescents actively involved and participating in the governance of classrooms or schools. However, there is no clearly drawn path for a teacher to follow that makes it simple for any teacher to foster good participation. The success of community approaches depends as much or more on teachers' skills at developing positive relationships with children and at being a particular kind of leader than it does on specialized knowledge of methods. In whatever way a teacher or group of teachers succeed in creating a community, doing so seems to matter, because the data suggest that successful community building has demonstrable positive effects on students, their behavior, and their learning.

Some but not all community approaches emphasize the need to develop democratic classroom communities—in part because American democracy gives a specific meaning to *justice*, *caring*, and *community*. Those adopting an American democratic meaning argue that because we live in a democratic society we should be preparing students to be active citizens in a democratic society. How else can we prepare students than by building classroom and school communities that are themselves democratic communities?

But what does this mean? For some the meaning of American democracy is not simply or mainly tied to a political system or to voting. The meaning is more centrally tied to a way of life and to an ideal, the ideal of individuals actively supporting *individual rights* and individual interests on the one hand, and the *common good* on the other. We often remember the part about individual rights and interests and forget the part about the common good. In reality, both parts have been at the heart of American democracy from its beginnings.

The main assumption in the American democratic system is that there needs to be a way for everyone *to have a voice* in defining the meaning of individual rights and the common good. That is, American democracy embraces diversity—at least in principle—and opposes authoritarian control that stifles the individual voices of its citizens. In democratic classrooms and democratic schools, then, teachers have authority to the extent they represent the common good.

Given this description of American democracy and the teacher's role in democratic classrooms, it is no wonder that those advocating for community approaches

that are also democratic approaches have been among the most outspoken critics of classroom management as it is carried out in many North American classrooms. They point out that there are two main contradictions in widespread approaches to classroom and behavior management. The first contradiction is between an oft-found emphasis on controlling children and American society's espousing the democratic ideal of sharing control among citizens. The second contradiction is between the progressive philosophy that most educators use to support children academically and the nonprogressive philosophy that most use to manage behavior problems.

With respect to the first contradiction, those advocating for democratic approaches point out that in many schools today there is little or no discussion about the goals of classroom and behavior management. Instead, there is the tacit assumption that being efficient in establishing control and order makes good common sense, because that is what works. However, those advocating for community approaches point out that what works is tied to goals, and the goals of a democratic, community approach go beyond the goal of establishing order, having students remain on task, or some other goal that might be sufficient for some teachers but not for those adopting a democratic community approach.

Therefore, advocates of democratic approaches question the tacit assumption that simply controlling students is what makes good common sense—by bringing out its implications for the long term. They argue that if children and adolescents are raised in environments that simply control them, then they may become good workers, but they are not likely to become good citizens who know how to question authority responsibly and who are motivated to take responsibility for making life better for everyone.

With respect to the second contradiction, most American educators today acknowledge the need for students to actively participate in their own learning under the tutelage of mentors who explain and guide. Most understand that rewards and punishments and transmitting knowledge directly from teacher to child are not enough to teach children how to read, write, and progress academically. Students must puzzle and interpret and find meaning on their own, and teachers must build on students' interests, not simply on the interests found in assigned readings, high-stakes tests, or whatever. This is the essence of the progressive philosophy of teaching.

However, when it comes to behavior management, many rely on rewards and punishments to teach children and adolescents how to behave, and many rely on a teacher-centered approach to teaching, one that imparts information without full regard for students' interests and needs to explore and puzzle on their own. Those advocating for democratic approaches criticize these

nonprogressive approaches for their not resolving the contradiction, by adopting the same philosophy for teaching academic subjects when managing behavior problems. Just as a right answer approach will not stimulate good thinking about academic subjects, so too a right behavior approach will not stimulate good thinking about how to be a responsible citizen in classrooms or schools.

Central Features and Methods

Like other approaches, community approaches begin with the observation that successful classroom and behavior management depends on teachers developing positive relationships with children and adolescents. For example, community approaches, like other approaches (including behaviorist approaches), caution against educators showing anger and using punishment when children and adolescents misbehave—because anger and punishment work against the development of positive teacher–student relationships.

However, what sets community approaches apart is their radical trust in children's and adolescents' motivation and ability to take responsibility and to respond positively to guidance around moral issues. Therefore, what we have in community approaches is a paradigm shift in the way children and adolescents are *seen*, a shift from mistrust to trust. Rather than seeing children and adolescents as being prone to mischief, community approaches see children and adolescents as being prone to doing good. Rather than seeing children and adolescents as being limited in their ability to grasp moral issues, community approaches see children and adolescents as being capable if given the right supports.

Community approaches also define and promote community by emphasizing *dialogue*. For community approaches, dialogue between teachers and students is more than for exchanging ideas. Dialogue is also for connecting to students in ways that make students feel cared for and respected by their feeling understood and heard. For community approaches, dialogue has the long-term goal of having students eventually become caring, responsible citizens who know how to function in and contribute to a democratic society.

Trust and dialogue, then, define the central ways that community approaches demonstrate care for students. Both lead logically to two other features of community approaches, namely, sharing control and soliciting active participation in the development and maintenance of communal life in the classroom and school.

Sharing Control and Active Participation

To create a sense of community, with everyone working together, community approaches advocate *sharing*

control with students and soliciting students' active participation in developing and maintaining the classroom or school as a community. At first glance, it may seem simple to share control with students. It may also smack of being permissive. However, those professionals adopting community approaches show us that sharing control is not easy. It is, in fact, often easier for a teacher to maintain all the control than to share control effectively. Take the following example as an indication of what this means:

In one kindergarten classroom, class meeting had fallen apart. Children were poking one another, talking simultaneously, and, in general, not listening to what the teacher was trying to convey. Instead of reprimanding them or taking control directly, the teacher said, "We've fallen apart. What are we going to do?"

In response to the teacher's question, one child suggested she send them all to time-out. The teacher explained she could not do that because doing so would mean they would not get anything done. Another child said the school should hire extra teachers to see to it the children behaved. The teacher explained that this would not work either—both because the school did not have the money to hire more teachers and also because it would not solve the problem of everybody finding a way to be together at meeting time.

Gradually, the teacher shaped the discussion so that everyone was talking not about how some outside force could control them but how the children in partnership with the teacher could generate good rules and routines to help them control themselves.

Notice here that the teacher did not simply give over control to the children—by accepting every idea they came up with. In true democratic fashion, she joined the debate so that the final, jointly constructed rules for running class meetings were rules that everyone could live by.

The theme of sharing control and encouraging active participation shows up in the talk of community approaches for older children as well. For example, in what came to be known as the Child Development Project (CDP), a comprehensive elementary school improvement program, significant improvements were found among schools that implemented the program, which included heavy emphasis on class meetings, cooperative learning, literature-based reading, cross-grade buddies, and whole-school community-building activities. These and other methods had specific meanings

within the program. For example, the kind of cooperative learning recommended by CDP ruled out intergroup competition, extrinsic group rewards, group grades, and preassigned group roles; that is, it ruled out those practices assumed to work against community building. The whole-school community-building activities included welcoming newcomers, Grand Persons' gatherings, and schoolwide mural painting.

With adolescents, we see this same theme of sharing control and encouraging active participation reflected in a story told by a long-time education leader, Theodore Sizer, about a morning routine in the high school where he had his first teaching job. Each morning, the students assembled inside the school's auditorium—with the faculty remaining outside. Once the students were settled, one of the students came outside and announced to the faculty that the students were ready to receive them. This sharing of control and trust in students helped make the school a community where students took pride in accepting responsibility for making the community work well.

These and other features and methods that define community approaches to behavior and classroom management indicate just how challenging and labor-intensive community approaches have become—so much so that many schools and school systems have not been willing or able to adopt them as their own.

Reactions to Misbehavior: Discipline and Community Approaches

No approach will always succeed at preventing behavior problems. So, every approach has to have a plan for disciplining and reacting to behavior problems. However, community approaches differ from other types by their moral language and their emphasis on the moral domain.

We see this clearly in Larry Nucci's having teachers match their responses to disruption according to whether or not the disruption raises moral issues. The key distinction for Nucci is between *moral*, *conventional*, and *personal domains*. The moral domain has to do with justice and caring and what may be regarded as universal. For example, regardless of culture, adults everywhere treat unprovoked hitting as wrong. In contrast, the conventional domain has to do with the standards and procedures of a particular group—such as dress codes and how students address teachers, by their first name or last. Finally, the personal domain has to do with individual taste and private matters—such as liking hip-hop music and disliking insects.

Most responses by teachers to misbehavior are responses to violations of conventions rather than to violations in the moral domain. Nucci's main suggestion

has to do with teachers responding to perceived misbehavior in *domain-concordant* ways. In response to moral transgressions, teachers act in domain-concordant ways when they point out harmful consequences and when they promote perspective taking. For example, if students hit others, teachers act in domain-concordant ways when they help students understand the ways that hitting can be damaging and when they help students resolve conflicts through coordinating perspectives and agendas rather than through hitting. In response to transgressions of conventions, teachers act in domain-concordant ways when they refer to classroom or school rules and to the disruption transgressions may cause. For example, if children violate a rule about raising hands to speak during circle time, teachers act in domain-concordant ways when they refer to the rule about raising hands and how the rule helps organize discussion.

Using these same examples, we can better understand what it means for teachers to act in domain-discordant ways. They do so when they respond to hitting by referring to a rule—as if there were no moral implications around hitting. And they do so when they respond to children's breaking a rule about raising hands to speak by saying others are harmed when that is not likely the case. Interestingly, children notice and resent when teachers act in domain-discordant ways. In sum, a major way that community approaches react to problem behavior is by having educators act in domain-concordant ways, especially when the behavior problems indicate a student may not be sharing the moral values that make for a just and caring community.

Classroom management theorist Forrest Gathercoal offers a framework for older students and educators to think about discipline and the school community. The framework is no less than the U.S. Constitution. Except in matters of curriculum (where teachers retain control), the school community agrees to be governed by the Constitution and to struggle in true democratic fashion to balance the rights of individuals (e.g., to free speech) with those *state interest rights* having to do with property loss or damage, legitimate educational purpose, threat to health and safety, and serious disruption of the educational process—in short, the *common good*.

When a school employs this framework, educators promote open discussion about rights and competing rights, so when a teacher says in response to disruptive talk in class, “Is this the responsible time, place, or manner for talking?” students know how to respond to the question. In short, Gathercoal provides a framework for both teachers and students to think about discipline—one that encourages debate about individual rights, the common good, and how, at any given moment, the community can affect the right balance between individual rights and the common good.

Special Education as a Community Approach

The present-day special education system derives from the mid-1970s law, PL 94-142: the Education of all Handicapped Children Act (now called the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, or IDEA), which came about to stop the unfair practice of segregating children who had disabilities. The law did several things, but the essentials were these: It ensured that children with disabilities receive an education. It mandated that children with disabilities be educated in the *least restrictive environment*, and it ensured that parents have the opportunity to be involved in the planning to provide extra supports and services.

PL 94-142 was the creation of lawyers and politicians, not simply or even mainly educators. Most educators at the time had misgivings about the law. For most educators and the general public at the time, schools were for preparing typical students to achieve and contribute to society later on. With this understanding of what schools are for, children with disabilities were seen as threats to schools achieving their main purpose—and so children with disabilities were segregated from the rest.

PL 94-142 challenged this understanding of what schools are for. Rather than placing cognitive-academic achievement and future contribution to society as the only core values, the law said democratic living in the present must also be a core value. It also said, in effect, that schools should approximate the ideal inclusive society envisioned in the autobiographies of people with disabilities and in the accounts of parents of children with disabilities. In effect, the law answered the question “What are schools for?” with a different question, “How should we live together?,” and the answer implied in the law was “a just, caring, and inclusive democratic community.”

Put another way, the special education system that emerged in the 1970s was a community approach to behavior and classroom management because, like all community approaches, it gave us a uniquely *moral* perspective on the question of how to educate students with disabilities. The special education system and community approaches in general bring out the moral issues implicit in behavior and classroom management. That is, rather than adding moral issues to the mix, they show us that moral issues are already in the mix. In fact, one of special education's most important contributions to community approaches may be that of making us more aware and conscious of the moral in managing. Educators need not make moral issues the central issues defining their overall approach, but they do need to make moral issues relevant.

Here, the discussion has been about those approaches that take community building as the starting point for

thinking about ways to manage classrooms in ways that promote learning and prevent problem behavior. For some, this means making classrooms and schools into satisfying work communities. For others, it means making classrooms and schools into just caring and democratic communities where a major aim is that of preparing students for citizenship in a democratic society. The main assumption in community approaches is that we learn what we live.

Community building follows no simple script. There are preferred methods, but in the end, community approaches rest on the leadership abilities of educators who know how to share control with students and promote in students motivation to reflect not only on their own best interests but on the common good. To this end, community approaches align themselves with methods also found in other kinds of approaches, methods such as holding class meetings and making heavy use of cooperative learning groups. Some methods are especially *at home* in community approaches—such as community meetings to discuss class or school issues and service learning. In the end, however, community approaches depend as much on a commitment to ideals and moral values as they do on specific methods.

For the majority of community approaches, behavior and classroom management is (or should be) essentially a moral endeavor. Therefore, community approaches take us away from focusing strictly on how to control students and return us to the themes about the character of students and about schools needing to prepare students to live responsibly/morally in our democratic society.

W. George Scarlett

See also Caring Approaches; Democratic Practices in Classrooms and Schools; Just Community; Kohlberg, Lawrence; Sharing Authority

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COMP

See Classroom Organization and Management Program

COMPUTER-ASSISTED INSTRUCTION

Computer-assisted instruction (CAI) refers to using computers and related technology (e.g., tablet computers) to provide instruction in order to meet a student's educational needs or in order to fully engage students who might otherwise be disengaged within an instructional context. In addition to providing instruction and engaging students, CAI can also increase students' abilities to manipulate different types of devices and software—abilities that are valued in today's technologically oriented society.

One common misconception in using CAI, especially in the field of education, is that CAI is the same as assistive technology. Assistive technology is used to help students with disabilities to perform a life function such as providing text-to-speech readers for students with visual disabilities, or adaptive utensils to aid a student in eating. CAI is different because it provides instruction on a skill such as solving a math equation, learning vocabulary, or identifying appropriate classroom behavior such as raising a hand to gain teacher's attention.

For teachers determined to keep all their students occupied while they attend to an individual student or to a small group of students, CAI can provide experiences that promote the remaining students to continue engaging in a meaningful task, thus decreasing the likelihood that they will become disruptive or otherwise engage in off-task behaviors. CAI can also be helpful for teachers

who struggle to find enough time in their school day to provide the academic instruction required in order for students to be successful in school.

Using CAI to Keep Students Engaged

CAI can be used to engage students during times that might otherwise be downtime. For most classrooms, downtime more often than not equals a host of undesired disruptive behaviors. However, when using CAI for this purpose, there are several things a teacher must consider. First, skills that require only one response, also called discrete skills, have the most research to support their effectiveness. For example, discrete skills such as identifying vocabulary words, making a single mathematical computation (e.g., $4 \times 5 =$), and finding points on a map are well matched for CAI. Since these skills require only one response, a student can move through the program at a quick pace, which usually holds the student's attention. Skills requiring multiple steps (i.e., chained skills) for skill completion will require CAI programs that will allow a teacher to break the larger skill into smaller steps that require only one response at a time.

Second, most effective CAI programs provide immediate feedback for the student based on the student's response. For example, when a student gives a correct answer, the program provides some kind of reinforcing consequence such as an image of a star or thumbs up. This reinforcing consequence could also include audio, for example, a round of applause or a cheering crowd. Similarly, when the student makes an incorrect response, the program provides a redirecting prompt such as the words *try again*.

When students are using the CAI program, the teacher may be engaged with other students and may not be in close enough proximity to provide feedback necessary to ensure that the CAI students are learning the targeted skills and not just moving rapidly from one problem to the next. However, successful CAI programs have addressed this issue by programming hyperlinks into the CAI programs so that students cannot progress through the program unless they choose correct responses. And if students make an incorrect answer, these hyperlinks can also provide a brief tutorial. For example, if a student is prompted with the equation $4 \times 5 = ?$ and the student chooses 25, a hyperlink can be easily programmed to lead the student to solve the problem by counting four sets of five objects on the computer screen.

Finally, it is important to have a variety of activities or programs developed so that students do not fall into a rut or a routine when completing tasks. When using these programs, students benefit from there being more than one student on a device at a time. For most

students, adding the opportunity to participate with a peer increases the appeal of using the CAI program.

Using CAI to Teach Social Skills

In addition to providing instruction on a set of academic skills, CAI programs also provide direct and explicit instruction regarding appropriate social skills in the classroom. To date, CAI programs have been especially effective in teaching social skills to students with a wide range of disabilities, including those with autism spectrum disorder. This does not mean that these programs should be reserved for students with disabilities. They can be effective for a wide range of students.

One of the most effective means for providing social skills instruction is through the use of embedded videos or video self-modeling. Video self-models include brief clips of students engaging in problematic behavior as well as in socially acceptable behavior. By showing these examples of problematic and acceptable behavior, students are provided with multiple real-world examples for them to learn how best to meet the behavioral expectations in a classroom environment. For example, a teacher can easily create a video clip showing a student raising his hand and waiting for the teacher to call on him, and another clip showing a student sitting at his desk shouting and waving his hand in order to gain the teacher's attention. Following such video clips, the teacher can embed a rule such as "if you want to get the teacher's attention, you should raise your hand and wait." The student could then watch other video clips, correctly identifying scenarios where students are engaged in the desired behavior. These types of videos have been successful in shaping and changing undesired behavior into more socially appropriate behavior such as waiting in line, greeting peers, requesting a break during times of frustration, and following school and community rules and safety procedures during an emergency or a fire drill.

When creating video clips, teachers have several options. First, teachers can film the target students performing a desired behavior. This option requires specific teacher attention to capture the student performing all the steps of a desired behavior. Therefore, it may require video editing. Second, teachers can choose to film another peer performing the desired behavior or task. With this option, using a well-respected peer or a student in a higher grade level may increase a student's willingness to follow the video model. It also may not require as much editing. The third option is to film so it looks like the person watching the video is the one performing the behavior. With this option, a teacher has to secure a second set of hands in order to capture the video, which means the video may not be able to

capture all of the features of the behavior such as joint attention and reactions of others.

Conclusion

Technology can provide instruction, modeling, and automatic or immediate reinforcement—making it a potential asset in the classroom, one that can have a significant and positive effect on classroom management. In the classroom, CAI programs can allow for extra time to practice or to increase fluency for a classroom skill, whether that skill is academic or social in nature. CAI also can provide specific and detailed social skills instruction. Both kinds of application of CAI have been proven beneficial across multiple school settings.

As for CAI and expending resources, while there are a variety of commercially available educational games and applications that qualify as CAI, many teachers do not have the resources to purchase these programs. However, there are programs using software widely available in classrooms, programs such as PowerPoint that teachers can use to create their own CAI programs. While these programs may require some additional time to plan and develop, once a program is created, it can be implemented with fidelity, and students can use these programs independently, freeing a teacher to cover more topics of instruction on a daily basis. Finally, teachers considering incorporating CAI into their classroom should continue to stay informed about the ever-changing availability of software and applications, so that they can continue to make CAI selections based on the individual needs of their students.

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See also Applied Behavior Analysis; Video-Aided Instruction

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CONDITIONS FOR LEARNING

The phrase *conditions for learning* has two distinct meanings applicable to classroom management. The first, originally coined by Robert Gagné in a 1965 book that explores the types of learning and related instruction, describes the set of instructional factors that influence learning. The second, utilized by the U.S. Department of Education, describes a framework with which to understand issues in schools.

Gagné's Conditions of Learning

Conditions for learning, as defined by Gagné, describe the types, tasks, and events that underlie learning. This framework is often used to design and develop lesson plans to engage different types of learning and trigger different cognitive events. Gagné defines a series of five types of learning (verbal information, intellectual skills, cognitive strategies, motor skills, and attitudes) and a hierarchy of intellectual tasks (stimulus recognition, response generation, procedure following, terminology use, schematization, conceptualization, rule application, and problem solving) that build in complexity for learning. To accomplish this hierarchy, Gagné describes nine learning events that trigger different levels of cognition. These conditions, he argues, should form the basis of all instruction.

The first learning event, *gaining attention*, works to create cognitive reception or openness to the new lesson. In practice, this may involve an instructor showing students real-world examples of the topic they are to learn. The second event, *informing learners of the objective*, sets the students' expectations of what they will learn. For instance, teachers will often use sentences such as "Today we will learn about . . ." to set an overview of the lesson. The third event, *stimulating recall of prior learning*, works to build connections for students between the new lesson and previous knowledge, typically by the teacher reminding students of such previous topics. The fourth event, *presenting the stimulus*, is where the activity is introduced and teachers may give detailed instructions. *Providing learning guidance*, the fifth event, often requires the teacher to demonstrate the activity for the students, and the sixth event, *eliciting performance*, typically requires students

to then practice the activity to reinforce their learning in a guided context. This allows for the seventh event, *providing feedback*, to occur before the students are asked to accomplish the activity independently, where they are then *assessed* on their performance. The final event calls for the students to generalize their new knowledge to *enhance retention and transfer* what they have learned.

A simple application of these nine learning events is the teaching of long division. In the first event, a teacher may present students with a task to divide 6,500 pennies evenly among their 31 classmates. This example gains the attention of the students and allows them to understand the purpose of the lesson. The teacher might then tell the class that the task they are learning is *long division*, informing the students of the task at hand. Drawing on previous lessons, the teacher might remind the students about lessons on multiplying by double-digit numbers. The teacher might then write the long-division problem on the blackboard (presenting the stimuli) and provide learning guidance by walking students through the steps to solve the problem. He or she may then elicit performance by calling a few students to the board to try problems on their own and will give feedback based on their performance. By giving students problems to do independently, the teacher can then assess performance and provide additional guidance as necessary. Finally, by having students write their own long-division problems, the teacher helps students generalize their new knowledge and promote retention and transfer.

Gagné's *conditions for learning* model is broadly applicable to most lesson planning. The application of each event depends on the type of learning desired and intellectual tasks needed to accomplish such learning.

Conditions for Learning and School Climate

In more recent usage, the phrase *conditions for learning* (and its corollary *barriers to learning*) has been used synonymously with *school climate* as a way to draw a clear connection between positive school climates and academic achievement. The term was favored by President Barack Obama's administration in his first term (2008–2012) and appeared in several grant funding announcements, including the 2010 Safe and Supportive Schools grants awarded to nine states to measure and address conditions for learning. According to the U.S. Department of Education, conditions for learning include three components: (1) engagement, (2) safety, and (3) environment. Each of these components is then further broken into specific subcategories, as described below. Each component is relevant not only for students but for school staff and parents who interact with the school environment as well.

Engagement

Engagement refers to student, staff, and parent interactions with, and connections to, the school and broader school community. Positive and strong *relationships* between students and with staff are demonstrated to build resiliency against negative and delinquent behavior in youth. Such relationships are also marked by a general *respect for diversity* among all members of the school community. Such respect is demonstrated by an overall inclusive environment including, but not limited to, representations of diversity in curriculum, honors and recognition for a variety of successes and activities, and little tolerance for use of derogatory or offensive, hate-based language (such as saying *that's so gay*), even when used in jest. *Participation and leadership in school-sponsored activities* also helps build students' sense of school connectedness and promotes engagement.

Safety

Safety refers to students', parents', staff's, and other school-centered individuals' *physical* and *mental-emotional safety* in the school community. Safety is determined by both positive and negative behaviors and experiences. Students are more likely to miss school when they feel their safety is at risk. Physical violence, bullying, harassment, and substance use *all* undermine the sense of a school being safe. In contrast, a school's positive procedures for dealing with physical violence, bullying, harassment, and substance abuse, as well as a school's emergency readiness planning to prevent and respond to natural disasters, school shootings, and other emergencies, all contribute to the sense of a school being safe.

Environment

Environment refers to the supports, services, and structures that are in place in a school to promote academic achievement, mental health support, positive behavior, and wellness. Environment can be broken down into four main categories: (1) physical, (2) academic, (3) disciplinary, and (4) wellness.

The *physical environment* includes the condition, layout, and esthetics of the school building and classrooms. Insufficient materials, broken and dirty fixtures or furniture, poor lighting, uncomfortable temperatures, or hazardous conditions such as leaks or mold, all can contribute to a school's having a poor physical environment that affects students' learning.

The *academic environment* refers to efforts to ensure that all students are challenged and engaged with the materials they are learning. This means that all students,

including those in need of remediation and those who are gifted and talented, have material that is appropriate to their level of learning. Positive academic environments also have inclusive curriculum, in which students can find mirrors of themselves, based on race, religion, disability, sexual orientation, and national origin.

The *disciplinary environment* refers to whether discipline is applied fairly, consistently, and appropriately for all students. The disciplinary environment encompasses not only the rates of discipline used but also students' perceptions of disparities and unfairness in disciplinary procedures. Positive disciplinary environments also utilize alternatives to harsh punishments (such as suspension or expulsion) that encourage learning and include efforts to repair any harm done to individuals or the school climate. Such methods include restorative justice practices and community service.

Wellness refers to emphasis placed upon supporting students' physical and mental health, including promoting nutrition and physical fitness and providing resources to seek help should issues arise. A positive wellness environment also supports a public health, multitiered framework of prevention and intervention to help students at all levels of risk, by promoting social and emotional skill building, and targeting other areas of specific need.

Applications of Conditions for Learning

The multidimensional conditions for learning framework are a tool for understanding a school's climate and areas in need of improvement. Utilizing comprehensive conditions for learning assessments that evaluate each of the dimensions can help schools prioritize resources for improving school climate. For instance, a school with high levels of truancy may learn that while students generally feel *safe* in school, the *academic environment* is not matching the needs of many. Where otherwise this school might have focused resources elsewhere, understanding the conditions for learning helps create the foundation on which students will be able to learn.

This framework also helps integrate historically isolated domains of school safety and student well-being to better illustrate the interrelations between these issues. For instance, students' and teachers' feelings of safety will necessarily be related to their needs for mental health and wellness supports. Building positive relationships between students and teachers may also improve feelings of safety. Assessing schools' strengths and weaknesses within the conditions for learning framework can help bring clarity to these interrelations and monitor the broad success of management efforts.

Conclusion

This entry has described two distinct meanings for the term *conditions for learning*. One provides a framework to help guide the formation of effective lesson plans to promote learning. This framework contains nine learning events (*attention, informing, recalling, presenting, guiding, performing, feedback, assessment, and generalization*) that promote learning and recall. Effective lesson planning that engages students is essential to keep them on task and facilitate learning.

A second framework includes three components of school climate that contribute to students' ability to learn (*engagement, safety, and environment*). These elements help define the structures, relationships, and well-being required for learning to occur. Used in conjunction with an assessment of conditions for learning, the framework can help schools structure classroom management as well as other prevention and intervention strategies to promote improved academic achievement.

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See also Climate: School and Classroom; Lesson Planning and Classroom Management; Lessons and Lesson Planning; Safety, Policies for Ensuring

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CONDUCT DISORDER

Conduct disorder (CD) is a psychiatric diagnosis characterized by a persistent pattern of behaviors that violate social norms, rules, and expectations—such as hitting, stealing, and lying. Those diagnosed with CD

are sometimes referred to as incorrigible or unmanageable. Many are also referred to as bullies. Students who have CD often are eligible for special education services under the label emotional/behavioral disorder (EBD). Learning to work with youth who have CD is a major professional challenge. This entry discusses some of the causal factors and interventions for children and youth diagnosed with CD.

A child or youth diagnosed with CD may display one or both of two forms of CD. Those two forms are *overt antisocial behavior*, characterized by acting out toward others physically and verbally, and *covert antisocial behavior*, characterized by behaviors that are intentionally hidden from others such as lying and fire-setting. Youth who exhibit both forms of CD generally have more severe problems than those who exhibit only one form. These behaviors are often accompanied by academic failure.

Estimates of the prevalence of CD vary. Between the ages of 3 and 17 for boys, the range is 6% to 16%; and for girls, 2% to 9%. Estimates of the prevalence of each form of the disorder have not been known precisely. Boys with CD tend to display overt antisocial behaviors such as fighting, and girls with CD tend to display covert antisocial behaviors such as lying and running away.

The gender difference is also evident in school-based screenings for students with EBD. Boys outnumber girls—3 to 1—in the risk of developing EBD. Boys outnumber girls—5 to 1—for the risk of developing overt antisocial behaviors and—2 to 1—for the risk of developing covert antisocial behaviors.

All typically developing youth at times display some sort of antisocial behavior. Noncompliance, lying, and fighting with siblings or parents are all considered to be part of normal development. The difference in the case of youth with CD is that they engage in serious, antisocial problem behaviors at a much higher rate and well beyond the age when one expects problem behaviors to occur frequently.

Children and youth with CD engage in maladaptive behaviors with such frequency and intensity that peer rejection is often the consequence. They become outcasts from their peer groups and, as a result, they often perceive their peers to be hostile. Youth with CD are often considered excessively problematic by teachers and parents. This relatively stable pattern of problem behavior is exhibited over time and continues into adulthood. Having CD at youth is linked to adult dysfunction and sometimes to antisocial personality disorder.

Causal Influences

There are many causal factors to explain the development and maintenance of CD. Difficult temperament

and attention problems have been shown to increase a person's risk for developing antisocial behavior. Families of youth with CD are often (although not always) chaotic and characterized by high levels of interpersonal conflict. In these families, parents may be poor role models (e.g., themselves engaging in criminal behavior) and fail to adequately monitor their children and leave their children and adolescents to their own devices. Youth with CD are often rejected by nonantisocial peers and, as a result, gravitate toward a deviant antisocial group. Finally, more often than not, youth with CD find school a negative experience. At school, they experience academic failure and rejection by peers and adults. Too often, the discipline imposed on them at school is punitive and does nothing to assist them in learning either prosocial or academic skills.

Intervention

Effective interventions address antisocial aggressive behavior at primary, secondary, and tertiary levels of prevention. Strategies at the primary level prevent antisocial aggressive behavior from emerging. Strategies at the secondary level remediate such behavior once it has emerged, and strategies at the tertiary level accommodate the negative effects of antisocial aggressive behaviors. Although it is well known that having such a cohesive, comprehensive set of coordinated programs addressing all three levels is needed to effectively address the problem of antisocial aggressive behavior, there is no widespread system in place to implement a comprehensive set of coordinated programs.

What are available are programs for directly teaching prosocial skills that provide children and youth with CD with options to behave in more competent ways. Typically, school-based interventions designed to reduce aggression include a wide variety of strategies and techniques. Interventions based on social learning theory have proven to be the most reliable and useful for teachers. A social learning theory approach to dealing with aggression includes specific behavioral objectives, altering the environment, and measuring for behavior change.

One example of a social learning theory approach comes from the University of Oregon's Institute on Violence and Destructive Behavior. In 1995, Hill Walker, the Institute's co-director, offered 12 intervention techniques for managing youth who exhibit aggressive and antisocial behaviors. These techniques continue to receive support from ongoing research. They include clarity of expectations, teacher praise, positive reinforcement, verbal feedback, stimulus change, contingency contracting, modeling appropriate behavior and reinforcing imitation, shaping, systematic social skills

training, self-monitoring and self-control training, time-out, and response cost.

Social learning theory interventions are focused on intervening early to prevent the escalation of aggressive behaviors. Learning about and understanding the acting-out behavior cycle is imperative to successful intervention. The acting-out behavior cycle has seven distinct phases that youth pass in and out of during the entire process, from calm to recovery. There are distinct intervention techniques to use at each phase to assist the student in gathering himself or herself and getting back on track.

Conclusion

Over time, teachers and other education professionals inevitably are confronted with having to work with students exhibiting antisocial aggressive behaviors and other behaviors symptomatic of CD. Working with these students presents unusual challenges that often lead to teachers and other education professionals shying away from getting directly involved and mounting the kind of interventions needed to help. However, with proper supports and training and a good clinically tested approach, teachers and other education professionals can provide significant help for these students to learn better ways of behaving and make better behavioral choices.

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See also Behavior Support Plans; Behavioral Online Screening for School Settings; Council for Children With Behavioral Disorders; Diagnostic and Statistical Manual (DSM); Medication for Emotional and Behavioral Problems; Oppositional Defiant Disorder; Preventing Antisocial Behavior at the Point of School Entry

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CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

Discipline problems are by their very nature conflicts that may be managed in constructive or destructive ways. A *conflict* exists when the actions of one person prevent, block, or interfere with the other's efforts to achieve his or her goal. *Conflict resolution* means agreeing on a solution to the problem that ends the conflict. *Conflict management* refers to handling the conflict so it is under control. Inherent in any conflict is the potential for destructive or constructive outcomes. Conflicts are constructive to the extent they (1) result in a resolution that allows all participants to achieve their goals (the agreement should maximize joint outcomes, benefit everyone, and be in all participants' best interests); (2) strengthen the relationship among participants by increasing their liking, respect, and trust for one another; and (3) strengthen the ability of participants to resolve their future conflicts constructively. Whether positive outcomes result depends largely on (1) the availability of clear procedures for managing conflicts, (2) the level of students' and faculty's skills in using the procedures, (3) student and faculty commitment to using the procedures, and (4) the level at which the norms and values of the school encourage and support the use of the procedures.

Correspondingly, a *discipline problem* exists when the actions of a student prevent, block, or interfere with a faculty member's efforts to instruct and socialize students. This could be a conflict among students that disrupts the teacher's efforts, which then becomes a conflict between the students and the teacher, or it could be a direct conflict with the teacher or another staff member. A discipline problem is solved constructively when both the teacher and the student are satisfied with the solution, the relationship between the student and teacher is improved, and their ability to resolve future discipline problems constructively has been improved. It should be noted that while all discipline problems are conflicts, not all conflicts are discipline problems.

Classroom conflict management programs may be placed on a continuum (Table 1). At one end are discipline programs based on teacher-administrated external rewards and punishments that control and manage student behavior. With such programs, faculty control and manage student behavior. At the other end are programs based on teaching students the competencies and skills required to regulate their own and their schoolmates' behavior. With such programs, students control and manage their own and their schoolmates' behavior. Peer mediation programs anchor the self-regulation end of the continuum.

Table I Continuum of Classroom Management Programs

| <i>Competition</i> | <i>Cooperation</i> |
|---|--|
| Instruction emphasizes direct teaching, lecturing | Instruction emphasizes learning groups, active engagement, social construction |
| Management programs emphasize faculty-administrated external rewards and punishments | Management programs emphasize teaching students the competencies they need to regulate own and schoolmates' behavior |
| 1—2—3—4—5—6—7—8—9—10 | |
| Disciplinary interventions include faculty being a police officer, judge, jury, and executioner; faculty monitor student behavior, judge its appropriateness, decide which consequence to administer, and give the reward or punishment | Disciplinary interventions include strengthening five basic elements of cooperation. Students monitor the appropriateness of their own and their group mates' behavior, assess its effectiveness, and decide how to behave |

Source: Reprinted with permission from Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (2005). *Teaching students to be peacemakers* (4th ed.). Edina, MN: Interaction Book Company.

There are two types of conflicts important for schools. The first is a *conflict of interests*, which occurs when the interests (i.e., expected benefits) of one person clash with the interests of another person. The second is *controversy*, which occurs when one person's ideas, information, conclusions, theories, and opinions are incompatible with those of another person, and the two seek to decide on a conclusion or course of action. Much of academic learning and all decision making involves intellectual conflict where students disagree with each other or with the teacher. In any academic discussion, therefore, there is potential for conflict, in which participants must choose among several alternative conclusions or courses of action. Learning how to manage both conflicts of interests and controversies constructively prevents the occurrence of discipline problems and is instrumental in resolving the discipline problems.

In discussing how to manage classroom conflict, there are four steps teachers need to take.

Step One: Establish a Cooperative Context

Whether constructive or destructive outcomes result from conflict depends largely on the context in which the conflict occurs. In classrooms characterized by cooperation, conflicts tend to be viewed as problems to be solved. Students tend to communicate effectively, accurately perceive the other person and his or her position, trust and like the other, recognize the legitimacy of the other's interests, and focus on both their own and their classmates' long-term well-being. In classrooms characterized by competition, conflicts are viewed as win-lose situations. Students tend to focus on gaining an advantage at the expense of others, communicate

misleading information, misperceive the other person's position and motivation, be suspicious of and hostile toward others, and deny the legitimacy of others' goals and feelings. The easiest way to establish a cooperative context for classroom management is by using cooperative learning the majority of the school day. The procedures for using cooperative learning have been described by David Johnson and Roger Johnson, and Edythe Holubec.

Step Two: Teach Students How to Negotiate Constructive Resolutions to Conflicts of Interests

Conflict resolution programs are aimed primarily at teaching students the competencies they need to regulate their own and their classmates' behavior so that conflicts of interests may be resolved constructively. Conflict resolution and peer mediation programs have been generated by (1) researchers in the field of conflict resolution, (2) groups committed to nonviolence, such as the Quakers (Society of Friends), (3) anti-nuclear war groups, and (4) lawyers. Among the numerous programs available, one of the most widely implemented is the Teaching Students to Be Peacemakers program, developed by David Johnson and Roger Johnson. It is one of the few conflict resolution programs that is (1) based on principles formulated from conflict theory, (2) extensively and systematically validated by research, and (3) integrated into academic lessons to enhance achievement.

The Peacemakers program begins with 20 lessons of 30 minutes each that may be divided into six parts. First, students learn the nature of conflict and the potential

constructive consequences of conflict. Second, students learn that in conflict they should focus on two concerns: achieving their goals and maintaining a good relationship with the other person. The importance of the goals and relationship determine whether a person should withdraw (giving up goal and the relationship or both), force (achieve one's goal at the other person's expense, thereby giving up the relationship—sometimes known as win-lose negotiations), smooth (give up one's goal in order to enhance the relationship), compromise (give up part of one's goal at some damage to the relationship), or negotiate to solve the problem (achieve one's goal while maintaining the relationship). All five strategies have their place, but the most important is problem-solving negotiations.

In the third set of lessons, students learn how to engage in problem-solving negotiations. The procedure consists of (1) describing what one wants (this includes good communication skills and defining the conflict as a small and specific mutual problem), (2) describing how one feels, (3) describing the reasons for one's wants and feelings, (4) taking the other's perspective, (5) inventing three optional plans to maximize joint benefits, and (6) choosing one option and formalizing the agreement.

Fourth, students learn how to mediate schoolmates' conflicts by (1) ending hostilities and cooling off disputants, (2) ensuring disputants are committed to the mediation process, (3) helping disputants successfully use the problem-solving negotiation procedure, and (4) formalizing the agreement.

The Peacemakers program is then implemented. Each day two class members serve as mediators. The role of mediator is rotated so that all students have the opportunity to mediate. If peer mediation fails, the teacher mediates the conflict. If teacher mediation fails, the teacher arbitrates by deciding who is right and who is wrong. If that fails, the principal mediates the conflict. If that fails, the principal arbitrates.

Finally, teachers continue to teach the problem-solving negotiation and peer mediation procedures to refine and upgrade students' skills, integrating the procedures into academic lessons. Each year, the program is retaught in an increasingly sophisticated and complex way.

Eighteen studies were conducted on the effectiveness of the Peacemakers program in eight different schools in two countries. The studies included students from kindergarten through ninth grades and were conducted in rural, suburban, and urban settings in the United States

Table 2 Mean-Weighted Effect Sizes for Peacemakers Studies

| <i>Dependent Variable</i> | <i>Mean</i> | <i>Standard Deviation</i> | <i>Number of Effects</i> |
|-----------------------------|-------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|
| Learned procedure | 2.25 | 1.98 | 13 |
| Learned procedure—Retention | 3.34 | 4.16 | 9 |
| Applied procedure | 2.16 | 1.31 | 4 |
| Application—Retention | 0.46 | 0.16 | 3 |
| Strategy constructiveness | 1.60 | 1.70 | 21 |
| Constructiveness—Retention | 1.10 | 0.53 | 10 |
| Strategy two-concerns | 1.10 | 0.46 | 5 |
| Two-concerns—Retention | 0.45 | 0.20 | 2 |
| Integrative negotiation | 0.98 | 0.36 | 5 |
| Quality of solutions | 0.73 | 0 | 1 |
| Positive attitude | 1.07 | 0.25 | 5 |
| Negative attitude | -0.61 | 0.37 | 2 |
| Academic achievement | 0.88 | 0.09 | 5 |
| Academic retention | 0.70 | 0.31 | 4 |

Source: Reprinted with permission from Johnson, R., & Johnson, D. W. (2002). *Teaching students to be peacemakers* (4th ed.). Edina, MN: Interaction Book Company.

and Canada. In most of the studies, students were randomly assigned to control and experimental conditions, and teachers were rotated across conditions. Sixteen of the studies were included in a meta-analysis.

The training resulted in the students learning the negotiation and the mediation procedure and retaining their knowledge up to a year after the training had ended (Table 2). Immediately after training and months later, students used the problem-solving negotiation and mediation procedures almost perfectly in the hallways, lunchroom, playground, and in family settings. The number of discipline problems teachers had to deal with tended to decrease by 60% and referrals to administrators tended to drop 90%. Students' attitudes toward conflict became markedly more positive and less negative. Teachers, administrators, and parents tended to perceive the Peacemakers program to be constructive and helpful. Finally, the Peacemakers training was integrated into both English literature and history academic units and students who received the Peacemakers training as part of the academic unit tended to score significantly higher on achievement and retention tests than did students who studied the academic unit only. Students not only learned the factual information contained in the academic unit better, they were better able to interpret the information in insightful ways.

Step Three: Teach Students How to Engage in Intellectual Conflict

Teaching students how to engage in constructive controversy begins with randomly assigning students to cooperative learning groups of four members. The

groups are given an issue on which to write a report and pass a test. Each cooperative group is divided into two pairs. One pair is given the con-position on the issue and the other pair given the pro-position. The cooperative goal of reaching a consensus on the issue is highlighted. Students (1) prepare the best case possible for their assigned position, (2) present and advocate their position to the opposing pair, (3) participate in an open discussion where they attempt to refute the opposing position while defending their own, (4) reverse perspectives and present each other's positions, and (5) synthesize and integrate the best evidence and reasoning from both sides into a joint position.

A meta-analysis was conducted on the research on academic controversy (see Table 3). Compared with concurrence-seeking, debate, and individualistic efforts, constructive controversy tends to result in higher-quality decisions (including decisions that involve ethical dilemmas) and higher-quality solutions to complex problems for which different viewpoints can plausibly be developed. Constructive controversy tends to promote more frequent use of higher-level reasoning strategies, more accurate and complete understanding of opposing perspectives, and more continuing motivation to learn about the issue. As a result of constructive controversy, students also tend to like the decision-making task better, like each other, experience greater social support, and have higher self-esteem.

Step Four: Promoting Civic Values

The fourth step in classroom conflict management is to promote civic values within students. The inculcation of

Table 3 Meta-Analysis of Academic Controversy Studies: Weighted Effect Sizes

| <i>Dependent Variable</i> | <i>Controversy/ Concurrence Seeking</i> | <i>Controversy/Debate</i> | <i>Controversy/ Individualistic Efforts</i> |
|---------------------------|---|---------------------------|---|
| Achievement | 0.68 | 0.40 | 0.87 |
| Cognitive reasoning | 0.62 | 1.35 | 0.90 |
| Perspective taking | 0.91 | 0.22 | 0.86 |
| Motivation | 0.75 | 0.45 | 0.71 |
| Attitudes toward task | 0.58 | 0.81 | 0.64 |
| Interpersonal attraction | 0.24 | 0.72 | 0.81 |
| Social support | 0.32 | 0.92 | 1.52 |
| Self-esteem | 0.39 | 0.51 | 0.85 |

Source: Reprinted with permission from Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (2007). *Creative controversy: Intellectual conflict in the classroom*. Edina, MN: Interaction Book Company.

civic values results primarily from participating in the processes of cooperative learning, problem-solving negotiations, and constructive controversy. The core civic values include committing oneself to the classroom's goals (such as maximizing one's own and other's learning), seeking the well-being of oneself and one's classmates as well as the common good, responsibly fulfilling one's obligations to the joint efforts to learn, respecting oneself and one's classmates (as well as property), having the integrity to provide high-quality work, having compassion for classmates, and appreciating the diversity of the personal characteristics and contributions of classmates.

Conclusion

Most classroom management problems involve either conflicts among students or conflicts between students and (1) teachers or (2) standards concerning appropriate and acceptable conduct. Approaches to classroom conflict management may be placed on a continuum, from classroom conflict management programs based on teacher-administrated external rewards and punishments to programs based on teaching students the competencies and skills required to regulate their own and their schoolmates' behavior. To implement the self-regulation approach to classroom conflict management, the teacher engages in four steps. First, to create a cooperative context, cooperative learning is used the majority of the school day. Second, students are taught to resolve conflicts of interests through programs such as the Teaching Students to Be Peacemakers program, where they learn to engage in problem-solving negotiations and peer mediation. Third, students are taught to engage in intellectual conflicts in order to increase their creative problem solving and quality of decision making. Fourth, students adopt the civic values underlying cooperative learning, problem-solving negotiations, and constructive controversy.

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See also Democratic Practices in Classrooms and Schools; Quaker Education and Classroom Management; Social and Emotional Learning for Young Children

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CONSTRUCTIVIST APPROACHES

Classrooms are always complex places and typically hold lots of people in fairly small quarters. Managing classrooms so that learning can thrive requires teachers to orchestrate many sequential and sometimes simultaneous activities within lessons; fulfill various and differential responsibilities to students, parents, and administrators; and negotiate changing curricula with students of many needs, backgrounds, and skill sets. In order to manage classrooms so that learning can flourish, teachers create or select and implement plans consistent with their philosophies and based on credible research findings. This entry looks at constructivist approaches to classroom management within the context of classrooms with constructivist approaches to teaching.

Constructivism is a multifaceted study of learning and teaching that dates back to the philosophers of antiquity, includes the works of renowned psychologists and educators, and holds foundational roles in research efforts that span across ages and subject areas. Teachers with constructivist pedagogies see knowledge as products of thinking: dynamic sets of understandings that learners construct and reconstruct as they constantly look through new lenses at their worlds of people, objects, ideas, and phenomena. Constructivist teachers

continuously seek ways to introduce varied resources into lessons that may foster evolving knowledge construction by their students. Therefore, the issues that teachers must address and the skills they must develop to create constructivist classrooms in which students think critically and creatively in pursuit of answering important questions are inextricably intertwined with the issues they must address and the skills they must develop to manage such classrooms.

Problems to Limit Versus Problems to Solve

Discussions of classroom management often revolve around structures that teachers put in place to limit the likelihood of problem behavior. For example, most teachers have, at varying levels of formality, procedures for entering and leaving the classroom, using restrooms, distributing papers, and submitting assignments, among others. In some instances, lack of preestablished procedures or practices in these domains can cause crowding, foster frustration, or create unnecessary waiting. These problems are worth limiting or avoiding.

Conversely, there are problems worth addressing, and not avoiding. Some problems are opportunities from which learning can occur. Teachers distinguish between problems of such limited learning value that are best avoided and the types on which lessons can be built. For instance, in constructivist classrooms in which students are using materials unique to their research design solution to a task, teachers want to avoid problems of wasted time. Thus, to manage these classrooms, teachers ensure predictable access to online, print, and 3D material and create predictable places and processes for finding and using materials. They post necessary pass codes or sign-out sheets that are visible where they are to be used. They label supplies and materials, store them in appropriately sized containers, and maintain them in working order. These are some of the resource management structures that teachers put in place if they are to manage successful classrooms in which students efficiently select and retrieve materials on their own. A set of preestablished routines in the management of instructional resources is an example of a classroom management structure that limits the types of problems from which only minimal learning can emerge.

On the other hand, there are problems within which the process of finding viable solutions constitutes important learning. Teachers seeking to maximize learning on all fronts apply the same philosophy to issues of classroom management that they apply to issues of knowledge construction and skill development. They structure classrooms that invite learners to problem-solve around the issues that are central to the task at hand, not all

issues that come up; they invite students to engage in research, and they corral student thinking around the research questions, not all of the tangential questions that do and can emerge; and they encourage collaboration to generate consensus solutions, not competition that pits one idea against another. Conceptual problems at the leading edge of students' current thinking and structures that support student teamwork can lead to meaning-making. Lesson planning in constructivist classrooms routinely includes these types of problems as intellectual starting points, with the solution generation phase routinely including splinter problems of many types that teachers use to scaffold learning.

The Teaching/Managing Interchange

Teachers who lead constructivist classrooms craft responses to students' social or personal behaviors or questions that mirror their responses to students' subject matter products or questions. An example from the realm of interpersonal classroom behavior illustrates the teacher's role in fostering or stifling an internal locus of control. In certain traditional settings, disrespectful behavior between two students is considered nonnegotiable and may immediately result in a punishment of some sort, perhaps an afterschool detention, dispensed as a mechanism to curb disrespect. From a different perspective, constructivist teachers may see disrespect as a behavior that could be curbed out of greater understandings of what respect means. This teacher may send the two students to the peace bench, a designated sitting area in a corner of the room, to resolve their differences between themselves as the first response, followed up by a meeting with a peer negotiator, and possibly followed by a meeting with the teacher, if no peer resolution has occurred.

The detention consequence and the peace bench protocol send different messages about conflict resolution, control, and authority. Constructivist teachers set up structures that help students identify messages underneath the words that sometimes do not relay the full meaning of what is said. Peer discussion at the peace bench may help students view misbehavior in terms of what they could not say, instead of what they did say. Saying "Your idea is stupid" may be a student's inelegant way of saying "I feel stupid because I don't understand your idea." When peer interaction does not generate any new meaning, teachers assume a participatory role and introduce a new viewpoint that may trigger new thinking. Resolving conflict is one socioemotional issue that emerges in classrooms and requires teacher action. This peace bench example illustrates a constructivist approach that values the student's role in owning the problem and becoming part of the solution. The constructivist approach to fostering either the social/emotional

learning just described or content learning of all types actively engages the learner in self-regulating activity out of which the learner builds new ideas.

The Teaching/Leading/Managing Trilogy

Teaching, leading, and managing may appear to be separate aspects of education, but constructivist teaching is an integrated teaching, leadership, and management position, requiring a palette of characteristics, attitudes, and skills that inform practice. The teaching portion of the role requires content and pedagogical expertise; the leadership slice requires visioning in terms of curricular creativity and commitment to recognizing and addressing diversity issues; and the management piece requires time on-task, consistency, and follow-through. The following six issues repeatedly surface in learning settings of all types.

Managing Heterogeneity and Multiple Groups

A teacher's successful implementation of a constructivist lesson with a full class requires a set of usable documentation systems. If students are working and studying in groups, possibly pursuing answers to different questions or different approaches to the same question, teachers need to document student progress during lessons in ways that capture the contextual texture of their activities. Teachers use notebooks, tablets, and voice-to-text recording devices to track student progress and inform subsequent lesson planning. Students maintain portfolios of notes, drafts, revisions, pictures or videos, and final products in order to document changes over time. Some teachers use rubrics for formative and summative feedback to students and reporting to parents and administrators.

Groupings in constructivist classrooms change as student thinking changes. Groups form, disband, and reform as questions are answered and new questions arise. Thus, teachers maintain a system of periodic and rotational meetings with students to ensure equitable time spent with and advisement of each student, over the period of time of the unit, topic, or assignment.

Managing the Learning Programs of Diverse Learners

Constructivist teachers seek to understand children's thinking as a primary diagnostic tool for lesson planning. To do so, they select concepts at leading-edge levels and teaching resources and strategies to support concept development. The tangible access to student thinking is through student behaviors, statements, writings,

questions, and artifacts. Thus, to effectively manage the learning programs of diverse learners, teachers conduct lessons with multiple means of engaging student learning, including various ways of representing concepts and information, and offering diverse opportunities for students to act on and express their thinking. These management strategies are often referred to as Universal Design for Learning (UDL) and are consistent with constructivist approaches to teaching. The reading list at the end of this entry includes further references for UDL strategies.

Many people believe that special education students do not have the background knowledge to participate in and learn within constructivist classrooms. They often claim that special education students do not have the executive functioning necessary to plan and design solutions to problems. Many claim the same thing about very young children. Both claims prove to be false.

Children of every age and of every profile construct their understandings of their worlds, with either good or poor executive functioning, with either many years of experience or just a few, or with some in-between skill or experience. The classroom management question to be answered by the teacher is "How do I find the leading edges of children's thinking and skills and how do I invite them to reconsider their current ideas and strategies?" Within this central question, constructivist teachers look to increase the *delta*, the change or growth from wherever the learner may be to somewhere that is someplace forward of the current position. Students with poor executive functioning can solve problems—efficiently or inefficiently, effectively or ineffectively—and with teacher scaffolding can develop new skills. Within the constraints of time and other resources, constructivist teachers meet each learner at the learner's leading edge.

Managing Curriculum Through Negotiation

The idea that curriculum is negotiated is, in itself, a constructivist view. Traditionally, teachers see curriculum as information to be delivered, in which case classroom management revolves around sequential and carefully crafted delivery strategies. Constructivist teachers seek to negotiate the curriculum with students, taking steps forward, backward, and around concepts in interactions with students, offering sequential and carefully crafted opportunities, out of which students grapple with what some call reinventing concepts.

Constructivist teachers set up structures within which students connect what they already know to new information, either fine-tuning or expanding concepts to deeper levels. Teachers come to classes prepared with diverse resources and plans, but also prepared to think on their feet, ready to respond to student needs.

Managing Preparation for Standardized Tests

Many people question whether constructivist classrooms focused on problem-based learning approaches provide adequate opportunities for vocabulary building and convergent thinking, two necessary skills for success on standardized tests. Constructivist teachers introduce new vocabulary when the new vocabulary becomes useful shorthand for students. An example is the teacher introducing the word *circumference* when students are using the term “the trip around the circle.” Before students understand the definition of circumference, they easily confuse it with area when asked for the circumference formula. Students who build understandings using their own self-generating language understand circumference and are able to apply their knowledge of linear versus square measurement. The teacher who introduces new terminology when it is useful fosters the building of ideas. There is nothing incongruous about constructivist teaching and preparing students for tests. For constructivist teachers, preparing students for tests is a useful byproduct of teaching for more long-range and multipurpose goals.

Managing Without Punishment and Reward

Constructivist teachers view classrooms as communities of learners based on acknowledged interdependence, mutual respect, and democratic values. Accordingly, they set up transparent classroom management structures within which students work together, respectful of differences, to achieve the goals the learning community seeks. Punishment of bad behavior and reward of good behavior are not typical activities in constructivist classrooms. Punishment and reward drive classroom attention toward an external locus of control. Constructivist teachers strive, rather, to develop students’ internal controls. They affirm question-asking and targeted pursuit of answering questions. They do not affirm answers in isolation. They set up structures in which students can share their work in progress and offer classmates help and feedback, and then celebrate at the end in a festival or exhibition. These events and structures are found more often in constructivist classrooms than are competitions or races. Constructivist teachers put each learner’s development of an internal locus of control, ethical center, and sense of peace as priorities.

Managing Social Behavior With Student Voice

Constructivist teachers seek student voice: they create lessons centered on it; they ask for elaboration when it is cryptic; they redirect students to other audiences when it is not forthcoming; and they foster it before, between, and after formal lessons. Giving voice to students serves a dual function in lesson planning: It is

diagnostic tool for uncovering misconceptions that must be addressed or revealing information gaps that must be filled for new learning to occur, and it is prescriptive tool for determining teacher interventions that can effectively address those conceptual errors and information gaps. Learning in constructivist classrooms is social in nature. Whether students are collaborating to work out a math problem or a dispute from the lunchroom, constructivist teachers respect student voice as a primary mechanism to reduce inappropriate behavior, promote prosocial conduct, and foster the building of new conceptual understandings that can inform personal decision making and concept formation.

Management for the Student, Not of the Student

Constructivist teachers do not seek to directly manage student behavior or thinking. They seek to directly manage the environment and opportunities so that students can maximize their own sense-making within the classrooms that teachers have structured. The environment can have a profound influence on student behavior and thinking, and thus, constructivist teachers have direct effects on student learning and achievement. It is the *how* that is different than the more widespread view that is often called the traditional view.

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See also Caring Approaches; Developmental Approaches; Piaget, Jean; Progressive Education; Zone of Proximal Development

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CONSULTING WITH TEACHERS

Consulting with teachers is a complex process. Most teachers are overworked and overburdened by the demands of daily school life. They often do not have time to attend extra meetings, and many feel they do not have time to employ strategies developed by others. The suggestions offered by consultants often feel more like impositions than supports.

In addition, given the current economics of public education, professional development has been limited substantially. Most workshops are geared to the efficient delivery of curriculum or to learning the latest evaluation techniques. Little time is spent gaining deeper understanding of children, families, and the educational needs and challenges that children present as individuals. A consultant to teachers may, therefore, be viewed as an outsider, someone who does not understand the demands of the classroom or the pressures teachers face to provide instruction.

Through examples of school consultations, this entry aims to describe both the process and outcomes of effective consultations and the ways in which teachers can come to know the beneficial effects of talking with consultants. Effective consultation rests on a consultant's ability to (1) collaborate with teachers, (2) carry out productive observations in the classroom, (3) engage in effective inquiry, and (4) offer ways to positively reframe and identify problems. All of these abilities will be discussed together when providing examples of effective consultation—because, in reality, they cannot or should not be separated from one another.

The consultant should be someone able to appreciate the multifaceted demands on teachers today. The best way to achieve that insight is for the consultant to spend time in the classroom with the teachers. Too often in public schools, meetings (such as an individualized education program meeting) are the only opportunities for teachers to gather with a child's entire team and parents to share information and brainstorm ideas to help and support a child. Although these meetings only take place once a year, they can be highly valuable if the time is used wisely. For an outside consultant, it is important to observe the child in the classroom and talk with the teachers before an individualized education program meeting. It is essential to see the child interacting with others and watch how he or she engages in the learning process. It is also helpful to observe the challenges the teacher faces. Are there many children who require additional attention from the teacher? Who are the supports in the classroom to help manage the demands? How does the child participate in teacher-directed lessons as compared with child-centered activities?

It is the responsibility of the consultant to ask meaningful questions about the child that are derived from the consultant's developmental and clinical knowledge and prior experience working with similar children. Meaningful questions can guide the direction of the consultation by shaping hypotheses to be explored by the consultant. Through meaningful questions, the consultant can assist teachers in reformulating an understanding of the child and help teachers understand what obstacles are blocking the pathways to learning. The consultant can work together with teachers to find solutions to removing obstacles so that the child can effectively progress in the process of learning and exploring. Both comprehensive observation and conversations with teachers are critical aspects in providing usable consultations to parents and staff.

Case Examples

It was 8:30 on a sunny June morning when the consultant entered an elementary school in a small, suburban town. The consultant was there to observe a student in kindergarten in an effort to monitor his progress and offer suggestions to his parents and teachers concerned about meeting his educational needs when he would go on to first grade. Historically, the little boy, Robert (not his real name), had significant expressive and receptive language delays and behavioral difficulties related to sustained attention and impulsivity. He was a friendly and engaging child, requiring substantial adult intervention throughout the day so that he could learn and participate appropriately in school. After several years of intensive speech and language intervention, Robert's speech was easy to understand, and he was able to readily communicate his thoughts with adults and peers.

Two issues remained areas of concern for Robert's teachers and parents. First, although his speech had improved, his language delays were still evident. Robert had difficulty answering open-ended questions and following lengthy conversations and directions. For example, when on a sensory break, the aide asked him "What will we be doing when we go back into the classroom?" Robert replied that he did not know. Saying that he *does not know* was a standard response for Robert when he had difficulty accessing information and formulating a response to open-ended questions. The aide reformulated the question several times, becoming more specific and drawing connections to help him access the information.

Aide: What were the kids doing when we left the room?

Robert: Uhmmm, on the rug.

Aide: What was the teacher doing?

Robert: Looking at a book.

Aide: Do you think the teacher is going to read the book?

Robert: Uh-huh.

Aide: What was the book?

Robert: I don't know.

Aide: Yes, you do. Remember the teacher was talking about it when she was showing everyone the chart? Do you remember the chart?

Robert: Eh huh. [shakes his head]

Aide: Do you remember the chart on the board with the books? [Robert smiles.] What was the name of the book?

Robert: The red hen?

Aide: Yes, it was about a red hen.

Second, Robert required frequent cueing, redirecting, and adult monitoring of his work output so that he could stay on task and not be disruptive of the group. His behavior was more impulsive when the teacher spoke at length (giving information or directions) and when he needed to work independently. This issue, combined with the language-processing issues, would likely impact his academics when the demands increased in the first grade.

For this case, the consultant was able to have a conversation with the teacher about Robert's behaviors and interactions within the classroom setting. The consultant posed several meaningful questions. For example, the consultant relayed the conversation described above and asked if the teacher was aware of the need to ask Robert a series of guiding questions to elicit the answer about the book to be read at rug-time. Initially the teacher was confused by the consultant's questions. The teacher was not aware that the staff asked Robert so many questions. When Robert responded "I don't know" she made an assumption that he *was not trying*. The consultant further asked if the teacher noticed a pattern in the way the questions to Robert became more specific and helped him make connections and associations from one experience to another until he was able to answer the questions about the book. Although the teacher was not aware of the pattern, as she began to think about the idea, she realized that the situation occurred repeatedly.

The consultant asked if the teacher's questioning reminded her of strategies in teaching children reading comprehension. The consultant had observed that the teacher used the method of building connections and making predictions in teaching her students comprehension. Through the consultation process of asking

meaningful questions, the teacher realized that the strategies she used to teach reading comprehension were applicable to helping Robert with his language-processing disorder. Thus, the consultant guided the teacher to reformulate her understanding of Robert from a student who needed to *try harder* to a student with a language-processing disorder who greatly benefited from strategies the teacher was already using in her academic practices. Together, the consultant and the teacher shared ideas and strategies of how to teach Robert skills he would need in the next year.

The consultant had a follow-up meeting with Robert's parents and the other members of the school intervention team. The consultation consisted of discussing Robert's needs within the context of the classroom and developing plans for the coming year. The consultation was successful because of the relationship the consultant developed with the teacher by spending time in her classroom and understanding both the needs of the child and the teacher. Suggestions to help the child fit into this context. Therefore, the consultant was no longer an outsider but one who recognized the strengths and confines of the school program and designed strategies to help the child, who also fit into the program the school already had in place.

By comparison, the consultant was invited to a meeting to consult with teachers, administrators, and parents at a private school. The student was a boy with high-functioning autism. The consultant first met with the parents and collected history and reviewed all prior testing and documentation. The consultant then observed the student at school and met extensively with his teacher. Later, she met with a team of professionals at the school along with his parents. The consultant asked several meaningful questions about the quality of the social relationships between the student and the teachers. The consultant then asked similar questions about relationships with peers. Through the process of asking meaningful questions based on the observations and discussions, the consultant was able to help the staff consider the student in a different light. The teacher noted that the student responded well to him but was often inappropriate with peers. The student was prone to making silly noises or putting his head down on his desk when he was required to work in a group. He would also tell other students they were stupid if others made comments different from his own. It was clear that the social environment was having a negative impact on the student's ability to participate and learn.

The consultant presented the team with a formulation of the student based on his developmental, clinical, social, and educational functioning. Although intelligent, he was not functioning well at school as the demands of learning in a social context were overwhelming for him.

As part of the consultation, the consultant discussed ways in which the school staff could make shifts in their interactions with the student in order to maximize successful outcomes. Rather than adding to the burden of the teachers, the consultant, having observed the classroom, was able to offer substitutions and alternative strategies to the teachers. In this way, the teachers were able to use their resources more effectively. The staff appreciated the suggestions as they felt they were working hard to help the student but without much success. From the consultation, they understood the student differently and were able to try new strategies to engage him. They shifted their understanding of the student from someone who was *spacing out* or *immature* to someone who, because of his disability, struggled to learn when there were social as well as academic demands. The teachers felt very optimistic and met periodically with the consultant to make adjustments to the plans and, overall, both the school and the parents found there were many improvements.

Conclusion

As these case examples demonstrate, the most important element of a consultation may well be building collaboration between teachers, parents, students, and the consultant. The more attentive the consultant is to these interactions, the more successful the outcomes will be for everyone involved. As noted from these examples, the consultations took place within the context of trusting and cooperative relationships. The consultant took time to get to know the students, teachers, and parents and to help build connections among them. The consultant asked meaningful questions to help guide the teacher's understanding of the child. By thoughtfully learning about the teachers as well as the family through questions, observations, and discussions, the consultant was able to offer suggestions and ideas that were useful and manageable to them. In short, relationships are the building blocks for the consultation and, by working together, the consultant and the teacher are able to achieve the best outcomes.

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See also Assessing and Promoting Treatment Integrity; Assessing Classroom Management; Assessment of Students; Assessment of Teacher-Student Relationships; Behavior Support Plans; Interpersonal Systems and Problem Behavior

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COOPERATION AND COMPETITION

Like all social systems, schools are organized to accomplish goals. On a broad level, schools have two goals: to educate students and to socialize students into the society to which they belong. To achieve the school's goals, the behavior of members is directed and coordinated through role definitions and norms. *Roles* (such as teacher and student) prescribe the behavior expected of any person occupying the position (e.g., teachers plan and orchestrate learning experiences; students follow the teacher's directions in participating in learning experiences). Roles have both *rights* (what individuals in complementary roles will do for a person) and *obligations* (what individuals in complementary roles expect from a person). A role cannot be discussed without considering complementary roles (e.g., the role of teacher cannot be discussed without also discussing the role of student). *Norms* (e.g., no running in the hallways, no bullying of classmates) make explicit what is and is not appropriate behavior.

Classroom management is aimed at ensuring that everyone adheres to their role definitions and the classroom's norms so that both instruction (actions taken to assist students in mastering the formal curriculum) and socialization (actions taken to influence students' attitudes, values, beliefs, role responsibilities, identity, and other aspects of being citizens in their society) can take place effectively. While much of the focus in schools is on academic learning, instruction cannot take place unless students are socialized into their role and the normative expectations for participating in learning situations. In fact, every academic lesson is concurrently a socializing experience into the school culture. *Disciplinary interventions* are actions aimed at influencing students to fulfill their role responsibilities and follow the norms for appropriate behavior.

The procedures for instruction, socialization, classroom management, and disciplinary interventions need to be (1) based on a set of principles formulated from theory that has been validated by research (as opposed to a bag of tricks or random guidelines) and (2) congruent and integrated so that each enhances the other. The instructional procedures implicitly define the roles of teacher and student, the classroom norms, the nature of the classroom management system, and the type of

disciplinary interventions the teacher makes. If the teacher primarily lectures, for example, then the role of teacher is defined as presenting information, the role of student is defined as listening and taking notes without interacting with other students, and disciplinary interventions are based on the teacher exerting power (i.e., rewards and punishments) to ensure students sit quietly. If the teacher structures cooperative learning, however, the role of the teacher is to structure and guide student-student interactions, and the student's role is to work with other students to complete the assignment (which requires active engagement in learning activities). Disciplinary interventions include strengthening the positive interdependence among students, ensuring each student is individually accountable for learning, teaching students the social skills (i.e., leadership, communication, decision making, conflict resolution) they need to work together effectively, and structuring group discussions aimed at improving their academic learning and ability to work together. Whether a discipline problem is mild or severe, it represents a breakdown in cooperation between teachers who wish to have an orderly class and the misbehaving students. The heart of preventing and solving discipline problems is, therefore, structuring cooperation and eliminating competition among students.

To understand the impact of cooperation and competition on classroom management, it is necessary to define social interdependence theory, review the research validating the theory, and discussing its application in classrooms and schools.

Social Interdependence Theory

While cooperation and competition has been discussed from the perspectives of social development, behavioral, and social cognition, cooperation and competition are perhaps best defined by social interdependence theory. Social interdependence theory has its roots in the early 1900s when Kurt Koffka (one of the founders of the Gestalt school of psychology) proposed that groups were dynamic wholes in which the interdependence among members could vary. Kurt Lewin (another member of the Gestalt school) refined Koffka's notion, proposing that the essence of a group is the interdependence among members created by common goals.

Continuing Lewin's work, Morton Deutsch defined *cooperation* as a situation in which individuals' goal achievements are positively correlated, that is, when individuals perceive that they can reach their goals if and only if the others in the group also reach their goals. Thus, individuals seek outcomes that are beneficial to all those with whom they are cooperatively linked. Correspondingly, he defined *competition* as a situation in which individuals' goal achievements are negatively

correlated, that is, when each individual perceives that when one person achieves his or her goal, all others with whom he or she is competitively linked fail to achieve their goals. Thus, individuals seek an outcome that is personally beneficial but detrimental to all others in the situation. *Individualistic efforts* exist when there is no correlation among participants' goal attainments, that is, when each individual works to accomplish goals unrelated to the goals of others. Thus, individuals seek an outcome that is personally beneficial without concern for the outcomes of others.

Basic Elements

In order for cooperative efforts to be effective, five elements must be structured in the situation: positive interdependence, individual accountability, promotive interaction, social skills, and group processing. *Positive interdependence* exists when one perceives that one is linked with others in a way so that one cannot succeed unless they do (and vice versa) and that one must coordinate one's efforts with the efforts of others to complete a task. *Individual accountability* exists when the performance of each individual person is assessed and the results given back to the group and the individual. *Promotive interaction* may be defined as individuals encouraging and facilitating each other's efforts to complete tasks and achieve in order to reach the group's goals. *Social skills* are the actions needed to interact effectively with other people. Leadership, decision making, trust building, communication, and conflict management skills are examples. *Group processing* may be defined as reflecting on group efforts to (1) describe what member actions were helpful and unhelpful in achieving the group's goals and maintaining effective working relationships among members and (2) make decisions about what actions to continue or change.

Interaction Patterns

The basic premise of social interdependence theory is that the type of interdependence structured in a situation determines how individuals interact with each other, which in turn determines outcomes. Positive interdependence tends to result in promotive interaction, which is characterized by members helping and assisting each other, exchanging resources, and encouraging increased effort. Negative interdependence tends to result in opposition interaction, which is characterized by individuals discouraging and obstructing each other's efforts to achieve. No interdependence results in an absence of interaction, which is characterized by individuals working independently without any

interaction or interchange with each other. The relationship between the type of social interdependence and the interaction pattern it elicits is assumed to be bidirectional. Each may cause the other. Each of these interaction patterns, furthermore, creates different outcomes.

Outcomes

The investigation of cooperation and competition is the longest standing research tradition within American social psychology. From 1898 to the present day, researchers have conducted over 1,200 studies from which effect sizes can be computed on social interdependence, as well as hundreds more studies that do not provide enough information to compute effect sizes. The research on social interdependence has considerable generalizability, since research participants have varied widely as to economic class, age, gender, and cultural background. Furthermore, a wide variety of research tasks and measures of the dependent variables have been used, and the research has been conducted by different researchers with markedly different orientations working in different settings and in different decades. The numerous outcomes studied may be subsumed within three broad categories: (1) effort to achieve, (2) positive relationships, and (3) psychological health. The main message about outcomes is that cooperation has positive effects on all three.

In terms of effort to achieve, a meta-analysis of all available studies found that the average person in a cooperative situation performed at about two thirds of a standard deviation above the average person learning within a competitive (effect size = 0.67) or individualistic situation (effect size = 0.64). These results held constant when group measures of productivity were included together with individual measures, for short-term as well as long-term studies, and when symbolic as well as tangible rewards were used. A more recent meta-analysis indicates that motivation in cooperative situations accounts for 14% (24% when low-quality studies were removed) of the variance in achievement.

In terms of quality of relationships, cooperative efforts, compared with competitive and individualistic experiences, promoted considerably more liking among individuals (effect sizes = 0.66 and 0.62, respectively) even when individuals were from different ethnic and historical backgrounds or had disabilities. In addition, cooperative experience promoted greater task-oriented and personal social support than did competitive (effect size = 0.62) or individualistic (effect size = 0.70) efforts. About 33% of the variation in achievement in cooperative situations can be accounted for by positive peer relationships (40% when low-quality studies are removed).

Finally, the research indicates that (1) working cooperatively with peers and valuing cooperation result

in greater psychological health than does competing with peers or working independently and (2) cooperative attitudes are highly correlated with a wide variety of indices of psychological health. Competitiveness was positively or negatively related to psychological health, and individualistic attitudes were negatively related to a wide variety of indices of psychological health. In addition, cooperative experiences promoted higher self-esteem than did competitive (effect size = 0.58) or individualistic (effect size = 0.44) experiences.

These outcomes of cooperative efforts (effort to achieve, quality of relationships, and psychological health) form a gestalt in which each influences the others, and they are therefore likely to be found together.

Appropriate Competition

Competition tends to result in constructive consequences when it occurs within a broader cooperative context with clear and fair rules; criteria for winning are present; the task is appropriate; the task may be completed individually; competitors have an equal chance of winning; and winning is of low importance.

Application: Cooperative Learning

The application of social interdependence theory to education is one of the most successful and widespread applications of social psychology to practice. From social interdependence theory, practical procedures have been created for structuring cooperative (as well as competitive and individualistic) efforts at both the classroom and the school levels. *Cooperative learning* is the instructional use of small groups so that students work together to maximize their own and each other's learning. There are three types of cooperative learning: formal cooperative learning that is used for assignments that last from one class period to several weeks; informal cooperative learning that is used with direct teaching for quick discussions that last from a few minutes to one class period; and cooperative base groups that last for a semester or a year and provide each member with the support, help, encouragement, and assistance he or she needs to progress academically. The three types of cooperative learning may be used in an integrated way to form an overall instructional program.

From being relatively unknown and unused in the 1960s, cooperative learning is now utilized in schools and universities throughout the world in every subject area and from preschool through graduate school and adult training programs. Its use so pervades education that it is hard to find textbooks on instructional methods, teachers' journals, or instructional materials without a discussion on cooperative learning.

Conclusion

One of the problems with the literature on classroom management is that recommendations are often either atheoretical or based on narrow theories that are unrelated to instruction and other aspects of school functioning. What is needed is a theory that provides a foundation for a coordinated approach to instruction, socialization, classroom management, and disciplinary interventions. Social interdependence theory is such a theory. It posits that the goals of individuals may be positively interdependent (which results in cooperative efforts), negatively interdependent (which results in competitive efforts), or unrelated (which results in individualistic efforts).

The way in which learning goals are structured tends to determine how students interact with each other, which in turn determines instructional outcomes. The more cooperative a class is, the greater the effort students will put in to learn, the more positive the relationships will be among students, and the higher the psychological health students will have. Thus, it may be concluded that instruction should be dominated by cooperative learning, and the use of competitive and individualistic efforts should be minimized.

In classrooms dominated by cooperation, a major focus of class management tends to be on teaching students the competencies they need to work effectively with peers and to regulate their own and their classmates' behavior in order to achieve their learning goals. The predominant use of cooperative learning provides a foundation for an integrated approach to instruction, socialization, classroom management, and disciplinary interventions.

David W. Johnson and Roger T. Johnson

See also Assessing Classroom Management; Conditions for Learning; Cooperative Learning Groups; Managing Groupwork; Sharing Authority

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COOPERATIVE LEARNING GROUPS

Cooperative learning groups are widely used in classrooms both nationally and abroad, gaining support from decades of empirical research, and based upon a strong theoretical foundation. Known for its flexibility, this teaching and learning strategy can be successfully employed in classrooms as early as the preschool years and up through the university level. Students benefit greatly from working together in pairs and in small groups, where they build content-specific knowledge as well as develop social and emotional skills.

As U.S. school systems increasingly serve children from vastly different backgrounds, cooperative learning groups can be an ideal tool to promote a positive classroom culture. Cooperative learning groups are also well suited for promoting community building when diversity stems not simply from culture but also from differences with respect to abilities and disabilities.

This entry outlines the theoretical approaches that underlie cooperative learning, describes the specific benefits of paired and group learning activities, discusses the characteristics of students that need to be taken into account when creating cooperative learning groups, and explains specific strategies teachers use for managing and facilitating such groups in the classroom.

Theoretical Background and Benefits of Cooperative Learning Groups

Cooperative learning groups are formed when two or more students work together to achieve a common goal during an activity. The central aim of the cooperative

learning approach is to engage students in learning through positive peer interaction and discussion in small groups. Several theoretical approaches posit that peer interactions are critical for children's cognitive growth. From a sociocultural perspective, Lev Vygotsky (1896–1934) has argued that children develop cognitive skills by interacting with more advanced partners, such as more skilled peers or adults. In such interactions, children are challenged to participate in more advanced problem solving than they would normally be capable of independently. Children then internalize these skills for use in future problem-solving situations.

From a social constructive perspective, Jean Piaget (1896–1980) suggested, in contrast, that peers of equal status or ability provide children with unique opportunities to learn, practice, and develop cognitive concepts and skills. When peers of equal ability solve problems together, they must understand each other's views to reach a joint solution. Through discussion, children attempt to integrate their differing perspectives and advance their understanding of difficult problems. Although the perspectives differ on the mechanisms through which children learn, they both suggest that working with peers can be an important way to advance children's knowledge.

Cooperative learning groups can have many benefits for children. Well-designed cooperative group activities can promote peer interaction and subsequent learning of all group members. Each student in a group should also be held accountable for doing his or her part to assist in the group effort in completing the common goal of the activity, as well as assisting the other members of the group.

Another benefit is that working with other students can increase children's motivation and learning. When children work with peers, they are more likely both to enjoy the task and to complete it more efficiently. Furthermore, following cooperative interactions while working on problem-solving tasks, children tend to have a better understanding of the problem, are better able to generate relevant hypotheses, and are more likely to retain the knowledge they gained from the interaction. In addition to the cognitive benefits, cooperative learning activities can build children's social skills, such as developing positive, helping behavior, teaching them how to relate to other students in the class, and building communication skills.

Creating Cooperative Learning Groups in the Classroom

To implement cooperative group activities successfully in the classroom, a number of characteristics of the students and the overall class should be considered. In this

section, several of these student characteristics are discussed.

First, children's social and emotional abilities need to be considered when creating groups and designing cooperative activities. Group-based activities require children to use advanced levels of interpersonal and communication skills. It is important to instruct children in some of the social skills that may be needed to successfully interact within group settings and to use the cooperative activity as a learning mechanism for children to develop some of the skills. For example, for successful communication with group members, students must demonstrate intersubjectivity or the understanding that one's own thoughts do not necessarily reflect those of others. Prior to cooperative activities, children can be instructed on the importance of respecting the ideas of other students and valuing the contributions of all of the members of the groups.

Children's mastery of self-control also can play a large role in predicting successfully functioning group-based activities. Skills that fall into this category include the ability to plan a course of action, demonstrate inhibition to regulate one's emotions and behavior, and competence in coordinating one's behavior with that of others. While working in groups, students may need to be reminded of the importance of waiting their turn to speak or contribute to group.

A second consideration when creating cooperative learning groups is to reflect on each of the children's cognitive capabilities and content-specific knowledge. Creating heterogeneous groups in terms of subject or content mastery can elicit high-quality discussion and productive group performance. In mixed-ability groups, both the children with less advanced knowledge of the area and the children with more advanced knowledge can benefit from the cooperative activity. The more advanced children can gain knowledge while assisting the other members of the group and the less advanced children can learn from watching and working with the other students.

A third student characteristic to consider when creating groups is the motivation of the children, which can influence students' participation in the group activity. Frequently, a student's individual identity can become masked by the group, resulting in decreased desire to participate and social loafing. Making every group member accountable for completing or reaching the goal of the activity can be vital in promoting proactive participation for all group members.

Another way to increase motivation in a group is to keep each group at a reasonable size, which could vary by the age of the students in the class. For example, limiting the size of groups to approximately four or five is likely to be optimal for a cooperative activity

for school-age children, while two or three children may be more appropriate for children of preschool or kindergarten age.

Managing Cooperative Learning Groups in the Classroom

Although cooperative learning can have many benefits and can be used in many different contexts and for many different subjects, such as mathematics, literacy, and science, the group activities need to be carefully planned for successful learning to occur. Following are several strategies teachers can use to help facilitate successful cooperative learning groups in the classroom.

The first strategy for teachers is to assign appropriate class time for the cooperative activity. If children are to complete the assignment in class, it is important for teachers to provide ample time for children to be able to do so. However, the length of time will likely vary depending upon the age of the children. For example, the time devoted to the activity may be limited for younger children, while older school-age children may benefit from longer, extended periods to allow opportunities for greater in-depth discussions and interactions. If groups are to complete the assignment at home, then class time should be provided for children to plan how they should communicate with each other outside of class or how they are going to complete the activity, such as dividing up the tasks.

A second strategy for teachers to use is to decide how the responsibilities of the activity will be divided among the group members and clearly communicate this to the students. One common way of dividing responsibility in primary and secondary school classrooms is called the jigsaw classroom, suggested by Elliot Aronson. In the jigsaw classroom, small groups are formed and then the group assignments are divided up into different tasks, which are assigned to each of the students in a group. Students' contributions are thus interdependent, because the project cannot be completed until each group member's contribution is included and combined, and each student's role is known by the group, holding everyone accountable. Students from different groups assigned to the same task may also work together and then rejoin their home group to share the progress they have made.

In other activities, students may have clearly defined roles, but have several different responsibilities. For example, in an activity called Think Pair Share, students may be required to present a problem to a peer and also listen and provide feedback during their partner's presentation. Finally, some activities may require less clearly defined roles, but equal responsibility among all of the members in contributing to the activity. These are

considered most challenging, as they require children to coordinate their ongoing behavior to successfully complete the task. As the success of the activity is likely to depend on how each member carries out his or her responsibilities, it is important that responsibilities are clearly communicated to the class.

A third strategy is for teachers to design activities with instructions that will elicit cooperative interactions. When students are given specific instructions to complete a task, high-quality collaborative discourse could be inadvertently discouraged. With specific instructions from the teacher, student discussion would most likely be limited to questions relating to the steps of the task and to clarifying related misunderstandings.

In contrast, open-ended and less specific instructions are more likely to stimulate highly cooperative dialogue and activity that, together, commonly lead to group investigation, brainstorming, rich discussion, negotiation, and evaluating different viewpoints. With more general instructions and during more open-ended activities, children must discuss various strategies to solve the more loosely defined problem. These types of interactions can lead to greater growth in the students' knowledge in addition to the development of social skills and functioning in a group.

A fourth strategy is for teachers to assume a facilitative role during the cooperative interaction. The goal of cooperative learning is to give children opportunities to problem-solve with the members of their group; therefore, teachers should only provide minimal guidance on an as-needed basis during an activity. The appropriate level of involvement could depend on the age of the children, with younger children needing more guidance and supervision than older children.

However, the role of the teacher should be to assist in the group dynamics rather than assist in completing the task. Assisting in the group dynamics includes encouraging children to engage in on-task discourse, ask each other questions about the task, and provide assistance to one another. Once children have completed cooperative activities, it is also beneficial for teachers to help students to reflect on the nature and quality of interactions that occurred during the activity and whether the goals of the activity were met.

Conclusion

Cooperative learning in which students work together in pairs or groups toward a shared goal has numerous benefits for children's social and cognitive development. These group tasks can influence cognitive change by enhancing children's performance and expanding their knowledge and understanding of problems and concepts. They can also advance children's cooperative,

communicative, and emotion-regulation skills. However, careful consideration needs to be given to the characteristics of the students when creating groups to work together. Similarly, the nature of the activity, the responsibilities of the students, and the role of the teacher should be planned for the activity to be successfully implemented in classrooms.

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See also Classwide Peer Tutoring; Cooperation and Competition; Facilitated Social Learning Groups; Managing Groupwork

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CORPORAL PUNISHMENT

Corporal punishment encompasses a range of physical disciplinary actions that adults use such as spanking, paddling, knuckle rapping, and arm-twisting to correct or control the behavior of children. In the United States, the most common form of corporal punishment is striking a child on the buttocks with a hand or wooden paddle. With regard to corporal punishment, there is widespread disagreement about what constitutes reasonable punishment—with a range of methods, from mild actions such as spanking lightly to more extreme actions such as punching. Within the United States, corporal punishment has been banned in most institutions, including prisons and mental health facilities. However,

corporal punishment is still used by parents and in the school setting.

The laws allowing or prohibiting corporal punishment in schools vary from state to state and range from completely forbidding the use of corporal punishment to allowing its use as part of regular discipline. Before using corporal punishment as a classroom management technique, it is critical for educators to consider both the legality *and* the effectiveness of corporal punishment; thus, both are the focus of this entry.

Legality of Corporal Punishment

In 1975, *Baker v. Owen* determined that schools could use reasonable corporal punishment to maintain order, even when parents object. In 1977, the Supreme Court ruled that the protection against cruel and unusual punishment does not apply to corporal punishment administered in schools. Later rulings have determined that extreme corporal punishment will be viewed as unconstitutional, but what constitutes *extreme* corporal punishment was not made clear. In the 1980 *Hall v. Tawney*, the U.S. Fourth Circuit Court of Appeals ruled that when corporal punishment is demeaning, brutal, or harmful, it violates a student's substantive due process rights. The courtroom test for appropriate versus excessive corporal punishment is whether it was enough to *shock the conscience*. With a potentially ambiguous understanding of what constitutes acceptable corporal punishment, many states have banned its use in schools. However, other states have tried to ban corporal punishment in schools but have repeatedly failed due to popular opinion and support about its effectiveness as a discipline technique.

Given the variations and controversies around corporal punishment, the first step for educational professionals considering the use of corporal punishment is to understand the laws in their own state as well as relevant district or school policies—because what may be considered corporal punishment in one context or place may be considered abuse in another. Furthermore, as laws are written using ambiguous language, it is vital that educational professionals proceed with utmost caution and be aware of the educational climate where they work so as to avoid ending up in unethical or litigious situations.

Is Corporal Punishment Effective?

Corporal punishment is challenging to research and understand, due to the inconsistent definitions and because ethical, legal, and social constraints are rife within this area of study. For example, rigorous designs cannot be achieved since children cannot be randomly assigned to corporal punishment groups. Nevertheless,

the confluence of evidence suggests that corporal punishment is not the most effective intervention available.

Elizabeth Gershoff looked at a number of studies that compared using time-outs or spanking for disciplinary purposes. Across the studies examined, time-out procedures, where the parent controlled when the time-out was completed, were the most effective form of discipline examined. Researchers studying corporal punishment have found small but significant associations between corporal punishment and maladaptive outcomes, including an increased likelihood of child abuse and physical injury, impaired cognitive ability, a negative impact on the relationship between the person doing and the student receiving corporal punishment, and a continuation of the cycle of aggression. Other researchers disagree with these findings due to methodological flaws and argue that judicious corporal punishment can effectively aid with behavior management.

Corporal Punishment and Possible Alternatives

Fundamentally all discipline is used for corrective purposes, that is, the adult administering the punishment wants to teach a lesson, modify current behavior, or teach different behaviors to be used in the future. As mentioned, if the goal of discipline is to alter behavior, it is unclear how effective corporal punishment is as a means to this end. Research suggests a lack of clear evidence showing that corporal punishment is effective in achieving better classroom management, teaching morals, or increasing respect. In fact, the opposite seems more likely to happen, since long-term corporal punishment is linked to more negative behavioral outcomes. Instead, positive reinforcement and deterrents from inappropriate behavior are supported as part of effective discipline. Despite the limitations of research examining the effectiveness of corporal punishment, when compared with other methods of disciplining, there is no evidence suggesting that corporal punishment is superior in achieving desired behavioral change.

Conclusion

When thinking about corporal punishment, education professionals must first know the legal edicts for their work setting and then consider the ethics and effectiveness of corporal punishment so as to determine whether it is the most appropriate and effective method for disciplinary change in any given situation. Although corporal punishment is sometimes a legally permissible option, evidence suggests that it does not have significant advantages over other forms of discipline and may

have unintended negative side effects; thus, the ethical choice generally is to avoid the use of corporal punishment. Alternative, evidence-based disciplinary measures such as positive behavior supports are sufficient by themselves to manage behavior when coupled with encouraging prosocial behavior.

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See also History of Classroom Management; Methods, Ineffective; Methods for Managing Behavior: Types and Uses; Punishment

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CO-TEACHING FOR INCLUSIVE CLASSROOMS

The practice of co-teaching, the pairing of general and special education teachers in classrooms including students with disabilities and typically achieving students, is increasing in American schools. Since the landmark legislation of 1975 (PL 94-142, now codified as the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, or IDEA) mandated the right to education for students with disabilities (SWD), the American public education system's attempts to effectively educate SWD has taken many forms.

Initially, a separate special educational system was created, and for the most part, SWD were instructed in separate, isolated settings. While these settings provided the opportunities for SWD to learn in small groups, with special education teachers and special instructional

techniques, the social and educational implications of isolated settings became increasingly evident. The social and educational performance gaps of SWD taught in segregated settings were enormous. As a result, the inclusive movement (trend toward teaching SWD in general education settings) gained momentum and was supported by federal legislation. However, the challenges of meeting the needs of SWD in an inclusive classroom were many and the pairing of general and special education teachers was instituted. The content knowledge of the general education teacher paired with the learning process and strategy knowledge of the special education teacher was thought to offer a supportive and rich educational environment for all students. However, the complexities of this teaching arrangement are many, and while the practice of effective co-teaching can provide innumerable benefits for all students, the challenges can be daunting.

Co-Teaching Models

The ways co-teachers configure instruction have an impact on the effectiveness of co-teaching. In order to offer intensive instruction to SWD, various models are employed. The models are selected based on the content and aim of each lesson.

One Teach, One Support

Using the one teach, one support model, the whole group is taught by one co-teacher while the other co-teacher takes on a supportive role by canvassing the students, providing short individual explanations, making sure students are on track and attentive, and clarifying tasks. This model is often the *default* of co-teachers as it requires little if any co-planning, helps with classroom management, and ensures that both teachers are active. However, this model sets up one teacher, usually the general education teacher, as the *lead* teacher and in so doing does not unleash the power of two teachers in the classroom.

Parallel Teaching

Using the parallel teaching model, the class is split heterogeneously in half, with each teacher teaching the same content. Another option for parallel teaching is for each teacher to teach a different aspect of the topic at the same time and then switch groups. The obvious benefit of this model is that the ratio of student to teacher is decreased, thus doubling the opportunities for student responses. The smaller group also allows the teachers to assess learning and adjust instruction.

Co-teachers are often hesitant to try parallel teaching, citing that it is too distracting, that the classroom is not conducive to two groups, or that both teachers are not equally knowledgeable about the content. However, with some practice, many co-teachers come to recognize the advantages of this model.

Station Teaching

Using station teaching, the class is heterogeneously split into three or four groups or stations. Each co-teacher teaches a specific station; in addition, there may be one or two independent stations. At specific time intervals, the student groups (or teachers) rotate so that each group goes to each station. What is critical with station teaching is that each teacher teaches and does not just supervise student groups. Station teaching further decreases student/teacher ratios and allows for a wide variety of activities on a specific topic. Station teaching requires planning with particular emphasis on the activities devised for the independent groups.

Alternative Teaching

Using the alternative teaching model, the class is split into two groups: one large group taught by a co-teacher, one small group taught by the other co-teacher. The small group can be made up of students who need more reinforcement, students who need enrichment, or students who are interested in a specific aspect of the topic. It is important that alternative teaching not be considered an opportunity to actually segregate SWD, thus increasing stigma and creating a class within a class.

Teaming

Hard to describe, teaming is even harder to actualize. Loosely defined, teaming is when both co-teachers have parity within the class; both have shared responsibilities, and both plan lessons together, have knowledge of both content and process, understand the unique needs of all students, and go in and out of all the above models to co-teach with ease.

Benefits

Although co-teaching is indeed complex, the benefits are many. Through the implementation of the different co-teaching instructional models, the student:teacher ratios decrease tremendously, allowing for intense and explicit instruction, opportunities for formative assessments, and instructional adaptations. Given a class of 30, in a parallel teaching approach the ratio decreases

to 1:15; in station teaching to 1:10; in alternative teaching, it can be as low as 1:1.

In an inclusive, co-taught classroom, students formerly excluded are included; on-level learning is optimized; stigma is likely to decrease, and opportunities for forming social relationships are likely to increase. All students, not just SWD, can benefit from the attention and smaller groups. In addition, the talents of the two teachers are combined, with each learning from the other, reflecting, adjusting instruction, and meeting the needs of their students.

Challenges

The two most pressing challenges to co-teaching are developing effective co-teacher relationships and effectively and efficiently planning. A successful co-teaching pair must have respect for each other's knowledge and strengths, be willing to honestly communicate and problem-solve, be hardworking, and, above all, hold the interests of all students paramount. Developing such a relationship is hard work, made harder when teachers are not thoughtfully paired together. Effective planning takes time, time that is often not allotted to co-teachers. Planning also requires a deep understanding of content, learning processes, and instructional strategies that effectively support student learning. Adding to the difficulties, co-teachers must plan to address both the curriculum and students' individualized education programs and must do so with high expectations for the diversity of learners in the inclusive class.

Concluding Remarks

Research on co-teaching is complex, with much of the research centering on co-teacher relationships, roles, perceptions, and implementation. Research investigating the growth of student learning in co-taught inclusive classes is beginning to emerge. Most research efforts so far appear to support the conclusion that co-teaching, despite real challenges, offers a potentially powerful learning environment for SWD and their classroom peers.

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See also Active Student Responding; Inclusive Classrooms; Individuals With Disabilities Education Act; Individualized Education Programs; Interdisciplinary Team Teaching

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COUNCIL FOR CHILDREN WITH BEHAVIORAL DISORDERS

The Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders (CCBD) is a division of the Council for Exceptional Children (CEC). CCBD is an international community of educators to serve as the voice and vision of special education for children and youth with or at risk of emotional or behavioral disorders (EBDs). It is a diverse professional organization that works with others to ensure that these students are valued and included in all aspects of life. As a leader in shaping education policy and practice, CCBD is internationally recognized for its expertise and leadership in

- promoting and publishing research that improves policy and practice for children and youth with or at risk of EBDs;
- providing professional development opportunities that improve policy and practice for children and youth with or at risk of EBDs;
- advocating on behalf of individuals with EBDs and partnering with other organizations and individuals who share this commitment; and
- extending critical professional support to colleagues in these endeavors.

CCBD is dedicated to supporting the professional development and enhancing the expertise of those who work on behalf of children with challenging behavior, as well as their families. CCBD is committed to students who are identified as having EBDs and those whose behavior puts them at risk for failure in school, home, and/or community. CCBD supports prevention of problem behavior and enhancement of social, emotional, and educational well-being of all children and youth. CCBD supports positive interventions for students experiencing significant behavioral challenges at school, regardless of the perceived cause, age of the child or youth,

special education status, or the definition or category under which they receive special services.

CCBD Projects and Activities

CCBD publishes rigorous and timely research relating to youth with EBDs in its two journals, *Behavioral Disorders* and *Beyond Behavior*. *Behavioral Disorders* is published four times a year and contains reports of original investigations and relevant theoretical papers. *Beyond Behavior* is published three times a year and contains material of practical relevance to practitioners working with children and youth with EBDs. CCBD's *Newsletter* is published six times a year and is available online. The *Newsletter* provides timely information about upcoming CCBD, CEC, and other partner events, advocacy, governmental affairs and policies, and professional development offerings. Readers of the *Newsletter* will also find articles on classroom and schoolwide behavior and academic interventions.

Professional development is another tenet offered to members of CCBD and others through publications and a conference held every other year. The conference, which attracts hundreds of education practitioners, administrators, and university personnel, offers a variety of topics relevant to youth with EBDs in topical strands, such as cultural diversity, juvenile justice, Positive Behavior Intervention and Support including academic tiers and instruction, dropout prevention, mental health services, educational law, ethics, autism, assessment, individualized education program, family development, and technology.

CCBD professionals have the opportunity to be recognized for their service to youth with EBD through the annual awards program. The awards include the Carl Fenichel Memorial Research Award, Outstanding Leadership Award, and Outstanding Professional Performance Award. Descriptions of these awards and nomination procedures can be found on the organization's website. Awards are distributed during the annual CCBD membership meeting and during the CEC Annual Convention.

Persons who wish to be involved as volunteers, advocates, and leaders in CCBD have the opportunity to run for an office of the international executive committee or to offer to be a member of one of the committees:

- Professional Development
- Publications
- Advocacy and Governmental Relations
- Nominations and Elections
- Regional Services and Membership

Information about nominations and committee openings can be found in the CCBD *Newsletter* online. Persons can get involved at the local level too, as

CCBD has a subdivision in nearly every U.S. state and Canadian province (see the CCBD website's *Regional Services* tab for more information).

Another way to be involved in CCBD is through the CCBD Foundation, which was founded in 1997 to support its mission of improving the education of children and youth with EBDs. The foundation provides members of the educational, research, and wider community who share a commitment to supporting students with EBD with a way to combine their efforts, merging their donations into awards in specific priority areas that have a high impact on students and their classrooms. These include the following:

- Funding projects, programs, and curriculum for students with EBD through the Classroom Practitioner Support Program. This is one of the foundation's longest-standing programs. Its purpose is to support the professional application of knowledge and skills to improve academic, social, emotional, and community employment-based outcomes for children and youth with behavioral disorders.
- Providing educators with financial assistance to attend professional development events related to EBD. The purpose of the program is to support the professional development of persons involved in providing education or related services to children and youth with EBD.
- Awarding scholarships for undergraduates and graduates pursuing a career working with students with EBD. The purpose of the CCBD Scholarship Program is to support undergraduate and graduate studies in the area of EBDs. The undergraduate scholarship is named in honor of Dr. Eleanor Guetzloe. The graduate scholarship is named in honor of Dr. Frank Wood.
- Recognizing leaders in the field by realizing that regional and local activity is central to the success of the Foundation. Regional volunteers help administer awards, organize local fundraising efforts, and coordinate with the wider community of EBD educators, students, and families. National leaders have been designated and attached to one of eight U.S. regions because of their affiliation with the region and their impact on youth with EBD.

The foundation's activities are supported by individual and organizational donations, as well as the proceeds from social events held at CCBD-affiliated conferences.

In sum, through its publications, professional development, advocacy, member services, and foundation work, CCBD is a leading organization for EBD and education professionals who wish to find information about children and youth with EBDs.

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See also Behavior Disorders; Diagnostic and Statistical Manual (DSM)

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Websites

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- Council for Exceptional Children: <http://www.cec.sped.org>

CREATIVITY AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

How does one think about creativity and classroom management? One common way is to view creativity and classroom management as contradictory: Creativity is often viewed as thriving only in settings that have few or no constraints (e.g., requiring thought that goes *outside of the box*), whereas classroom management is typically viewed as establishing clear and consistent constraints that govern student behavior (e.g., behavior expectations, classroom rules, approaches to discipline). Moreover, there is evidence (both anecdotal and empirical) that highly creative students sometimes struggle in school and can be viewed by their teachers as troublesome and disruptive. But where does such a contradictory view leave teachers who value both creativity and a well-managed classroom?

For many teachers, viewing creativity and classroom management as contradictory may result in believing that one must choose between creativity and a structured classroom environment. A teacher who wants to nurture student creativity may fear that doing so will invite curricular chaos into his or her classroom. That same teacher, however, may also worry that establishing and enforcing consistent classroom rules and expectations will come at the cost of their students' (and their own) creativity.

Consequently, when the push of wanting to nurture creativity comes to the shove of inviting curricular chaos, most teachers likely will choose to avoid rather than risk the potential for curricular disruption. This is unfortunate, not only because creativity comes out on the losing end, but also because such a choice undermines the development of more meaningful and rewarding

teaching and learning. Fortunately, this need not be the case. Teachers can simultaneously support student creativity and establish a well-managed classroom. In order for this to happen, teachers need to develop a broader understanding of both.

Understanding Classroom Structure

One way to think about classroom management is to understand that in order for teachers to avoid chaos, they will need to establish a clear and consistent classroom structure. This means that students understand what is expected of them and how they might fulfill those expectations, including understanding the goals, procedures, policies, and everyday practices of the classroom. Put simply, structure is a safeguard against chaos. Many beginning teachers encourage creativity and intellectual freedom in their first classrooms by having as little structure as possible, only to realize after a few short weeks that the *Lord of the Flies* situation that quickly developed and that lacked meaningful constraints was conducive neither to learning nor to creativity.

In this way, structure is a necessary first step to establishing a well-managed classroom, but simply understanding the difference between a structured and chaotic classroom does little by way of helping teachers understand how a structured classroom is also compatible with nurturing student creativity. Indeed, in order for teachers to understand how a structured classroom is compatible with creativity, one must also understand the nature of creativity itself.

Understanding Creativity

Common misunderstandings about the nature of creativity stem from incomplete or unclear definitions of creativity. In order for teachers to move beyond this conceptual roadblock, they must first understand what exactly is meant by creativity. Although there is some variation in how creativity researchers have defined creativity, there is a general consensus that *creativity refers to anything that is both unique and meaningful as defined within a particular context*. A bit more elaboration on this definition can help teachers develop a working understanding of how creativity can be nurtured in a clearly structured and well-managed classroom.

Most teachers recognize that creativity requires originality. What many teachers and students do not recognize, however, is that creativity also requires usefulness, task appropriateness, or fit. Without this second requirement, creativity is equated with unstructured originality. Indeed, this incomplete understanding of creativity—viewing it as synonymous with originality or, more colloquially, being different—is one reason why

teachers mistakenly believe that supporting creativity is somehow at odds with establishing the kinds of clear and consistent classroom expectations and guidelines associated with classroom management. Conversely, when teachers understand that creativity requires the combination of originality and task appropriateness, then it is easier for them (and their students) to recognize how creativity can exist in the structure of a well-managed classroom. In fact, the *task appropriateness* attribute of creativity would require that in order for students' original ideas, behaviors, and products to be considered creative, they would need to fit within the structured expectations of that classroom.

For example, tolerating random, off-topic student comments during a class discussion might be perceived as allowing for creativity, but according to most definitions and theories of creativity, such tolerance is more likely to lead to more random, off-topic student comments—which are more likely to disrupt student learning and creativity rather than foster it. An alternative approach is to encourage unique perspectives and comments that are germane to the topic at hand, discouraging those that are not.

Understanding the Link Between Creativity and Classroom Management

Taken together, understanding classroom structure and the nature of creativity provides a basis for understanding the link between the two. An ideal learning environment is one in which students' view learning tasks as inherently meaningful, interesting, challenging, and engaging. In such situations, students have the opportunity to direct their own learning and follow their own interests. In such an environment student learning and creativity thrive.

A supportive environment can be undermined, however, if students feel like they are being constantly monitored and experience heightened levels of competition, social comparison, and behavioral contingencies (e.g., "Do this behavior to get this reward or avoid this punishment"). When students experience heightened levels of competition, comparison, evaluation, and contingencies, they can become so focused on external motivators and avoiding negative consequences (e.g., making mistakes, appearing less competent than their peers) that they will be less likely to find value in the task itself and less likely to take the risks necessary to engage in meaningful learning and creative expression.

In order for a structured classroom to also nurture student creativity, students must also experience it as supportive rather than controlling. Put simply, the link between creativity and meaningfully engaged students boils down to the motivational messages sent to students

and how students experience those messages. The way in which teachers establish and enforce the classroom structure (i.e., rules, policies, procedures) communicates important motivational messages to students. To the extent that such messages are supportive of students' autonomy, then the more likely that both student creativity and student engagement will be encouraged in the classroom.

Students feel autonomous when they value learning tasks, can make choices, and have a voice in the decision making about their own learning. Conversely, students feel controlled when they feel pressured or coerced by their teachers and are asked to engage in learning activities or tasks for which they see little meaning, value, or purpose.

Teachers, therefore, can help support students' autonomy by providing students with options and choices (e.g., "Select one of the following topics"); invite and integrate students' insights and perspectives into lessons, activities, and everyday procedures of the classroom (e.g., "What are your thoughts about . . ."); provide reasons for instructional requests and classroom policies (e.g., "The reason I'm asking you to use these guidelines is because . . ."); and encourage and validate students' thoughts and feelings (e.g., "I can see that you are upset . . .").

When teachers take the time to support student autonomy and monitor how their students' are experiencing the classroom environment, they likely will establish a well-managed classroom environment that is also supportive of meaningful engagement and creative expression.

Practical Suggestions

There are many things that teachers can do to simultaneously support student creativity and establish a well-managed classroom. In what follows, several practical suggestions are given that teachers can incorporate into their everyday classroom.

- *Invite and incorporate student perspectives.* When teachers invite and incorporate their students' perspectives both when establishing the structure of the classroom and when teaching academic content, teachers send the message that students have a voice in the classroom—communicating to students their ideas are important, worth hearing, and will be taken seriously. As a result, students will be more likely to endorse and respect the goals, policies, and procedures of the classroom. In short, when students feel that their ideas are respected, they are more likely to share their ideas, respect the goals that the teacher is trying to attain, and engage in the development of a well-managed classroom learning environment.

- *Model real-world creative communication.* Another way to incorporate student perspectives is to provide opportunities for students to present and promote their creative work. In the real world, adults do not submit their work for evaluation with no input; rather, they usually present their work and receive and respond to feedback. The traditional classroom evaluation model is to assess the quality of students' work out of context. When students present their work, both to teachers and to other students, they learn to defend their ideas and respond to criticism, and the students collectively can learn to construct and communicate feedback that is truly constructive. By modeling a professional exchange of ideas and promoting students' ownership of their work, an environment of respect is fostered in the classroom.
- *Model risk management.* Managing risk effectively is a hallmark of creative productivity, but many classroom environments are constructed in ways that, from the students' perspective, punish creative risks, especially if these do not succeed. Teachers can promote constructive risk taking by creating environments in which legitimate creative risk taking is encouraged, with the occasional and inevitable failures not immediately receiving poor grades. Similarly, teachers can model risk management by trying to be creative in their own teaching and discussing the effectiveness of those new methods with students, which sends the message to students that taking chances and gathering feedback on one's creative efforts is a positive, adult behavior.
- *Monitor students' motivational experiences.* Understanding and monitoring how students experience the classroom environment is an important (and ongoing) instructional responsibility of teachers who want to establish a well-managed classroom and, at the same time, encourage creative expression. When students feel like their teachers respect them enough to establish a supportive classroom environment, then they are more likely both to respect the behavioral expectations established by their teachers and to feel safe enough to take the risks necessary for meaningful learning and creative expression. Creative and well-behaved students feel in control of their learning and behavior. They feel supported, not controlled, by their teachers.

Conclusion

The foregoing suggestions provide teachers with practical insights for how they might make strides toward establishing a well-managed classroom that supports student creativity. The key is to recognize that creativity can thrive in a structured environment as long as students feel like their own unique perspectives are welcome and, when appropriate, will be integrated into the learning activities, tasks, and everyday procedures of the classroom.

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See also Arts for Learning Environments; Beginning Teachers and Classroom Management; Conditions for Learning; Motivating Students; Progressive Education

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CULTURAL DIVERSITY

The school-age population in the United States grows increasingly diverse. For some classrooms, schools, and districts, this demographic shift means an increasing mixture of students from different ethnic, language, or immigration backgrounds; for others it paradoxically means moving toward less diversity and a single numerical ethnic majority group. At the same time, the 2007 U.S. Supreme Court decision, *McFarland v. Jefferson County Public Schools & Parents Involved in Community Schools v. Seattle School District No. 1*, left many educators wondering whether the legacy of the historic 1954 *Brown v. Board of Education* decision prompting school desegregation would endure. The concern on the part of desegregation's proponents is

that these recent decisions will lead to changes in school and district policies that ultimately resegregate school-age youth. A history of behavioral research indicates both potential benefits and drawbacks of cultural and ethnic diversity. Here, the focus will not be on legal matters, but on the meaning and effects of diversity on the lives of students' intergroup relations within classrooms and schools.

The following sections define key terms and describe general concepts of intergroup relations that can inform our understanding of classroom cultural diversity. The entry then summarizes some risks and benefits associated with cultural diversity, and ends by focusing on a small but rapidly growing population of multiethnic students.

Defining Race, Ethnicity, Culture, and Diversity

Race is a socially constructed and defined concept. This means that, contrary to how the term is sometimes erroneously used outside the scientific community, race refers to more than color of skin or underlying biology. That the term *race* is socially constructed and defined is reflected in its changes over time. A quick comparison of racial categories in the U.S. Census over the years shows flexibility based on political and demographic changes. For example, in 1910, the racial categories were White, Black, Mulatto, Chinese, Japanese, American Indian, or other races, whereas in 2013, there are five main categories: White, Black or African American, American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian, Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, with a variety of additional smaller categories, including multiethnic/multiracial.

On the other hand, ethnicity has typically reflected a broader concept that distinguishes individuals not only on historical origin and appearance, but also on their current shared customs, beliefs, and culture. Today, many researchers examine ethnicity rather than race in their research. Culture then reflects these behavioral components of ethnicity, such as a shared beliefs and values, knowledge, rules, and general way of life.

Finally, diversity refers to the racial, ethnic, or cultural variability, not only in a broad geographic or political region, but also within a particular setting, such as a classroom or school. Because cultural diversity can be more difficult to define, researchers have relied on studying racial or ethnic diversity as a proxy for cultural diversity.

Early research after the *Brown v. Board of Education* ruling focused primarily on settings in which African American students attending majority White schools were compared to African American students

in majority black schools. Later, researchers typically defined diversity as percentage of non-White students in a school. However, as noted above, the changing demographics of U.S. school-age youth suggest that school settings may include students from a variety of ethnic and cultural backgrounds. Current research focuses on this conception of diversity, whereby higher diversity is reflected by settings in which there are more groups that are evenly distributed, with no single group holding the numerical majority. In comparison, low-diversity settings are those in which there is a numerical majority group and students fall into either the numerical majority or minority group within that setting.

Basic Group Difference Research

Some findings that can provide hints about diversity or conflict between groups in the classroom come from classic research that created cultural groups based on experimental manipulation.

The seminal Robber's Cave experiment, conducted in the mid-1950s, included a sample of average, middle-class, Protestant, behaviorally normal White boys (11 years old) at a summer camp in Oklahoma. The boys did not know each other prior to the camp and did not know they were taking part in a study. They were randomly divided into two camp groups by the researchers, making sure they were as similar as possible. Each group of boys (self-named the *Rattlers* and *Eagles*) did not know about the other group's existence for the first week of camp. The camp counselors (i.e., participant observer researchers) then brought the two groups together for a number of competitive activities (e.g., baseball, tug-of-war, skits) with the team with the highest number of points winning an overall group prize. This intergroup competition resulted in each group forming strong in-group identities (i.e., as a Rattler or Eagle), creating strong negative stereotypes about the boys in the other group, and engaging in between-group verbal and physical aggression. In addition, boys *overestimated* the performance of their fellow group members and *underestimated* the performance of out-group members on a task in which the researchers ensured that all the boys performed identically.

The researchers next tried to limit the intergroup animosity with a number of opportunities for contact with out-group members in noncompetitive situations, but the intergroup aggression did not weaken. Merely having the opportunity to interact with out-group members after the intense between-group competition and aggression was not enough to minimize intergroup dislike. Only during activities that had a shared common goal (i.e., superordinate goal) did positive intergroup interactions occur. These superordinate goals could not

be achieved by either single group alone, so the groups had to cooperate in order to achieve the goal.

In one of many experimental challenge conditions, a truck supposedly carrying the entire camp's food broke down (this was actually arranged by the experimenters). Neither group alone could solve the problem. Rather, both groups had to pull the truck with a rope in order to get the truck to start. Sentiment toward out-group members did not completely reverse after just one problem-solving incident. Several challenges that involved superordinate goals had to take place before intergroup interactions improved. This improvement was observed by outside researchers (posing as camp staff) in the form of increased cross-group interactions, greater cooperation, decreased conflict, and elimination of cross-group verbal (e.g., name calling, stereotypes) and physical aggression. The improvement was also reflected in campers' own ratings of one another.

Recently, experiments have been conducted in settings that more closely approximate classroom settings (e.g., mixed-gender groups, summer school). Here, researchers randomly assign students to different groups based on shirt color. Attitudes about the groups changed when teachers brought attention to the shirt colors and when there was a status difference between the two groups. In those situations, students in the high-status group developed negative opinions about the out-group. When the relative size of the groups (i.e., numerical majority, minority) was varied to better approximate low-diversity settings, numerical minority students developed strong in-group biases. And, when the numerical minority group was very small, students tended to be dissatisfied with their group membership, despite having an in-group bias.

Taken together, these two sets of experimental findings demonstrate between-group dislike can be artificially created fairly quickly—especially when there is competition for resources or there are status differences between groups—and this between-group animosity can be difficult to overcome (i.e., requiring several superordinate goals). While these studies provide insight about children's behavior in mixed-group settings, it is important to note that these were newly formed groups (camp group, shirt color) in which membership was not burdened by outside factors (e.g., historical treatment of a particular ethnic group in society). In school settings, when between-group interactions are partially informed by history within the country and by local communities, the situation can get much more complex.

Risks Associated With Ethnic Diversity

The studies described above, as well as those early studies examining African American students in predominantly White or African American majority schools, focused on

settings in which there were only two groups. Previous experimental and correlational research suggests that the greatest opportunities for conflict are settings in which there are only two groups with relatively equal balance of power, and in which there are limited resources for which groups must compete. In school settings, such resources could be access to better teachers, higher social status, or a tangible trophy, as was the case in the Robber's Cave experiment described above.

Some researchers propose that in more diverse settings students may have difficult decisions to make about with whom and how to interact. For example, because of the historical and ongoing disparities between African Americans and White individuals in the United States, researchers have suggested that there are in-group social penalties for some African Americans who are perceived to be *acting White* (e.g., striving to do well in school), while at the same time those who choose to *act White* may not be fully accepted by White students. The bulk of this research was conducted in the 1980s and 1990s, with other more recent studies failing to provide support for this proposal.

Discrimination can also be a problem for ethnic minority children in diverse settings. For instance, when students (and teachers and other school staff) from many different ethnic backgrounds are brought together, school community members may rely on ethnic group stereotypes (intentionally or unintentionally) rather than allowing for differences between individual students. Another risk is the potential for conflict and misunderstandings, particularly when students have little previous exposure to or experience with cross-group interactions.

As noted above, ethnicity is partly determined by country/region of origin, but also draws from shared beliefs, values, customs, and behaviors of a group of people. Sometimes the beliefs and behaviors of one group can run in opposition to those of another group. For example, in some cultures avoiding eye contact might signal respect or deference, whereas in others it could be interpreted as an affront. Students who recently immigrated might be particularly vulnerable to being misinterpreted, as they may dress or act differently from their U.S.-born peers and also experience language barriers. Despite these potential risks of diverse settings, ethnic diversity can also provide opportunities for positive outcomes.

Benefits Associated With Ethnic Diversity

With the most recent U.S. Census suggesting that ethnic diversity among school-age children is increasing in almost every state, understanding the potential benefits classroom and school ethnic diversity should be of interest to educators nationwide. Researchers propose

two reasons that ethnic diversity might be protective for youth. First, ethnic diversity—many different groups, with no single group holding the majority—does not allow any one group to hold the balance of power. Second, increased ethnic and cultural diversity within a setting may allow flexibility in attributions of negative social interactions.

The developmental and educational research literature supports this positive perspective on ethnic diversity. Students in schools and classrooms with higher levels of diversity report feeling less lonely, less bullied, and safer in school than students in schools or classrooms with less diversity. At the classroom level, these findings are robust even after taking into consideration the academic engagement of the students in the classroom. In other words, while classrooms with high levels of academic engagement might promote a behaviorally calmer classroom environment, ethnic diversity predicts better social experiences above and beyond this effect.

Research also supports the idea of attributional flexibility in diverse settings. Attributions about the cause of positive or negative experiences determine an individual's response to the event. For example, when a student gets bullied by a classmate, he or she may wonder why it happened. The reason for this negative social interaction will, in part, determine a student's adjustment following the event. In diverse settings, there are several explanations easily accessible to students—"it could be me" or "it could be my group." On the other hand, in nondiverse settings, students in the numerical majority group cannot use the explanation "it could be my group." With the probable explanation being "it must be me," numerical majority students in nondiverse settings are at greater risk for psychological maladjustment as a function of getting bullied than their bullied counterparts in diverse settings.

There are several other potential benefits of ethnic and cultural diversity in classrooms and schools. One is that it may allow for greater behavioral flexibility. In nondiverse classrooms and settings, it may be easier for students to stand out if they deviate from the classroom norm in minor ways. However, in diverse settings, the range of normative behaviors might be broader such that students do not need to be so narrowly similar to others in their classroom or school. Or, similar to the attributional process described above, those in diverse settings could either attribute a student's deviant behavior to the individual (which could warrant social sanctions), or to the group (which may lead to a greater allowance for the behavior).

Experiencing ethnic diversity has also been shown to decrease prejudice and at the same time increase cognitive flexibility and coping across multiple developmental domains (e.g., cognitive, social, and emotional). Thus, it is important to think about diversity within

schools, classrooms, and friendship groups as separate social opportunities for students to experience diversity.

Being exposed to ethnic and cultural diversity also paves the way for cross-ethnic interactions and friendships. Although students of all ethnicities typically prefer same-ethnicity friends, the proportion of multiethnic friends increases in diverse school settings, and is related to decreased prejudice among children. Children with cross-ethnic friends have been shown to be more positively socially adjusted, better listeners, and preferred by their classmates, compared to those without.

Multiethnic Students

The 2000 U.S. Census was the first time that individuals could report being from multiple ethnic or racial backgrounds. Multiethnic students are an understudied but ever growing group who are the children of parents from different racial, ethnic, or cultural backgrounds. As of the 2009 U.S. Census, approximately 5.2 million individuals self-identified as multiethnic, a 33% increase since the year 2000. While some areas in the United States are not ethnically diverse and attitudes about cross-ethnic marriages vary between communities, most educators will likely encounter multiethnic students.

Because the U.S. Census—and many school districts—historically ignored multiethnic students, most early research focused on the psychological adjustment of multiethnic individuals. Many believed that multiethnic youth were at risk for social exclusion, bullying, and psychological maladjustment. This early work was based on the assumption that growing up in a multiethnic home would create confusion and social challenges for children about how to identify themselves ethnically and racially. Additionally, multiethnic children would potentially receive contradictory signals between their diverse, ethnically tolerant household and a potentially intolerant neighborhood, school, or community. The concern was also that multiethnic students would be rejected by their monoethnic peers (even if they tried to identify or affiliate monoethnically) and would therefore suffer social isolation. These early problem theories left researchers and educators to assume that multiethnic students would have greater difficulty within schools and that these social and academic risks could spill over into other risk behaviors, such as substance use and delinquency. However, more recent comprehensive reviews of the literature suggest that few, if any, of these predictions are true. Multiethnic youth fare no worse, and sometimes even better, than their monoethnic minority peers on a host of adjustment indicators.

Just as racial and ethnic categories are socially constructed by political and cultural shifts, attitudes toward and acceptance of multiethnic students may change within the broader United States over time. For instance,

cross-ethnic romantic relationships and marriages have become substantially more common in recent years. The improved societal tolerance for multiethnic marriages has led, and will continue to lead, to more children who identify as multiethnic within schools. It may be true that children with multiethnic parents face unique circumstances compared to their peers who have monoethnic parents; however, there is no evidence for pervasive negative developmental consequences from growing up multiethnic.

Conclusion: Schools and Classrooms as Culture

There is a superordinate culture that exists within individual schools and classrooms, based on attitudes, interaction styles between members of the school community, and broader neighborhood norms and expectations. Within the school, microcultures may emerge between school staff and students, or among students. Teachers and administrators can introduce curriculum to educate the school community on racial, ethnic, or cultural diversity, and promote discussions about diversity within classrooms. Framing issues in terms of the whole school community or global school community can help to reduce intergroup friction.

Additionally, research suggests that the attitudes teachers and school staff have toward equity and tolerance can positively affect students' motivation, engagement, and achievement within the classroom. In sum, from peers, to teachers, to principals, there is a classroom and school community that can provide a safe social structure for all students—majority, minority, multiethnic, or immigrant—to feel connected. Feeling safe in schools is the catalyst for well-being and future adult achievement.

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See also Asian American Students; Bullying and Bullying Prevention; Culturally Pluralistic Classrooms; English Language Learners and Classroom Behavior; Linguistic Diversity and Classroom Management; Sexual Orientation and Classroom Management; Urban Schools

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CULTURALLY DIFFERENT STUDENTS IN GIFTED EDUCATION

For decades, Black and Hispanic students have been underrepresented in gifted education programs in U.S. schools. This underrepresentation has been measured in several important reports. For example, the Office of Civil Rights Data Collection reported that underrepresentation exists in all states and in the majority of school districts. Black students comprise 19% of all students in public schools, but only 10% are in gifted programs—a 47% underrepresentation rate. Hispanic students comprise 25% of all students in public schools, but only 16% are in gifted programs—a 36% underrepresentation rate. Combined, the estimate is that each year at least 500,000 African American and Hispanic students in the United States are not identified as gifted or served by programs for gifted students. This entry explores the problem of underrepresentation in gifted programs, some of the reasons it exists, and guidelines for solving the problem.

Underrepresentation is not the usual focus in discussions of classroom management. Ordinarily, discussion about classroom management focuses on the students who are already in a classroom or program. However, if classroom management is about creating good learning environments, one question should be “good learning environments for whom?” In this case, *good* means culturally responsive and equitable. When underrepresentation is a serious problem, then no matter how good classroom management may be for the students enrolled, it will fall short if the programs and services do not include all those who should be enrolled. In other words, this entry expands the topic of classroom management to include the issue of underrepresentation. The major assertion is that when classrooms are managed in equitable ways, more Black and Hispanic students will be challenged, referred for screening, and served in gifted education.

Addressing Underrepresentation: Equity Versus Equality

Traditionally, underrepresentation in programs for gifted students has been addressed through recruiting efforts focused on increasing access to gifted programs and, in the case of race/ethnicity, on balancing the numbers to decrease discrepancies between the percentage of Black and Hispanic students in a district compared to their percentage in gifted education classes. Once the rate or percentage of underrepresentation is known, school personnel are often challenged to set goals that are not quotas.

Two different ways of defining the problem of underrepresentation have guided decisions and goal setting. One way has been to define the problem in terms of equality—leading to a focus on numbers only and equal ways of increasing assessing. Another way has been to define the problem in terms of equity—leading to a focus on quality, and on just and fair ways of assessing. With respect to the problem of underrepresentation, there are good reasons to adopt an equity way of defining the problem. Doing so is apt to recruit and retain more Black and Hispanic students in gifted education. This conclusion comes from close observation and evaluation of how educational gatekeepers have wittingly or unwittingly prevented Black and Hispanic students from being admitted to programs for gifted students.

Educational Gatekeepers

The Office for Civil Rights and the Department of Justice have examined districts' policies and procedures, along with tests and instruments, to determine whether they are discriminatory or in violation of civil rights laws. Two antidiscrimination laws are particularly germane to this discussion. Title IX, a section of the Education Amendments of 1972 (Pub. L. No. 92-318, 86 Stat. 235) states, "No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance." Further, the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (Pub. L. No. 88-352, 78 Stat. 241) outlawed discrimination against racial, ethnic, national, and religious minorities and women. This Act ended racial segregation in schools, workplaces, and facilities that serve the general public.

However, despite these important laws and efforts to reduce discrimination in schools and schooling, unfair discrimination persists and shows most clearly in cases of underrepresentation. A number of factors contribute to underrepresentation, mainly low referral and nomination rates by teachers and school personnel, and testing and identification biases. Several studies have shown that

underreferrals by teachers (including counselors, psychologists, and administrators) serve as gatekeepers to gifted education for culturally different students who are Black or Hispanic. Tests and other instruments (e.g., nomination forms, checklists) have been criticized for also being discriminatory. Discrimination consists of acting on beliefs and is illegal because the action (e.g., policy, instrument) denies individuals or groups rights and opportunities to which they are legally entitled. In gifted education, the majority of allegations and investigations of racial discrimination (e.g., underreferral, criteria, tests and instruments, policies and procedures) involve Black students' underrepresentation. When teachers are not trained in gifted education *and* multicultural education, classroom management is less likely to be culturally responsive, and teachers may not see strengths in their students. This is one significant reason for underreferrals—not seeing gifts and talents in culturally different students.

The Equity Index

De jure segregation is common in gifted programs. This was found in the 2013 court ruling *McFadden v. Board of Education for Illinois School District U-46*. In this court case and in all districts, at least two questions must be addressed: (1) When is underrepresentation significant? and (2) How severe must underrepresentation be before it is discriminatory?

Borrowing from the U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights' 20% equity threshold rule, Donna Ford revived the equity index to guide decision makers: (a) in determining a target goal for what is the *minimally* accepted level of underrepresentation for each culturally different group and (b) in acknowledging that proportional percentages are ideal and equitable but cannot always be achieved due to chance and contextual factors and the ways they affect individuals and groups (e.g., one group has less education than another, one group has more resources than another, etc). The crucial point is that when the percentage of underrepresentation *exceeds* the designated threshold in the equity index, it is beyond statistical chance; thus, human error is operating (e.g., low expectations, racial prejudice, biased or inappropriate tests and instruments, and policies and procedures); and they are potentially discriminatory against Hispanic and Black students.

While it is important to know the percentage of underrepresentation, no underrepresentation formula suffices for determining what is unacceptable or unreasonable underrepresentation; nor is the formula specific enough to set targeted goals for improving representation. This is where the Equity Index (EI) is needed.

Calculating the Equity Index (EI) is a two-step process. Step 1: (Composition (%) of African American

students in general education) \times Threshold of 20% = A. This is abbreviated as $C \times T = A$. Step 2: (Composition (%) of African American students in general education) $- A = EI$. This is abbreviated as $C - A = EI$. For example, nationally and in 2013, African Americans were 19% of students in general education; thus, the Equity Index using a 20% threshold would be: A is $19\% \times 20\% = 3.8\%$ and EI is $19\% - 3.8\% = 15.2\%$. In summary, African Americans (who represent 19% of students in general education) should represent, *at minimum*, 15.2% of students in gifted education. Nationally, their representation in gifted education programs is 10%. It is safe to conclude that underrepresentation is significant and beyond statistical chance. To achieve minimal equity, educators must increase African American representation nationally from 10% to *at least* 15.2%. For Hispanic students nationally, the Equity Index is approximately 20% for 2013: $(25\% \times 20\% = 5\%)$; $(25\% - 5\% = 20\%)$. Given that this group represents almost 16% of gifted education rather than the minimal 20% when viewed through an equity perspective, Hispanic students are also underrepresented beyond statistical probability (see Table 1).

Conclusion

The trends regarding underrepresentation in gifted programs present a disturbing and established actuality—gifted programs are clearly racially segregated for African American and Hispanic students. *Brown v.*

Table 1 Gifted Education Underrepresentation and Equity Index for Black and Hispanic Students

| | <i>Black Students</i> | <i>Hispanic Students</i> |
|--|-----------------------|--------------------------|
| School district enrollment | 19% | 25% |
| Gifted education enrollment | 10% | 16% |
| Percentage/degree of underrepresentation (discrepancy between percent in school district vs. percentage in gifted education) | 47% | 36% |
| Equity index goal/target (minimal percentage in gifted education to be equitable) | 15.2% | 20% |

Note: Data should be disaggregated by race and gender.

Board of Education ruled racial segregation unconstitutional; African American students have the legal (and moral) right to be educated in classrooms with White students. This principle was reinforced and upheld in *McFadden v. Board of Education for Illinois School District U-46*. However, we are far from fulfilling the mandates of *Brown* in gifted education. Gifted programs have yet to implement these standards and achieve equity for these two underrepresented groups. Culturally responsive teachers focus on the strengths of their students and promote high achievement for all. Teachers who are culturally responsive in managing their classrooms provide learning environments that support and nurture their Black and Hispanic students. It is crucial to do so—if we are to value the gifts and talents of these students and in so valuing, do what is needed to solve the problem of underrepresentation.

Donna Y. Ford

See also Anti-Bias Education; Culturally Pluralistic Classrooms; Culturally Responsive Classrooms for African American Students; Institutional Racism

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CULTURALLY PLURALISTIC CLASSROOMS

Conventional, discipline-oriented approaches to classroom management are not working for culturally pluralistic classrooms—as is evident in the current overuse

of disciplinary actions that penalize students of color disproportionately. Furthermore, research studies indicate that many of the disciplinary actions involving students of color have nothing to do with their participation in the substantive components of teaching. Instead, they have more to do with violations of procedural rules and rules that govern social relationships in schools and classrooms.

In culturally pluralistic classrooms, the problems associated with discipline approaches to classroom management are aggravated by the cultural differences that often exist between students and teachers. Such differences sometimes affect mismatches between students' and teachers' normative expectations about acceptable attitudes, decorum, and what is appropriate behavior in general, mismatches that can lead to discipline being experienced by students as unnecessary and unfair, which, in turn, leads to resentment and apathy.

These problems associated with discipline approaches are only likely to get worse with the steady increase in ethnically and culturally diverse groups of students enrolling in U.S. public schools. Therefore, alternatives are needed. This entry explains an alternative approach to classroom management in culturally pluralistic classrooms, one that remedies the problems caused by discipline approaches by treating classroom management as inseparable from good teaching. A good teaching approach to classroom management in culturally pluralistic classrooms includes rules and procedures, but in addition it also includes attending to the temporal (routines, transitions, etc.) and physical environment (how desks are arranged, pathways to work spaces, etc.), how work groups are constituted and supported, and creating lessons plans designed so that each student can succeed; in short, a good teaching approach attends to all the organizational details that make for any good learning environment.

However, in addition, a good teaching approach in a culturally pluralistic classroom demands more. Specifically, it demands *creating and maintaining conditions in classrooms that affirm the human dignity of culturally, ethnically, and racially diverse students so as to empower them to be and become more effective performers academically, culturally, socially, personally, politically, economically, and civically*. The implication here is that effective culturally responsive classroom management entails a comprehensive endeavor; it is expansive rather than restrictive; and it is centered in teaching.

From Discipline to Good Teaching

In the past, moving from a discipline to a teaching approach to classroom management in culturally

pluralistic classrooms has been difficult because of the cultural and experiential differences between teachers and their ethnically diverse students. Undoubtedly, perceptions of discipline and teaching are influenced by cultural socialization, which is often not the same for culturally diverse students and their teachers. For instance, the cueing mechanism teachers are accustomed to viewing as signals of academic engagement may not be the same for students from backgrounds different from middle-class European American backgrounds. Specifically, middle-class European American teachers expect students to separate socializing from academic task engagement. When this does not happen, it is interpreted as students not abiding by a cardinal rule mandatory for quality learning to occur. Yet, many students of color are accustomed to blending socializing with task performance, and in doing so, socializing in the classroom is normative to them.

A related cultural practice for African, Asian, and Latino Americans is communalism. In the classroom this often translates into a proclivity for cooperative learning, with students working together to accomplish tasks instead of the school-preferred individualistic and competitive styles. Even when teachers use cooperative learning as a teaching technique, individualism is still prominent in its structure and dynamics, as indicated by the formal and discrete roles that are often preassigned to group members, such as facilitator, recorder, and reporter. On the surface, these teaching techniques appear to be creating conditions conducive to learning for culturally diverse students, but they become discipline issues when their actualization is constructed differently and according to the cultural conceptions of students and teachers.

Teachers' beliefs about ethnic and racial diversity also can limit their ability to enact effective management in culturally pluralistic classrooms. Unfortunately, many teachers approach teaching culturally diverse students with anxiety, hesitancy, intimidation, fear, uncertainty, a lack of confidence, low levels of efficacy, and, in some instances, racial and cultural prejudices. These teachers consider culturally diverse students difficult to manage. They worry about losing control of their classrooms, gravitate toward a discipline approach, and reason that they "must have discipline before they can teach." Consequentially, they spend much time disciplining instead of teaching.

To move from a discipline to a good teaching approach, there are three central considerations: *including the excluded, using multiple and novel teaching techniques, and developing caring and trustworthy relationships between culturally diverse students and their teachers*. The following sections take up each of these in turn.

Including the Excluded

Relevant and responsive teaching for culturally diverse students includes alternative perspectives and scripts that deconstruct and dismantle many of the prevailing master narratives about cultural, racial, and ethnic diversity. These master narratives often devalue, ignore, or even brutally attack the cultural heritages of diverse students. Students of color resent these attacks on their human dignity and ethnic affiliations, and they retaliate by showing disrespect, distrust, and disregard for teachers, programs, and practices endorsing these master narratives. Expecting ethnically, racially, and culturally diverse students to function well under conditions hostile to their own cultures is the epitome of classroom *mismanagement*.

In contrast, culturally responsive teaching is strongly vested in reactivating the voices of ethnic and cultural groups that have been silenced, distorted, and/or denied in U.S. society and schools. Such teaching begins with beliefs that diversity is a natural legacy of humanity and a characteristic feature of U.S. society, and beliefs that there is inherent value in ethnic, racial, and cultural diversity. These beliefs are then embedded in and transmitted to students through instructional programs and practices. Consequentially, cultural diversity is a *routine, integral, and integrated* aspect of a good teaching approach to classroom management for all students, but especially for poor students of color. For example, if writing is a regular feature in a classroom, then cultural diversity becomes part of writing instruction. If the class habitually begins with a thought for the day or week, then the selections are made from a wide variety of ethnic and cultural sources, with explicit credit given to authors' cultural origins and ethnic identities. In other words, in a good teaching approach, cultural diversity becomes visible, prominent, and deliberately named throughout all learning activities, not avoided or set aside for special curriculum units or occasions.

This regularity and centering of cultural diversity in curriculum and instruction signals to diverse students that (1) their cultural experiences and heritages are valuable; (2) they personally are worthy human beings; (3) they are inheritors of notable accomplishments of their ethnic groups; and (4) they are capable of high-quality performance themselves. It is almost impossible to imagine that students will not be positively affected (and inclined to reciprocate) by authentic compliment, praise, and inclusion. Being praised by teachers, both directly and vicariously through positive portrayals of their ethnic and cultural groups, builds confidence in marginalized students of color and encourages them to participate in learning activities.

A powerful example of this approach to teaching diverse students is a technique called cultural modeling, developed by Carol Lee. She taught low-achieving African American students in an urban high school how to understand and analyze their own cultural communicative practices and how those practices parallel the practices used by authors in both African American cultural texts (such as fiction novels, lyrics of popular music, and contemporary artworks) and mainstream literary texts. Lee taught the students to detect concepts and techniques commonly used by authors and artists in their own speech acts, such as plot, character development, scene, analogy, simile, metaphor, and genre. What previously had been intellectually mystifying to the students was easily solved by transferring the skills they learned in analyzing their own speech acts to successfully conducting literary and artistic criticisms of high status and complex formal texts.

Multiple levels of *including the excluded* were exemplified by this project. They included elevating African American social discourse styles to a status of respectability; validating and affirming the cultural heritages of students, their ethnic groups' contributions, and their personal and social competencies beyond schools; using relevant cultural texts of both the students and mainstream schooling; bridging different cultural systems; and using culturally diverse resources to teach academic skills

Novelty in Teaching

Another feature of culturally responsive teaching is the use of novel teaching techniques and frequently varied formats for learning. Overuse of the same teaching strategies can quickly become tedious, boring, and off-putting for students accustomed to a technological world inundated with fast-paced, multisensory stimulation, and rapidly, sometimes instantaneously, changing formats of engagement.

Students who do not find a fit between how they learn and how teachers teach may disengage academically but find other outlets to channel their energy and attention that are at odds with how teachers think classroom dynamics should proceed. To prevent this brain drain and other potentially negative consequences, teachers who are responsive to their ethnic and culturally diverse students use imaginative, and sometimes even unorthodox, instructional techniques. They understand the appeal of the new, the unanticipated, the creative, and the imaginative, and use them to their advantage.

These new pedagogies might include oral history, autoethnography, poetry, art, music, cultural self-studies, storymaking and storytelling, news reporting, moviemaking, and photography. Students and teachers

might write song lyrics (and perform them!) about what is being studied. In other words, the classroom can become a stage where montages of teaching and learning are scripted and performed.

These pedagogies offer opportunities for diverse students to be more fully engaged in learning on multiple levels. They develop individual and collective knowledge and skills simultaneously; different kinds of successes, such as intellectual, interpersonal, esthetic, and physical; written and symbolic communication skills; interpreting, converting, and transferring knowledge from one format or setting to others; self-esteem, self-efficacy, and self-agency; and build community across cultural differences. Students can be incredibly imaginative, ingenious, and creative when they are given genuine invitations to be so by teachers who have faith in their capabilities, value pedagogical variety, and incorporate cultural diversity into teaching and learning.

Two historical projects provide compelling evidence of the positive effects of these culturally responsive ways of teaching and learning on many different types of achievement. One is the Foxfire Project. It was initially designed for poor, underachieving European American high school students in rural communities and involved studying local cultural customs and traditions, along with developing language arts and communication skills identified in the state competency requirements. The project improved the students' cultural knowledge, ethnic pride, personal confidence and efficacy, school affiliation and attendance, and performance on state and classroom language arts achievement tests. The students who participated in the project credited it for altering their lives in positive and constructive directions.

Another successful project that used novel and culturally responsive teaching techniques was the Kamehameha Early Education Program. It produced results similar to those of Foxfire for Native Hawaiian students in the early elementary grades by using teaching techniques that approximated their cultural interactional and communication styles.

Developing Caring and Authentic Relationships

Caring, authentic teacher–student relationships begin with teacher expectations. In the past, culturally diverse students have not been expected to perform well on learning tasks, and so teachers have *dumbed down* their intellectual challenges and opportunities. Others have been expected, unfairly, to be experts on their ethnic groups. Developing better teacher–student relationships in culturally pluralistic classrooms begins, then, with teachers adopting new and better expectations

Rich Milner and Blake Tenore provided additional guidance for how teachers should proceed in developing constructive and pedagogically strong relationships with students in urban classrooms who are largely poor and ethnically and racially diverse. They proposed six principles of culturally responsive classroom management that emphasize building supportive and caring relationships. These involve teachers understanding

- the worlds in which their students live;
- their own cultures and ethnicities as well as in relation to those of their students;
- the importance of students knowing about their lives outside of school and the role of the teacher;
- classrooms as communities and that diverse students have to be taught the skills necessary to be productive community members;
- equity and equality in the context of schooling and society at large; and
- power structures among students and how to use them to elicit engagement in learning experiences.

Student–teacher relationships that engage culturally diverse students maximally and holistically in learning are built on two other key pillars. One is the idea that teachers must be learners and students can be teachers, so they should be reciprocal partners in developing each other's competencies about and for cultural diversity, as well as improved academic performance. The other pillar is the need to cultivate a climate of success in the classroom, one where students and teachers feel mutually responsible for its actualization and sustainability.

This is where the notion of caring enters. Teachers who genuinely care for students believe unequivocally in their students' infinite potentialities and work diligently, imaginatively, and persistently to facilitate them. When teachers expect much and show care, they invariably get back from students what they give.

But this caring cannot remain within the realm of intangible beliefs and attitudes; it must be embodied in actions. For them to get the best performance of multiple kinds from students, teachers need to be clear and transparent in communicating performance expectations for students and for themselves; providing constructive feedback that includes praise and encouragement for work done and suggestions for how to make it even better; designing learning activities that ensure some level of success for all students; never treading on the cultural heritages and human dignity of students, either deliberately or unintentionally; sharing their own struggles and successes with the same or similar learning tasks students are expected to complete; being trailblazers and pacesetters by testing learning ventures before students are asked to pursue them; being learning companions and coaches for students; and always being

receptive to renegotiating the scope, magnitude, and timing of assignments when genuine student feedback indicates they are unrealistic. In other words, teachers have to be demanding but supportive, flexible, and fair. And they must expect the same from students.

Some teachers may think that caring and reciprocal relationships between teachers and students are only theoretical ideals that defy practical realities, and that culturally diverse students are too immature and unprepared for this kind of egalitarian responsibility. Teachers with such doubts are not ready to engage in culturally responsive teaching. It is true that many students of color probably will have to be taught how to engage in and honor these kinds of relationships because their previous schooling experiences have not demonstrated much trust, respect for, caring, and confidence in them. But it can happen, and when it does the quality of both teaching and learning improves significantly.

Scholars have called teachers who engage in these kinds of academically supportive relationships and exhibit deep personal investments in students' *warm demanders*. Because their advocacy of students is unequivocal, they have license to demand hard work and high performance and expect these demands to be met because they have created psychologically safe, intellectually supportive, and personally validating learning environments and relationships.

Conclusion

When classroom management is grounded in teaching that is stimulating and exciting, not just intellectually but psychologically, emotionally, personally, culturally, and socially stimulating and exciting, students have no need or inclination to resort to behaviors considered inappropriate for the classroom. And when classroom management is grounded in discipline, the opposite will be the case, especially in culturally pluralistic classrooms. Efforts to improve teaching for culturally diverse students will, therefore, produce better results than persisting with the losing battle of trying to make students of color comply with controlling and conforming rules and regulations.

Both research and conventional wisdom support the idea that teaching is at the heart of learning, and that teachers are the single most important factor affecting students' academic achievement. Therefore, if we want to create classroom conditions most conducive to the positive and constructive performance of ethnically, racially, and culturally diverse students, the best potential for doing so is to improve the quality of teaching. Culturally responsive teaching and classroom management in culturally pluralistic classrooms are inseparable.

Geneva Gay

See also Authority and Classrooms; Caring Approaches; Dropout Prevention; Underachievement and African American Students; Underachievement and Culturally Different Students; Urban Schools

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CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE CLASSROOMS

Today, teachers are being called to create culturally responsive classrooms in order to meet the needs of students from different cultural backgrounds. According to the National Center for Educational Statistics, by 2020, ethnic minority students are projected to represent 32% of the total population. Beyond ethnic diversity, students attending the same schools, especially in cities, often differ significantly from each other in terms of socioeconomic status, religion, family composition, and whether English is a first or second language. As diversity within schools continues to rise, there is an increasing demand for

teachers to both seek out and apply effective strategies and practices that are culturally responsive and that create more equitable learning environments for all students, not just those from a majority culture.

Teaching diverse groups of children presents teachers with challenges to adopt strategies that build effective positive relationships with all students, implement effective instructional strategies for all students, and, overall, keep students from culturally different backgrounds meaningfully engaged in the educational process. The challenges are made greater by the majority of teachers feeling that following their teacher education programs, they were ill-prepared to take on the challenges of teaching students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds. Therefore, now more than ever, it is critical for teachers and other educators to examine the effectiveness of traditional teaching methods and strategies with nontraditional student populations—and to work toward providing greater opportunities for creating positive learning environments for culturally diverse groups of students. This calls for the development of culturally responsive teachers.

Culturally Responsive Teachers

Being culturally responsive as a teacher consists of many things. A key component and first step is realizing that as humans we are all cultural beings. We are all affected by cultural influences from the time of birth, evident not just through obvious differences in birthing rituals, foods, and holiday traditions but also through not-so-obvious differences in parenting practices, language forms, ways of problem solving, and value systems. Realizing we are all cultural beings is, then, no easy task; it requires stepping back and noticing what goes unnoticed, not only about the behavior and thought processes of others but also about our own behavior and thought processes.

Teacher beliefs and attitudes about education and the teaching of culturally diverse students establish the culture and climate of the classroom. These fundamental beliefs guide the ways teachers interact with students, construct learning, and respond to student needs. In a culturally responsive classroom, teachers demonstrate a genuine desire to understand their students and the contextual influences that have an impact on their learning. They do so in order to identify ways to make connections from the text, connections that make learning culturally relevant and therefore meaningful to students. Teachers within culturally responsive schools also recognize that the influences of culture include, but also extend beyond, physical attributes such as race, ethnicity, or gender. They are aware of and attentive to the lenses through which students from culturally diverse

backgrounds perceive the world and education, and they must be willing to incorporate this awareness into instructional planning, classroom activities, and communication styles.

Adopting a multicultural approach requires that teachers be researchers, not only insightful about the impact of culture on their students but also self-reflective and aware of their own cultural beliefs and attitudes and how these influence their instruction. Continual reflection about cultural influences on one's teaching is important for teachers' effectiveness and especially important as they develop and refine multicultural knowledge about their students.

A good example of the teacher-as-researcher model for how teachers of diverse groups need to behave can be seen in Cynthia Ballenger's experience teaching Haitian children—where it took concerted effort on her part to notice and appreciate the language of how Haitian teachers speak to misbehaving children and how that language not only differs from the language of most North American teachers but also how effective and caring it is for the Haitian children themselves. Cultural responsiveness is, then, a process by which educators first reflect and inquire in order to notice, understand, and appreciate so as to be able to then create environments where students are engaged as learners through the practices that create culturally responsive curricula, instructional strategies, and interpersonal relations.

Culturally Responsive Practices

Schools and classrooms that are culturally responsive are attentive to the needs of all students and reflect efforts to introduce adaptations to the learning environment to meet students' unique needs. Culturally responsive classrooms are student-centered and focused on integrating the cultural needs of students into curriculum planning and instruction in order to create a comfortable classroom environment where students are meaningfully engaged. There are several culturally responsive practices that schools can implement to meet the needs of diverse student populations, including creating positive teacher–student relationships, curriculum that engages all students, and equitable assessment.

Positive Teacher–Student Relationships

The cultural background of most white, middle-class, American-born teachers can lead a teacher to make false assumptions about what it takes to develop positive teacher–student relationships with students from cultures different from their own. Prime examples are the students from cultures where respect for adults

is tied to an adult's power and direct approach to disciplining and controlling students (*"sit down," "stop talking,"* etc.). Teachers who know how to be effectively powerful by holding high expectations for students and insisting students meet these expectations have been aptly described as warm demanders. In subtle ways, they communicate in the demanding style that they care about their students and their students know it.

Developing positive teacher–student relationships also means avoiding making negative interpretations of what are essentially culturally sanctioned ways of behaving. For example, African American students may frequently speak while the teacher is speaking as a response to their feelings about the instructional topic. Without understanding the cultural undertones of such behaviors, teachers may perceive the behaviors as disruptive or rude. In culturally responsive classrooms, teachers will recognize that, instead, these behaviors indicate that students are in fact meaningfully engaged and expressing their agreement (or disagreement) with the topic at hand. In a similar vein, Asian students may smile or laugh when they are confused about instructional material or may be less verbal, even when they disagree with something said by a teacher, in order to avoid confrontation. Their smiling, laughing, and being quiet should not, then, be automatically construed negatively.

In the end, the students themselves want what everyone one wants from a relationship, namely, to be understood and cared about. Cultivating positive teacher–student relationships in culturally diverse classrooms must, then, require teachers to demonstrate understanding and caring for students.

The Classroom Environment

The classroom physical-visual environment goes a long way toward establishing the classroom climate for students—whether it is culture-friendly or not. For example, a classroom shows it is culturally friendly often by having visuals posted around the classroom—visuals that are nondiscriminatory and respectful toward all students, promote inclusiveness, and are representative of the students' cultural backgrounds. Doing so facilitates a classroom environment and culture where students from traditionally marginalized minority cultures have what Geneva Gay has called a voice.

Multicultural learning environments encourage collaboration—among students but also, in subtle ways, with teachers. To encourage collaboration among students, groups are structured in ways that allow for students from different backgrounds to work together. Within these environments, students feel comfortable to express their own cultural values, behaviors, and

beliefs in a safe environment and also learn from peers in meaningful ways.

Instruction

When developing a curriculum that is culturally responsive, the goal is to ensure that the materials are meaningful to students. For this to occur, teachers must consider previous efforts to keep students engaged that have been effective or ineffective (self-reflection), ways to make connections between the formal curriculum and learning objectives that are of interest to students, and ways to present a balanced and multidimensional view of instructional topics or issues. By making an effort to provide real-world examples and applications from the text, the learning process can seamlessly integrate both grade-level standards with individual experiences and cultural values from students.

Differentiated teaching within multicultural contexts includes such strategies as flexible grouping, making real-world connections, tiered assignments, and mini-lessons to build upon prior learning or experiences with new information. Further, classrooms that are culturally responsive also acknowledge how culture affects the ways that students approach education, learn, and attribute meaning to instructional material. In order to promote engagement among culturally diverse learners, instructional materials may expand beyond textbooks and include community newspaper articles, storytelling, small group projects, or other resources that promote student engagement by taking advantage of student strengths and preferred learning styles that result, in part, from cultural influences.

Assessment

Assessment is an integral part of the education process. Though we continue to explore additional ways to assess student learning such as through class projects or portfolio assessments, students from culturally diverse backgrounds continue to struggle most on traditional measures of assessment. Culturally responsive educational environments recognize that students from culturally different backgrounds may learn, integrate, and demonstrate an understanding of instructional material in different ways. In culturally responsive classrooms, students are provided opportunities to show their learning through various modalities such as presentations, projects, formal assessments, or other methods of evaluation. Just as students' instructional curricula and strategies are modified to meet students' diverse needs, the same is expected when assessing acquisition of instructional content.

Conclusion

Teachers in U.S. schools and classrooms have a growing responsibility to engage in culturally responsive practices in order to meet the educational demands of students from culturally different backgrounds. Reports from the U.S. Census Bureau continue to project that the number of students from culturally diverse backgrounds will continue to increase in the United States. Schools can no longer support using traditional teaching methods and strategies that have been effective with only traditional and homogenous student populations. Instead, schools and teachers are charged with the task of learning about and applying culturally responsive strategies in order to increase opportunities of success for students from a variety of backgrounds. This entails acknowledging that students are cultural and multicultural and that such influences have an impact on the ways they interact with and learn within the educational environment.

Teachers must also recognize that culture is not an attribute only of minority students or students of color. Culture and its influences are evident across geographic regions, communities, family practices and beliefs, education levels, and socioeconomic status. The ways culture influences students are displayed through student learning styles, attitudes about education, connections to their families and communities, and communication styles.

A number of multicultural strategies can be applied in the school setting in order to facilitate a culturally responsive environment for all students. By integrating strategies in the areas discussed, teachers can create more equitable classrooms where students from different cultural backgrounds are able to experience academic success. Becoming culturally responsive is an ongoing process that requires continuous self-reflection and intentional thought to ensure that as students change, so too the instructional curricula and strategies for managing classroom environments—all to meet the needs of diverse groups of students.

Tamika P. La Salle

See also African American Styles of Teaching and Disciplining; Asian American Students; Cogenerative Dialogue and Urban Classrooms; Culturally Pluralistic Classrooms; Haitian Students; Linguistic Diversity and Classroom Management; Power and Classroom Management; Teaching as Researching; Urban Schools; Warm Demanders

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CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE CLASSROOMS FOR AFRICAN AMERICAN STUDENTS

Culturally responsive pedagogy places variables such as ethnicity, race, gender, social class, and language at the center of the teaching and learning process. As more students from diverse ethnic, cultural, and social backgrounds enter public schools, teachers must provide an enriching learning environment that encourages academic equality and achievement. Such a learning environment would acknowledge the importance of integrating cultural and personal experiences that students bring with them to the classroom. Gaining students' cooperation involves establishing a classroom atmosphere in which teachers are aware of and address students' cultural and ethnic differences as well as their social, emotional, and cognitive needs.

Characteristics of African American Students

Poverty, bias, and urbanization often shape the lives of African American students. African American students are more likely to face problems related to economic adversity. Such adversity can hinder learning and put students at a greater risk of having problems at school. Often, urban centers are attributed to the poverty of African Americans and many times contribute to low achievement, underachievement, underemployment, divorce, health problems, and teen pregnancy. Also, poverty is a catalyst for these hardships and adds to the social conditions that negatively impact African Americans.

Given these considerable challenges, sometimes African American students are ridiculed by their own peers for believing they will receive rewards for embracing the white system of beliefs in education. There is a prevalent belief that discrimination inhibits their progress in school regardless of effort, and acceptance seems unattainable because of their economic status. Attention is then diverted from academics by acting out, pursuing an athletic agenda, or developing inappropriate companions.

Many times, the family is at the center of the African American child's existence and offers support. African American children have adaptive, extended, and variable family structures, and therefore family roles are flexible. In some homes the biological father is not present; however, children generally have uncles, male cousins, and other men in the community. Also, grandparents play a crucial role in the maintenance of the African American family, and they usually step in when the mother and father cannot fulfill their roles. Older siblings, especially females, have to assist in the family, which often places considerable strain on them.

Culturally Responsive Teaching

In today's schools, teachers are faced with the challenge of utilizing various culturally responsive strategies to help prepare students for academic success in order to help them develop the skills necessary to interact and succeed within a culturally pluralistic society. As more African American students enter public schools, teachers must provide an enriching learning environment that encourages academic equality and achievement. An encouraging learning environment would acknowledge the importance of integrating cultural and personal experiences that students bring to the classroom. The promise of effective infusion of culturally responsive instruction within classrooms provides students with diverse experiences and greater chances for academic success.

African American students need instruction that acknowledges the legitimacy of their cultural heritage as worthy content to be infused into the formal curriculum. The connection is meaningful if home and school experiences are associated with academics, using a wide variety of instructional strategies that are connected to different learning styles. Given such instruction, students become familiar with and value their own cultural heritages, especially when those heritages are integrated with varied resources and materials in all the subjects and skills routinely taught in school.

Lisa Delpit, an eminent scholar and expert on urban education, has long argued for educators attaining knowledge about the cultures of the students they teach. If they do not have some knowledge of their students' lives outside of paper-and-pencil work, she believes that they cannot accurately know their students' strengths and weaknesses. As teachers gain an understanding of the students' culture, they can incorporate learning styles and prior knowledge into the curriculum.

Ana Maria Villegas and Tamara Lucas, also scholars of urban education, encourage instruction that matches the styles of diverse children—by weaving together several *strands* or qualities of good teaching so as to perform successfully in diverse classrooms. The first strand,

sociocultural consciousness, means understanding that one's way of thinking, behaving, and being are influenced by race, ethnicity, social class, and language. The next strand, *an affirming attitude toward students from culturally diverse backgrounds*, describes as a significant impact a belief in self and overall academic performance. The strand, *commitment and skills to act as agents of change*, emphasizes teaching the prospective teacher about the change process, obstacles to change, and skills for collaboration. The *constructivist view of learning* contends that all students are capable of learning and teachers must provide a connection between what they already know through their experiences. The next strand, *learning about students' past experiences, home, and community culture*, will help build relationships and the teacher's use of these experiences in the context of teaching and learning. The last strand, *culturally responsive teaching practices*, emphasizes that teachers not only know their students well, they also use what they know about their students to give them access to learning. The integration of culturally responsive teaching asks teachers to keep the mandatory standards-based curriculum, but integrate the traditional curriculum with materials relevant to students' lives.

Examples of Culturally Responsive Teaching

A teacher in an urban school describes an example of infusing culturally diverse material into the English curriculum. English teachers can use a variety of methods to teach concepts. For example, by using a sports example the teacher strengthens the concept of using similes and metaphors: "Kobe (referring to the star basketball player, Kobe Bryant) flies like an eagle to the basket, and the crowd is frozen in anticipation." It is also possible to use hip hop lyrics to teach literary elements, such as theme and tone. Many lyrics easily lend themselves to interesting and engaging lessons on mood and character analysis.

Once the teacher motivates the student and *hooks* their attention, a relevant example can be incorporated into the standard textbook. Teachers can often find multiple opportunities to connect a theme, even in Shakespeare, like jealousy and greed. For example, the plight of Romeo and Juliet, caught in the conflict between the Montague and Capulet families, is similar to that of two lovers or friends that belong to rival gangs. Examples that build on experiences and familiar situations usually get the attention of students in urban environments.

Teacher Communication and Responsibility

Most students benefit from a personal connection with their teacher. The willingness and ability of an

educator to genuinely touch a student's social and emotional being can have a profound impact. Dave Brown highlights in his literature on African Americans that students in urban environments have a greater need than suburban students to develop close relationships with teachers.

Positive relationships with teachers have an encouraging effect and help to offset or negate the struggles in the urban environment. Most teachers lack the knowledge and experiences needed to form these relationships with African American students and will need preparation to better use materials and instructional strategies that infuse culturally responsive instruction. It is also important for teachers to practice an attitude of care with African American students and their families while delivering meaningful instruction.

The most effective ways for teachers to make connections is to ask questions, talk with parents and community members, and read and study books related to culture. Additionally, cultural information can be acquired through home visits and by creating opportunities for students to share and celebrate their family traditions as an affirming and valuable experience. Positive communication between the teacher and the student is vital. For example, Gloria Ladson-Billings interviewed eighth-grade urban students to ascertain their likes and dislikes about teachers. In her interviews she found that students responded to positive and affirming verbal and nonverbal connections. Students said "She listens to us!" "She respects us!" "She lets us express our opinions!" "She looks us in the eye when she talks to us!" "She smiles at us!" "She speaks to us when she sees us in the hall or in the cafeteria!" to illustrate meaningful connections.

Geneva Gay describes a communication style that emphasizes African American culture: *Call and Response*. This method of communication illustrates a spontaneous verbal and nonverbal interaction between speaker and listener in which all of the statements (calls) are punctuated by expressions (responses) from the listener. A social interaction style such as this one is a typical expression in which African American students may frequently speak while the teacher is speaking. In actuality, it is a reaction to the teacher's comments. These comments, many times possibly perceived as rude, are really an acknowledgment or agreement about the teachers' comments or explanations. Teachers considered as culturally responsive react positively to the communication styles of African American students.

Culturally Responsive Classroom Management

Effective classroom management involves the use of research-based pedagogical processes, as well as the

ability to respond appropriately to the emotional, social, cultural, and cognitive needs of students. Therefore, classroom management must be personalized to fit the needs of the students. So how are educators of African American students able to manage behavior while being culturally responsive? A challenging aspect to managing student behavior is establishing an appropriate balance of power in a classroom. Teachers must maintain authority and yet provide students with some decision-making authority.

Teachers who work with African American students need to be assertive with students so as to establish an environment in which students honor teachers' authority while, at the same time, they (the students) feel respected. That is, the classroom environment should be a place in which expectations are clearly stated and inappropriate behaviors have consequences.

The system of Positive Behavior Supports works well with African American students. Positive Behavior Supports is a form of applied behavior analysis that uses a system to understand what maintains an individual's challenging behavior. The function of such behavior can be ascertained out of the recognition that it serves a *purpose* for the individual. Appropriate behaviors are taught, supported, and reinforced positively.

Social skills instruction is flexible enough to allow for culture and ethnicity to be addressed within the instruction. Social skills instruction, a preferable method for African American students, teaches students appropriate interpersonal communication skills, self-discipline, and problem solving skills, combining a number of strategies to prevent and replace problem behaviors, and increase social competence.

It is important to remember that teachers of African American students do well to respond with direct, assertive, implicit instruction. Their African American students respect authority that does not allow excuses for inappropriate behavior. Expectations should be clearly stated and inappropriate behavior should be addressed as soon as possible after the behavior occurs.

Final Thoughts and Caveats

When working with African American students academically and behaviorally, it is important for teachers to incorporate various cultural styles and strategies. Doing so builds a bridge from home to school that will increase success in school, especially in urban environments. Furthermore, and for students to succeed in school, it is paramount that teachers remember to connect the characteristics of African American students to academic and behavioral expectations, and that family is kept in the forefront when making connections. Furthermore, though students respond to positive attitudes, affirmations, and

culturally responsive pedagogy, teachers do well to instill in students a respect for teacher authority even as they show respect for students.

As teachers learn more about culturally responsive pedagogy, they will begin to understand that no matter what a student's environment outside of school, all students can learn if excellence is expected and if instruction is differentiated according to culture. Such understanding will lead to better teaching, especially when teachers weave together the separate strands making up culturally responsive instruction and when teachers use positive behaviors and affirmations for students each and every school day.

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See also African American Styles of Teaching and Disciplining; American Individualisms; Caring Approaches; Cultural Diversity; Culturally Pluralistic Classrooms; Institutional Racism; Socioeconomic Status; Urban Schools

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CURRICULUM AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

The most critical attributes of an effective classroom are a rich curriculum and an organized system of classroom management. Curriculum and classroom management are inextricably connected; for example, clear rules and expectations for appropriate behavior are necessary for learning, and simultaneously, engaging lessons improve student behavior. When classes are chaotic because of poor classroom management, instruction is negatively impacted regardless of the goodness of the curriculum, and when lessons are poorly planned or the curriculum

is poorly matched with age or abilities of the students, the best approaches to classroom management can suffer. Here, the focus is on curriculum's part in engaging students and ensuring the classroom becomes an excellent learning environment.

Though curriculum is central, adopting an engaging and creative curriculum presents an enormous challenge for today's teachers. As district and state mandates aimed at improving student achievement define and direct instruction, teachers are challenged to maintain autonomy in curriculum development. Teachers must follow rigorous learning standards while creating lessons that match the diverse abilities and learning styles of their students. The bar has been raised on academic performance even as students increasingly present with learning impediments related to social, emotional, and behavioral difficulties. Differentiated curriculum and instruction, along with a consistent classroom management structure, is essential for student success.

Defining Curriculum

In Latin, curriculum is a *path to run in small steps*. Curriculum in schools is the path to knowing, a plan for all teaching and learning. Lessons, activities, tests, equipment, materials, and homework all make up the curriculum. In early childhood programs, curriculum has a less academic meaning as educators focus on constructing an environment filled with opportunities for play, group singing and being read to, and simple projects tied directly to young children's interests, all providing young children with the tools for being ready for schooling and schoolwork later on. In elementary and second school programs, curriculum outlines what will be taught (content), how it will be taught (pedagogy or method), and how students will demonstrate what they have learned (assessment). Furthermore, in these years of schooling, curriculum is driven by standards, a set of benchmarks for achievement. Standards emphasize skills and proficiencies aimed for when instituting a curriculum; the curriculum itself details the topics of learning units, teaching strategies, materials to be used, and timeframe. The teachers' and schools' philosophy of education, the subjects and themes selected for instruction, and the amount of time devoted to them reflect not only the teachers' and schools' values and belief systems but also those of the greater community.

Traditionally, leaders in schools or school districts develop the overarching curriculum. They select *what* is to be taught, and teachers write the lesson plans and units. In the past, teachers had a tremendous amount of leeway in how they structured their classrooms and the manner in which instruction was implemented. With the advent of standards-based education and high-stakes

testing, teachers are now highly regulated with regard to their curriculum. Learning standards and mandated curriculum aim to guide teachers in delivering proven methods of instruction. They help to provide greater consistency between classrooms and schools.

Curriculum and Differentiated Instruction

Differentiated instruction customizes teaching and curriculum to meet students' varying abilities, interests, and learning styles. Most classrooms are heterogeneous; they are comprised of struggling, average, and gifted learners. Students differ in prior knowledge, skills, pacing, and English proficiency. They also differ in temperament and personality traits and in their motivation, perseverance, risk taking, and confidence. And they differ in the ways they show their intelligence.

Harvard University professor Howard Gardner used the term *multiple intelligences* to explain the distinct ways in which children show their intelligence. Students can be intelligent with language, in the way they reason logically, in the way they solve problems using numbers and math, in the way they are artistic such as being musical, in the way they use their bodies and show bodily kinesthetic intelligence, in the way they think spatially, and in the way they solve the many problems about interpersonal relations and gaining insight and knowing oneself. Teachers are most successful when they create learning experiences that tap into students' preferred ways of showing their intelligence.

Differentiated instruction involves adapting the content of the curriculum, the process in which instruction is delivered, and the way students' learning is evaluated. Differentiation does not require teachers to develop separate lesson plans for each student. Instead, one lesson or unit is modified to include additional challenges and additional scaffolding for students as needed. Teachers may differentiate by altering the pace of a lesson or the manner in which they teach it, for example, by providing manipulatives or hands-on experiences to make abstract concepts more concrete. Teachers create small instruction groups of students who are similar in their skill level, interests, or learning styles. Differentiation requires more planning time on the part of teachers and an understanding of its purpose and strategies.

Curriculum and Student Misbehavior

Students misbehave in school for a variety of reasons not having to do with curriculum but with their age. For example, some toddlers bite their peers because they are tired or lack the verbal skills to communicate their thoughts and feelings. Some third graders may tease their classmates when they realize that words can be

playful or hurtful. Some teenagers cut class when coerced by peers or when they discover there is no consequence. Children of all ages may act out in order to obtain the attention they need; others may do so because they have not yet internalized the rules for appropriate behavior.

Students may also misbehave as a response to curriculum and instruction that does not address their needs. They may act out when lessons are too difficult, too easy, too boring, too teacher-directed, or too long. For example, when circle time in preschool or kindergarten lasts for half an hour, a child may become antsy and lose focus on the teacher. That child might move excessively or talk to peers. Typically, teachers correct the child's actions without considering that the length of circle time was not *developmentally appropriate* and was actually the source of the behavior problem. Likewise, an older student who struggles academically might disrupt lessons that are too difficult—to distract from acknowledging his or her embarrassment over not understanding or simply to express the stress of not understanding. The onus is on teachers to examine the causes of students' misbehavior and if those causes have to do with the curriculum, to modify or differentiate their curriculum accordingly.

Curriculum Issues That Impact Behavior

Class Size

Although class size is not itself a component of curriculum, it deserves mention in a discussion of curriculum because it very much dictates matters having to do with curriculum. Furthermore, as school budgets become tighter, class sizes are increasing. Research indicates that larger classes have more behavior problems and less instructional time. Students have greater opportunities to distract and be distracted, and they receive less individual attention from their teacher. While teachers have no control over class size, they are responsible for the structure of their classroom and the methods they use to instruct.

An effective strategy for overcoming the negative effects of large class size is to create small groups for direct instruction and promote cooperative learning. Teachers can group students flexibly: for one lesson, students can be grouped by ability and other lessons by interest, learning profiles, or randomly. With small groups, while the teacher works with a small cluster of students, perhaps one third of the class or a group of six to eight students, the remainder of the class is engaged in meaningful independent and collaborative experiences. Creating quality, student-directed learning experiences requires comprehensive and thoughtful planning.

Instruction Style

In the past, teachers stood in the front of the classroom and spoke while their students sat at desks and listened, sometimes referred to as *chalk n' talk* or *frontal teaching*. This traditional type of instruction still encompasses most of the day in many contemporary classrooms, despite research suggesting it is ineffective for many students. Learning in a teacher-directed classroom is a passive experience; students' only opportunity to speak comes when the teacher asks a question or calls on them to participate. For many students, this passive experience and the accompanying physical and verbal inactivity lead to boredom and disengagement, and subsequently misbehavior. Students of all ages need hands-on experiences to become and remain engaged in lessons.

There is excessive teacher-directed instruction in early childhood classrooms as well, with students sitting for long periods on the floor instead of at desks. Young children are expected to be quiet and still while the teacher talks or reads aloud. Students' questions are not encouraged and passive listening is the primary skill being developed. Opportunities for play are minimal or nonexistent.

Master teachers limit the amount of teacher-directed instruction to mini-lessons: 5–10 minutes for younger students and 15–20 minutes with older students. Direct instruction is used to introduce new concepts, review and reinforce skills previously taught, and provide directions for the independent practice and cooperative learning portions of the lesson. For students, much of class time is spent in discussions, collaborating, and actively participating in problem solving and applications.

Organized Lessons

When lessons are not thoroughly planned and organized, they do not flow smoothly, and the result is increased student misbehavior. For example, when students have to wait while the teacher finds the handouts, students may start talking to peers, get out of their seats, and otherwise get *off-track*. Teachers also lose their students when they cannot clearly explain a concept or correctly answer a question that has been posed to students. All this and more can be avoided when lessons are planned and organized.

Curriculum That Engages

Student engagement is an integral part of classroom management. When students are immersed in their learning, they are more inclined to follow their teacher's directions, and off-task behavior is minimized. An

engaging curriculum helps to prevent discipline problems because students enjoy learning, are more persistent in their efforts, and take pride in the outcome. Engaging curriculum stimulates students' curiosity, encourages originality and individuality, and enables students to work cooperatively with peers.

Motivational research suggests that the most powerful way to improve students' on-task behavior is to provide engaging lessons and activities while building relationships with students. Rewards and punishments, which are ubiquitous in schools, do not help develop internal motivation. Students' intrinsic desire to learn flourishes when learning experiences are cognitively challenging and interesting. Internal motivation also develops when students feel respected and know their teacher cares about them.

Instructional Technology

Teachers who integrate technology into their curriculum find that students are more engaged and productive. Technology does not supersede good instruction, and it cannot mask weak instruction. Rather, it makes learning more exciting and appealing for students. For reluctant students, technology entices them to try, thus creating opportunities for growth and development.

Instructional technology takes many forms, including the use of interactive whiteboards. Replacing the traditional blackboard, interactive whiteboards enable teachers to insert audio, video, photos, graphics, and websites into their lessons. They can animate pictures, turn their handwriting into typed text, draw perfect shapes, and project students' work and 3D objects using a document camera. Students are invited to manipulate interactive whiteboards as well, providing them with multisensory, tactile experiences. Teachers can construct activities and games for whole-class lessons and also share them on students' individual computers and laptops for independent practice.

The Internet has an astronomical number of sources of text for student investigations and research. When websites are preselected by teachers, library media specialists, or instructional technology specialists, students can successfully and safely access information on any topic instantaneously. The Internet also has a plethora of skill-based games and activities called Web 2.0 tools. These free sites enable students to hone their skills in any content area and communicate through interactive online journals, poster boards, dioramas, and portfolios.

Blogging, video conferencing, and online surveying are other communication tools. Students can make inquiries and respond to others. These technologies facilitate collaboration with peers and enable students to connect with experts on any topic locally and globally. There are

also secure social media programs that provide web-based learning environments as an extension of the classroom. Teachers upload assignments, resources, and exams, thus building a green or paperless classroom.

Creating and editing video is readily available for students and teachers. This has paved the way for a new instructional strategy called *flipped learning*. In a flipped classroom, direct instruction is provided prior to class, usually on video. Teachers either record their own video lessons or utilize premade video lessons retrieved from the Internet. Students watch the lessons at home, replaying them as needed. This yields additional class time for teachers to support students individually and in small groups and for students to practice skills and apply concepts in problem-solving activities.

Learning Centers and Stations

Centers and stations enable students to move and do, which most students love. Learning centers and stations in elementary and secondary schools are modeled after the practice in early childhood education aimed to facilitate hands-on experiences and applications of concepts.

Learning centers consist of materials and activities designed to teach, reinforce, or extend students' knowledge, understanding, and skills. These sequential and cumulative learning experiences are differentiated (often at three levels of difficulty) to address the varying abilities of students in the class. Students complete only the work that is specifically targeted for them and may not visit every center. At learning centers, students can work at their own pace independently or in pairs. The materials and activities at learning centers correspond to the unit at hand, thus changing throughout the school year.

Learning stations differ from centers in that they are not differentiated. Every student participates in every station on a rotating basis. Typically, students are assigned to a group, and each group moves through the stations at designated time periods. As with learning centers, tasks at stations relate to those topics or skills being focused on in class at that time.

Classroom Conversations

One of the best ways to engage students in learning is to encourage their participation in verbal discourse. Students typically have few opportunities to speak during class. Most classrooms have some degree of whole-class discussions that are facilitated by the teacher. Classrooms are dominated by teacher verbalizations. Research suggests that teachers overwhelmingly pose the questions in class, and the majority of

students' verbalizations are merely responses to those questions. This direct questioning of students inadvertently decreases student talk and increases teacher talk. In true academic conversations, students are encouraged to challenge, disagree, delve deeper into a topic, make meaningful connections, and take ownership of conversations.

Literature circles or book talks are a great strategy for increasing and qualitatively altering students' verbal communication in classrooms. Students are assigned to small groups based on reading level or interest. Each student in a literature circle is assigned a specific role, such as summarizer, connector, artist, researcher, or wordsmith. In the literature circle, students facilitate discussions about the assigned text based on their role. Students who might otherwise not complete the required reading do so in order to participate in literature circle discussions. Literature circles can utilize non-fiction texts, thereby making them a viable activity on any topic in any classroom. When first modeled by a teacher, literature circles can be a successful engagement activity with students in all grades, K–12.

Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning experiences involve students working together and learning from each other. Activities include brainstorming, problem solving, researching, and peer reviews. When students are grouped thoughtfully, engagement in learning is increased. Students guide and support their partners, and learn to negotiate and compromise. Working in pairs or threes works best when students are asked to perform a unified task or reach consensus. Groups of four or more are only successful when each student is assigned a specific role or task. Teachers should purposefully mix-and-match groups to ensure that students have an opportunity to collaborate with a wide variety of classmates in different contexts.

Conclusion

Teachers can reduce misbehavior in their classrooms and increase support for learning by recognizing the reciprocal relationship between curriculum and classroom management. Implementing developmentally appropriate and engaging learning experiences motivates students and keeps them on-task. When students are encouraged to move, talk, collaborate, and use technology they are more focused on their classwork and less likely to act out. Giving students choices and enabling them to pursue their academic interests also helps to decrease behavior problems.

Teachers should reflect on their curriculum and instruction to determine if the level of difficulty, length, quality, and style of their lessons are optimal for their particular students. Additionally, they should consider how the setup of the physical environment enhances or inhibits student learning and subsequently their behavior. In sum, thoughtful curriculum planning proactively and positively impacts classroom management.

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See also Curriculum Compacting; Developmentally Appropriate Practice; Differentiated Instruction; Managing Classroom Discussions; Managing Groupwork; Motivating Students; Multisensory Instruction; Video-Aided Instruction

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Given that students learn at different rates and come to the classroom with different levels of understanding and mastery, one lesson or unit seldom meets the needs of all students. Therefore, it is necessary for teachers to determine the needs of individual students on an ongoing basis and differentiate instruction to meet those needs.

Curriculum compacting is one means of accomplishing this goal. Curriculum compacting has three overarching components: (1) pre-assessment to determine which students have early mastery, (2) ensuring mastery of all objectives for all students, and (3) offering alternatives for those with early mastery. A more detailed breakdown of the process can be seen in eight steps that fall within those three components:

Pre-assess:

1. Identify the objective(s) from the curriculum.
2. Find or develop pre-assessments that measure the objective(s).
3. Determine if everyone should be pre-assessed or just some students.
4. Administer the pre-assessment and record which objectives are mastered.

Ensure mastery:

5. Eliminate or minimize instructional time for those with preexisting mastery of an objective.
6. Streamline instruction for those who can learn more quickly but have not shown prior mastery.

Offer alternatives:

7. Provide alternatives for continued learning during the time that students have compacted out of regular instruction by demonstrating mastery.
8. Maintain records of both mastery and alternative options for students compacted out.

Pre-Assessment

Pre-assessment needs to be both efficient and effective. Objectives that lend themselves well to curriculum compacting are those that can be measured for mastery. Mathematical facts and processes, spelling, vocabulary, grammatical usage, and knowledge in the natural and social sciences lend themselves well to pre-assessment. Compacting can also be effective if a student has previously read the literature being studied. In this case, a teacher may choose to pre-assess only those students who have read the literature in order to minimize the time invested in assessing other students when there is no likelihood of prior mastery.

Pre-assessments should be seen as valid and reliable measures of mastery. If a student can correctly spell

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The goal of effective classroom management is to have every student actively engaged in appropriate learning.

and define a word that has not been introduced within the classroom, a pre-assessment may be a more valid measure of long-term mastery than a post-assessment administered after a week of instruction. For the purpose of curriculum compacting, the results of pre-assessments should be examined individually, not as a classroom. If one student has demonstrated prior mastery, compacting is an excellent management strategy for structuring that student's continued learning.

Pre-assessments frequently measure gaps in individual students' understanding even when there is a significant degree of early mastery. If a teacher determines that the student learns at a faster rate, those gaps may be filled more efficiently by having the student read from the text, discuss the objectives not yet mastered with another student or the teacher, or remain in the class when that objective is addressed. The goal is to attain complete mastery as efficiently as possible for all students.

Offering Alternatives

Offering alternatives for the time that the student has compacted out of the standard curriculum requires prior planning. Because the student has accomplished what he or she *must* accomplish, some degree of freedom can be employed in allowing the student to continue learning. Otherwise, students who are required to do work that is not engaging or puts them at risk will quickly learn to fail the pre-assessment and simply do work that they have already mastered. Therefore, choice is the key to providing alternatives for learning during the time compacted or *bought out*. Choices may be based on student interests and may or may not be related to the objectives or subject area already mastered, depending on the teacher's comfort level. The management of alternative activities may be provided through learning contracts, independent or small group investigations, learning centers, or mentoring. Student input into the activities increases ownership and motivation to complete the work and use the time effectively.

Grading

One of the controversies surrounding curriculum compacting involves grading. Experts do not agree about the basis for grading when a student demonstrates early mastery. Some educators advocate for accepting the grade of the pre-assessment as the recorded grade for the objective(s), arguing that mastery is mastery no matter when it is achieved. Others express concern that students will not be motivated to invest quality efforts in the alternative activities if no grade is given for them. Still others compromise by accepting the

pre-assessment grade as mastery as long as the student demonstrates effective use of the time compacted out, thus allowing the student to be challenged without the penalty of a grade.

Conclusion

Lifelong learning entails passions that motivate an individual to learn beyond what must be learned. The thrust of curriculum compacting is to feed and develop those passions in all students and allow those with time left after mastery to pursue their passions for learning within the instructional day.

Linda Pigott Robinson

See also Curriculum and Classroom Management; Gifted Students and Effective Classroom Practices; Learning Contracts; Management of Student Grouping; Motivating Students; Tiered Assignments; Underachievement and Culturally Different Students

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CYBERBULLYING

Until recently, bullying has referred to the physical and social kinds of bullying in face-to-face interactions between bullies and victims. Now, bullying has come to also refer to *cyberbullying*, or bullying making use of electronic technologies (e.g., emails, text messages, social networking websites, video sharing) to harass, threaten, embarrass, intimidate, or stalk another individual or group via text, pictures, or graphics. This

entry focuses on the legislation dictating how schools can respond to cyberbullying, on schoolwide efforts to respond to and restrict cyberbullying, and on the steps that can be taken within classrooms to prevent and respond to cyberbullying.

Cyberbullying Legislation

Cyberbullying is relatively new; however, legislation based on cases prior to the emergence of cyberbullying is being applied to incidents of cyberbullying. One foundational case being applied to off-campus incidents of cyberbullying is *Tinker v. Des Moines Independent Community School District* (1969), a case involving students protesting the Vietnam War that resulted in students being given First Amendment rights to free speech. From legislation enacted following this case, school officials today may respond to cyberbullying with formal discipline, but only when there is evidence of a *substantial interference* in the operation of the school or with students' right to be secure. This case has been used to balance students' rights to free speech with the need to maintain a safe learning environment within schools, or the common good for all.

For cyberbullying done on campus, the legislation is much clearer. Since the case of *Hazelwood School District v. Kuhlmeier* (1988), involving objections to the content of student-run school newspapers, schools have the right to restrict the use of school-owned and personal electronic devices while on school property. More recently, this standard has been applied to regulations pertaining to the use of devices on school property—both personal and school-owned.

Legislation will continue to evolve as technologies and their uses change over time. At present, schools have the right to restrict cyberbullying when it (1) disrupts or threatens to disrupt learning, (2) interferes with school discipline procedures, (3) uses school-owned devices or personal devices while on school property, or (4) threatens or infringes on the civil rights of students.

Systematic Approach to Cyberbullying

Cyberbullying extends beyond the classroom and calls for a schoolwide approach requiring rules, procedures, and guidelines to (1) assess the occurrence of cyberbullying among students, (2) develop policies for responding to and restricting cyberbullying, and (3) train staff in ways to address cyberbullying. Surveys provide one way to collect data to assess the prevalence of cyberbullying as well as a way to prepare for meaningful school policies and procedures for dealing with cyberbullying. Both surveys and policies depend first on schools clearly defining cyberbullying in terms of behaviors that are unacceptable.

Policies must define the penalties for engaging in cyberbullying, and they must be open to modification as new technologies and forms of cyberbullying emerge. Policies must also be developed to ensure that teachers and students become educated about what cyberbullying is, what the rules surrounding cyberbullying are, possible disciplinary actions by the school for those who engage in cyberbullying, and how students and teachers can and should report incidents of cyberbullying. Teachers also need to be trained so that they have the resources and ability to appropriately respond to cyberbullying. Finally, students should be educated in the ways they can, and should, play a vital role in preventing cyberbullying.

Implications of Cyberbullying for Classroom Management

While a clear, schoolwide approach to cyberbullying is essential, teachers must have their own policies and procedures for preventing and restricting cyberbullying within their own classrooms. One procedure is for teachers to have ongoing class discussions about cyberbullying, about school policies regarding cyberbullying, and about ways students can prevent and respond to cyberbullying. Cyberbullying curriculum may also be incorporated into lesson plans. In addition to engaging students in preventing cyberbullying, teachers should also teach Internet safety and netiquette with an emphasis on appropriate online behavior.

Researchers generally agree on four methods to combat cyberbullying: *stop, save, block, and tell*. Following these four methods means students targeted by cyberbullies should refrain from responding to cyberbullying and thus not escalate the situation. They should also save information so others can identify and take action against the cyberbullies. Students need to know how to report any incidents of cyberbullying, with some online websites allowing students to directly report incidents; however, students should also have trusted adults within the school in whom they can confide. Finally, any further electronic communication between cyberbullies and those targeted should be blocked.

It is also important to form partnerships with parents and the community. Most cyberbullying occurs outside of school—increasing the responsibility of parents to stay involved and monitor their child's online behavior and experience.

Conclusion

Cyberbullying has the potential to negatively impact the academic success of students. Because perpetrators do not see their victims, cyberbullying reduces the empathy individuals might have if they were face to face with their victims. Despite the fact that most cyberbullying

happens away from school, it deeply affects the lives of students while at school. Because students must face and work alongside one another at school, cyberbullying potentially makes school a hostile environment. Educators, then, have a responsibility to protect students from cyberbullying and educate all so as to prevent or stop cyberbullying.

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See also Bullying and Bullying Prevention; Proactive Classroom Management; Rules and Expectations

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D

DEAF STUDENTS

The continuum of hearing ranges from normal to mild, moderate, severe, and profound hearing loss. Audiologists, professionals who treat those with hearing loss, map results of a hearing evaluation for each ear on a chart called an *audiogram*. A hard-of-hearing person has a mild or moderate hearing loss and can usually benefit greatly from hearing aids; a person who is deaf has a severe or profound hearing loss, may not benefit as much from hearing aids, and relies on visual information from speech reading and/or sign language to communicate. However, many Deaf students (capitalizing Deaf when referring to persons, not to just hearing loss, is preferred within the Deaf community—to highlight the reality of persons with hearing loss often being members of a Deaf culture) are educated in inclusive settings where teachers do not know or are not fluent in sign language. This entry focuses on special considerations for creating a good learning environment for classroom management of Deaf students, such as optimal hearing, communication, comprehension, attention, and proper use of interpreters and note takers.

Most Deaf children have parents who hear normally and want their children to speak intelligibly. The parents may or may not be interested in learning sign language. Therefore, increasing numbers of Deaf children are receiving cochlear implants, which are small, complex, surgically inserted electronic devices that give the user a sense of sounds. With systematic aural rehabilitation, many children can learn to communicate orally by interpreting auditory signals the hearing aid or implant provides. Deaf parents are less likely to proceed with cochlear implant surgery for their Deaf child because the parents have the ability to communicate with their child in sign language right away and view being deaf

as being a member of a (proud) culture, not as being someone defined by their hearing loss.

Managing a classroom proactively can prevent frustration, which has been the cause of internalized behavior problems (directed toward the self, such as anxiety, withdrawal, inner suffering) or externalized behavior problems (directed outward, such as verbal or physical aggression, defiance, or delinquency). First, teachers must be sure that each student is hearing optimally each day, which means checking to see that the child is wearing a hearing aid or a cochlear implant and that batteries are working properly, as communication breakdowns could lead to frustration and possibly behavior problems. The school district's audiologist or a teacher of the Deaf can provide a battery tester, extra batteries, microphone/FM transmitter for the teacher to wear, and instructions.

Second, teachers must ensure that others in the class do not tease the student as this could lead to the student abandoning the use of speech or hearing aids, or getting upset. One suggestion is for teachers to read a story about a child with hearing aids/cochlear implant so they understand why the child needs them.

Next, it is crucial that the student understands what is said at school and that the teacher understands the student. Typically, Deaf students lag significantly behind their peers in comprehension and production of English because of delayed vocabulary and speech/language skills. Some students may have a second disability (such as a visual impairment, cerebral palsy, emotional/behavioral disorder, and/or an intellectual disability).

If a student uses American Sign Language (ASL) as his or her primary communication mode, a sign language interpreter should be in the classroom.

If parents are Deaf, teachers will need to use an interpreter when discussing school matters with them. Certified interpreters are preferable, and teachers can check with the interpreter to see if they need to rephrase

directions/comments so students will understand them. Some interpreters automatically rephrase while others sign exactly what is said. To check comprehension, teachers need to ask students to repeat what they understood the teacher saying. Interpreters are listed on the individualized education plan as a related service, with the frequency, duration, location, and projected dates of their service. Teachers need to remember that the interpreter is not responsible for managing student behavior; the teacher is. And they need to speak normally to the class and/or look directly at the Deaf student while the interpreter translates. Teachers should not look at the interpreter or ask the interpreter to tell the student something. When the student speaks or signs, the interpreter voices or translates so the teacher and classmates know what was said.

Teachers can consult the child's speech-language pathologist to see whether it is desirable or not to encourage use of the voice. And teachers must always remember it is vital to have the student's attention before proceeding. Typical ways to get Deaf students' attention are to flick lights on/off, tap their shoulder or desk, or wave in front of their face. Lastly, Deaf students tend to be visual learners, so teachers need to post classroom rules and write important things on the board (e.g., the order of the day's activities). Including visuals through use of Smartboard or Elmo technology, PowerPoint, and so on, will give Deaf students additional information. Teachers need to ensure videos include captions to help Deaf students understand the material and reduce frustration.

Teachers cannot assume that all students with a hearing loss are deaf or fluent in ASL. Most have only a mild or moderate hearing loss and speak fairly intelligibly. Many Deaf students now have cochlear implants and rely heavily on spoken English and speechreading (reading lips of the speaker). For these students, teachers need to face the student and wear a special transmitter.

Studies have shown that these students spend less time communicating with their parents. If their parents do not use sign language, they may not be able to communicate rules and expectations of behavior to their child. The teacher should actively teach social skills rather than assume they know what is expected.

If students are expected to take notes, they need to be provided notes from the teacher's PowerPoint presentation or given the assistance of a note taker to reduce frustration, avoid behavior problems, and increase learning; teachers can determine if assignments or tests need to be modified, adapted, or signed. Many Deaf students would lose track of what was said or signed every time they lowered their head to write notes. Teachers need to choose students who take good notes and make a copy of their notes for the Deaf student. Alternatively,

they can provide note takers with a pad of carbonless copy paper so that copies are made automatically.

Finally, if the teacher is confident the student hears optimally, is paying attention, understands the rules and consequences, and has been taught social skills, yet misbehaves, consequences should be applied just as for other students.

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See also American Sign Language; Inclusive Classrooms; Individualized Education Programs; Special Education Laws; Students With Hearing Impairments

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DEFINITIONS OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Often cited as an area of most concern for beginning teachers, classroom management can be confusing in part because of different ways that classroom management has been defined, and not knowing what classroom management should mean prevents the development of an approach that is both effective in general (for the short and long terms) and effective for a particular group of students a teacher is assigned to. This entry explores main differences in the ways the term *classroom management* has been used, what these differences imply for approaches to creating learning environments, and how to evaluate and choose between definitions.

Two Main Definitions

Historically, the main differences are between definitions that emphasize managing children and behaviors and those that emphasize managing classrooms in such

a way as to encourage children to manage themselves—by supporting their natural inclination to develop. This distinction is illustrated in the progressive education reform movement around the turn of the twentieth century.

Most educators in nineteenth-century American public schools subscribed to what was then called *habit training*—where the assumption was that if you get a child to behave and continue to insist on that child behaving well (e.g., doing homework, reading), those good behaviors will become habits—much like how a baseball player practices hitting a baseball correctly until *muscle memory* takes over and hitting becomes automatic. The nineteenth-century wisdom statement was “Sow an act, reap a habit; sow a habit, reap a character; sow a character, reap a destiny.” This was, then, a bottom-up approach (from behavior to living a meaningful productive life) and one that depended on teachers managing children and their behaviors. Teachers did not need to be rough on children, but if they were rough, it could be justified as insisting on good behaviors that would eventually become habits.

In contrast, progressive educators took a more child-centered approach, one that centered on children’s interests so as to better engage them, and so for educators classroom management came to mean managing classroom environments so as to engage children and make them want to manage themselves. John Dewey likened the ideal classroom to a baseball game—children love to play baseball and follow the rules of the game as a means to playing the game. According to Dewey, in an ideally managed classroom, the rules governing children’s behavior quickly become rules the children adopt—so as to get on with the game.

Variations on these two ways of defining classroom management can be seen in the sophisticated behaviorist approaches to classroom management and in the equally sophisticated alternatives that go by different names (constructivist, progressive, child-centered, developmental), but that all have in common an effort to organize classroom environments so that, from start to finish, children are engaged in inquiry, problem solving, and self-regulation. And, there have always been arguments from both sides that one definition is better than the other.

On the one side, often articulated best by professional behaviorists, are those that explain that the road to self-regulation is outside-in—that teachers must carefully design the antecedents and consequences of behavior so that children learn the skills they need to learn to function on their own.

On the other side, often articulated best by the intellectual offspring of Dewey, Jean Piaget, Lev Vygotsky, Lawrence Kohlberg, Jerome Bruner, and other

developmental psychologist-educators, are those that explain that self-regulation in beginning forms is there from the start—that one does not need to infuse self-regulation into a child but rather one needs to encourage or support its development. This is, then, a more inside-out approach in that the child is seen as being prone to learning and behaving well and needs only a supportive, interesting, and appropriately challenging environment—one that can include rewards and punishments, but one that does not privilege rewards and punishments or privilege immediate antecedents and consequences of behavior.

The battle between these two ways of defining has now taken on new meaning with the advent of inclusion of children with emotional and behavioral disabilities and with the advent of a focus on being culturally responsive, especially in culturally diverse classrooms. On the one hand, those defining classroom management in terms of managing behaviors and children point to a host of empirically based, effective interventions in classrooms where chaos was common and where good, scientific inquiry into the functions of children’s challenging behavior led to meeting both the children’s needs and those of the teacher for maintaining order.

On the other hand, what the behaviorally oriented have seen as managing to ensure much-needed orderliness and appropriate behavior, those defining classroom management in the second, more developmental, way have seen sacrificing too much as important to children developing into curious, creative learners and active citizens. Preserving order and instilling obedience (even by positive means) are limited values.

Today, as in previous eras, those advocating for one definition over the other see the two as essentially constituting a conflict duality. There is, however, a way to see these two as complementing each other—but only if they are seen as focusing on different kinds of problems and as being useful in their own ways.

For example, there is no question that a certain degree of order is necessary in any classroom and that it is always good to understand the immediate causes or functions of what any teacher might experience as misbehavior or at least as unwanted behavior. So, any teacher would want to learn from the professional behaviorist how best to inquire about functions of behavior, about how to determine what reinforces or increases a behavior in any given individual student or group of students, and what does the opposite. And even the most ardent constructivist/progressive educator can learn from the decades of studies showing effective methods for helping with all kinds of problems—from the mundane (e.g., getting children to line up for recess) to the extraordinary (e.g., fostering new skills in children with autism for communicating their wishes and needs).

And even the most ardent behaviorists can learn from decades of teaching experiments that have infused into classrooms new ways to support children figuring things out on their own, and new ways of tapping into children's love for fantasy worlds, and new ways to support children feeling cared for by their teachers so that they are more open to being reinforced and to being challenged by teachers who make high demands.

Conclusion

In sum, the distinction between the two ways of defining classroom management—one that emphasizes managing behaviors and children and one that emphasizes managing classrooms so as to support children's natural tendencies to develop—can be brought together to bring out the complexity in good classroom management—complexity that can be embraced and appreciated and dealt with in an effort to create good classroom communities and learning environments.

W. George Scarlett

See also Approaches to Classroom Management: Types; History of Classroom Management

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DEMOCRATIC MEETINGS

The concept of democracy, a cornerstone of U.S. social and cultural foundations, suggests freedom of expression, an acknowledgment of different perspectives, and a commitment to equitable governance. Ironically, schools, as purveyors of democratic socialization, frequently fail in their mission to model democratic ideals. As many observers have pointed out, schooling is beset by rules, regulations, and institutional behavior that frequently stifle creativity and motivation to learn and that reinforce compliance rather than the active citizenship one requires for a democracy to thrive. Dominant instructional practices such as lecture fail to provide spaces for students to engage in inquiry, discussion, and

other liberating forms of learning. As such, schools are often among the most undemocratic public institutions in the country. To help counteract this trend, teachers can incorporate democratic meetings as a means to provide learners with the freedom to learn and the supports needed for students to acquire the habits of mind characterizing active citizenry.

Democratic meetings are well-planned, instructional activities that encourage students to engage and respect multiple perspectives, take ownership of their learning, and model ideals necessary for a democracy. Rationalizing the importance of democratic learning, Diana Hess identifies two key purposes: teaching *with* and *for* democracy. The following sections highlight how establishing democratic meetings can be a useful instructional tool and a model for preparing students for democratic ways of living beyond the classroom.

Teaching With Democracy

Democratic meetings require all educational participants, students and teachers alike, to share in the instructional process. Unlike lecture and other rote instructional formats, democratic instruction requires students to assume an active role. An essential component of these meetings is appropriate use of discussion. Teachers who plan for discussion are more successful in eliciting dialogue and participation from students. Three models for encouraging discussion in democratic meetings are debate, deliberation, and seminar.

Debate

The most common form of democratic discussion, debate, allows students to argue polarizing issues from different perspectives. Though there are many types of debate (e.g., one-on-one, team, parliamentary), the purpose and educational goals are similar. Students research, defend, and argue a position. It is recommended that teachers assign students what position they will argue for and defend, so that the learners engage positions they may not naturally be inclined to support.

The strength of debate is that it encourages students to assume a perspective/role, defend a position, and argue against opposing viewpoints. This activity requires students to use critical thinking, engage in authentic learning of material, work together, and articulate a position. A caveat concerning this discussion model is that it frequently slides into an adversarial atmosphere that becomes more about winning an argument than recognizing and respecting multiple viewpoints. As such, debates, while instructionally appropriate, should not be students' sole exposure to democratic meetings.

Deliberation

Unlike debate, which emphasizes making an argument and defending a particular position, deliberation requires individuals to reach consensus (agreement) over an educational issue. Like debate, deliberation activities encourage perspective-taking. Unlike debate, the instructional goal is not to present a better argument, but to impel both sides to reach an agreement on an issue.

One of the most widely recognized models for deliberation, the structured academic controversy model, was developed by David Johnson and Roger Johnson. Using this model, students are assigned a perspective on a controversial educational issue. They are then required to find evidence to support their assigned position and then present their position to the other side(s). Rather than argue an opposite point of view, students listen and reinterpret opposing positions. At the end of the activity, students drop their assigned positions and roles and attempt to find common ground. This requires deliberating on the evidence at hand and making a decision agreed upon by all parties. Deliberation activities such as structured academic controversy require not only perspective taking but also active listening, tolerance of opinion, and mutual respect.

Seminar

Seminar, often referred to as Socratic seminar, engages students through their study of an enlightening text. Whereas debate and deliberation require students to weigh differing perspectives, seminar is typically a more holistic exercise. The teacher, as a facilitator, uses various questioning techniques (e.g., open-ended, factual, evaluative, interpretive) to help broaden the perspectives of the various participants. Seminars also break from the traditional teacher–student hierarchy. In this democratic meeting model, students can (and should) ask questions of each other. Ultimately, the goal is for students to take ownership of their discussion of the text and engage in meaningful dialogue without the direction or cajoling of a teacher.

Walter Parker, an expert on seminar development, notes that there is no opponent or opposing view in seminar. Rather, everyone shares in the task of better understanding a difficult yet essential educative text. In the end, the exercise promotes a shared exploration of a concept and encourages learners to be respectful of their peers' ideas and perspectives.

Ensuring Success in Developing Democratic Discussions

In each of these instructional models, discussion is not extemporaneous. Teachers create a climate of democratic

discussion that is well structured and purposeful. They also use appropriate questioning strategies. Ultimately, the goal of the teacher is to facilitate, not dominate, discussion. Teachers should avoid the common pitfall of monopolizing discussion time. Although providing appropriate support structures for discussion *beginners* is appropriate, as the class becomes more comfortable in their democratic environment, teachers should allow student voices to emerge as equal (or at least more equal) partners in the learning process. Making considerations regarding language use, choice of text, while providing developmentally appropriate guidance, students at all grade levels (elementary and secondary) can participate in democratic meetings.

Conclusion: Teaching for Democracy

When practitioners teach for democracy, they develop a classroom culture that necessitates respect and empathy while instilling motivation. Democratic meetings, beyond serving an instructional purpose, help to instill a classroom culture that promotes respect, student enfranchisement, and self-efficacy. Education theorist Alfie Kohn proposes that classroom communities provide students with authentic educational choice and avoid common pitfalls associated with classroom management such as apathy and student resistance. Enfranchising students to be equal (or at least partially equal) stakeholders in what and how they learn helps instill intrinsic motivation. It also encourages students to take responsibility over their own lives—a major component of democracy.

In explaining his theory of education, John Dewey suggests that schools mirror the democratic traditions idealized within our society. Students exposed to a classroom culture of openness, engagement, and democracy are more likely to develop into tolerant and civic-minded individuals. Such environments provide students the intellectual space to express themselves while expecting mutual respect from their classmates and teachers. The skills developed in democratic meetings are generative and transferrable across disciplines and grade levels. More importantly, perspective taking, active listening, critical thinking, and discussion techniques prepare students to be responsible and informed citizens.

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See also Community Approaches to Classroom Management; Democratic Practices in Classrooms and Schools; Just Community; Kohlberg, Lawrence

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DEMOCRATIC PRACTICES IN CLASSROOMS AND SCHOOLS

Successfully managing classrooms and schools democratically requires careful attention to two underlying principles of democracy: collective decision making and respect for diverse viewpoints. Numerous educators have enacted these principles by integrating the views of students, parents, and community members when structuring learning environments and designing classroom content and procedures. Such practices sometimes conflict with and are limited by broader institutional goals of efficiency and achievement, as efficiency and achievement are typically defined. Nonetheless, efforts to democratize educational practices can foster strong community and prepare young people to become active, engaged democratic citizens. This entry discusses the democratic management practices of teachers and school leaders, as well as the challenges and civic benefits of such work.

Democratic Classroom Management

Democratic classroom management involves instructional leadership that invites student input on a variety of classroom-level decisions. In democratically managed classrooms, the role of the teacher is to enable students to make choices and pursue their interests while also considering the *common good*. Such choices can involve issues such as curricular content, pedagogy, and classroom procedures.

When enacting such collective decisions, teachers can still be thoughtful instructional leaders—structuring productive learning opportunities, assessing students' progress, and making nuanced recommendations about classroom-level decisions. However, allowing for some meaningful democratic decision making can strengthen students' sense of belonging to a classroom community and ultimately support their academic motivation and civic engagement.

Democratic Leadership and Design of Classroom Processes

Various classroom procedures and processes can be managed or even designed democratically in cooperation with students. For example, to determine the rules

or routines that students (or a teacher) must follow, students can help to create a *classroom constitution*. Such documents should be collaboratively designed and voted upon through give-and-take among students and the teacher. They can address a variety of issues, such as academic honesty, technology use (e.g., mobile devices), project submission policies, seating arrangements, and other important procedural matters.

Designing these routines, norms, and ways of being a classroom community and at the beginning of a course or school year can help students to become invested in their classroom community. If new students join a class after classroom constitutions have been constructed, fellow students can orient these students to the agreed-upon routines, norms, and so on. The initial design of classroom constitutions often requires careful thought and attention but still might not address all pertinent issues. To enable further development of such documents—and to include students who join a class midsemester or mid-year—teachers can suggest methods for amending the constitution in case changes become desirable.

Likewise, ongoing classroom procedures and routines can regularly involve opportunities for student leadership and input. For example, a teacher can hang a clipboard (or create space on a whiteboard) where students may list issues or problems they would like to discuss, such as classroom recycling policies and how best to orient new students. In addition, for various classroom activities such as projects or discussions, students can be divided into working groups, with members having distinct roles. In these groups, students can serve on a rotating basis as group captains, accountants, or in other positions. Whereas captains are responsible for encouraging their fellow group members to participate in discussions, accountants help group members to keep records of their completion of assignments. There are many types of student roles in groups, and they may differ based on the task.

To provide opportunities to develop democratic leadership skills, students can assume leadership roles to facilitate their classmates' learning during regular class time or during out-of-school experiences. For instance, students can serve as discussion facilitators about issues that are logistical (e.g., schedule, homework deadlines) or conceptual (e.g., symbolism in the novel *To Kill a Mockingbird*). Similarly, on field trips students can lead discussions about museum exhibits they find interesting. Overall, through the process of making group decisions and assuming responsibilities for a group, students can contribute to and become more invested in the classroom community.

Democratic Selection of Content, Curricula, and Projects

In addition, teachers can manage their classrooms democratically by involving students in selecting academic

pursuits, including content, curricula, and project topics. Students tend to be more motivated to engage in activities they themselves have selected. Therefore, it is important to provide opportunities that allow students to select and explore topics they find interesting. This is particularly true for older or more advanced students who often have more developed preferences.

One method for involving students in selecting academic pursuits is to allocate time for students to pursue their interests independently or in small groups through, for example, research projects. Teachers can also periodically schedule flex time in which students explore recent media (e.g., magazines, articles, videos, books) related to the subject or topic of the class and then informally share what they have learned with their classmates. Such sharing can help to reestablish the classroom community.

When leading full-class instruction, there are also numerous ways to integrate student preferences into content selection. For example, at regular intervals, teachers can solicit or suggest potential topics for the class to explore, hold discussions or debates about the value of exploring each topic, and then ask students to vote for their favorites. If there are only a few potential topics, students can vote simply with their thumbs (up, down, or sideways). However, if there are numerous possibilities, it may be most helpful to create a point system for voting, in which students each have 10 points that they can distribute among 15 different topics—for example, giving 5 points to one topic, 3 to another, and 1 to several others. To maximize students' investment, it may be helpful, after a vote, for students whose ideas were not selected to have the opportunity to voice objections or, perhaps, acceptance of the class's choice.

Once broad topics have been selected, a teacher can continue to respond to students' input regarding content, even on a daily basis. For example, when a class is examining the Great Depression in the United States, the teacher might ask students which major issues they would like to examine most closely—social, economic, or political challenges (or another issue). If one group of students differs with the majority on the subtopic they find most interesting, the teacher could ask them to explore it independently and then present what they learn to the class. Procedurally, such preferences can be solicited through the review and discussion of the class agenda each day and at the beginning of class. To support students' conceptual learning amid democratic curriculum selection, teachers can emphasize essential questions and enduring understandings that relate to the class's overall purposes.

Democratic Selection of Instructional Practices and Assessment

Just as some content may be selected democratically, so too may instructional methods. Research indicates that

individuals often prefer to learn in different ways. Whereas certain students may enjoy learning about chemical reactions or famous writers by reading about them, others might prefer hearing lectures, viewing films, having discussions, or some other way of learning. Similarly, students might prefer to demonstrate their learning in different ways. Thus, to assess students' understanding, whether on individual or group work, some teachers provide various options, such as taking a test, completing a project, making a presentation, or creating a website.

For some teachers, it can be productive to directly ask students for open-ended feedback on their pedagogy. For example, educator Ira Shor invited his community college students to meet after class and provide feedback and suggestions regarding his teaching and how the class could better facilitate their own learning. In response he adjusted his practices and more effectively supported students' conceptual development. Providing opportunities for student input can facilitate their engagement in class activities, but in the process, teachers must also consider how to balance students' needs for motivation and engagement with the importance of supporting their development of vital skills and knowledge.

Democratic School Management

Whereas individual teachers may design and implement democratic classroom activities, managing an entire school democratically requires the participation of administrators, parents, and community members, as well as teachers and students. Schools are central community institutions, and certain organizational structures and arrangements during and after the school day can allow for broad input into important decisions.

One method of democratic school management involves building and sustaining mechanisms for the exchange of ideas among all interested parties. This could take many forms, such as youth-adult councils or school governance committees, and can address either a limited or a broad set of issues, such as discipline, curriculum, or even hiring. Within any such form of governance, participants can rotate serving in leadership capacities, such as holding office, setting meeting agendas, and leading discussions. At Marquette Middle School in Madison, Wisconsin, for example, the school's leadership committee, with representation of various constituencies within the school, was created to make recommendations to the principal on numerous issues, including professional development and improving the school climate.

Likewise, Milwaukee's La Escuela Fratney is governed by a council of parents and teachers, with equal representation of the two groups. The council collaborates to make decisions about homework policies, selecting the principal, parental involvement, and the

school budget. Subcommittees explore details related to the school building, fund-raising, and supporting new teachers. This school's management structure was established when a unique coalition of community members advocated for a new bilingual school that would include parent-teacher governance. Although such arrangements are somewhat unusual, they exist in numerous schools across the United States and the world and can be designed through community efforts.

In addition, there are many ways for students to become deeply involved in the governance of their schools. Most schools have student councils that include elected representatives from each grade level, and these groups can address a variety of issues, including school safety policies, cafeteria food options, class offerings, or other pertinent issues. For example, the student council at rural Illinois's Amboy High School created an anti-bullying program, raising money from private donors to support their efforts. In some schools, students also participate in setting academic standards, assessing their peers, and addressing interpersonal conflicts within a school. Several high schools in Oakland Unified School District (California), for example, include students in restorative justice programs that foster student-centered dispute resolution and prevention rather than adult-administered punishment.

Numerous districts have created opportunities for students to partner with adults to allocate resources and make policies. Boards of Education in California, Maryland, Michigan, Florida, and other states have student representatives, and the Chicago-based Education Council comprises 15 high school students who conduct research and provide recommendations to the city's school managers. Thus, in communities across the United States, there are many ways that students as well as teachers, parents, and community members have participated in the management of their schools.

Affordances for Fostering Democratic Skills and Attitudes

Whereas many of the experiences described above can foster students' and adults' engagement in schools, many of these activities are helpful for the development of democratic skills and attitudes that are useful well beyond educational institutions. For example, thoughtfully deliberating controversial issues is vital for some of the classroom and school-based activities described above, as well as for participating in civic affairs. Researchers have found that discussing public issues can strengthen both political interest and political efficacy, two strong predictors of political participation.

Leaders in educational policy have begun to recognize the importance of youth discussing controversial

issues. The Common Core State Standards emphasize speaking and listening skills, stressing that students should "work with peers to promote civil, democratic discussions and decision-making; . . . respond thoughtfully to diverse perspectives; [and] synthesize comments, claims, and evidence made on all sides of an issue" (p. 50). More recently, a consortium of civic education scholars suggested that discussion of current and controversial issues is one of the central pedagogies for fostering youth civic engagement.

There are various models for leading discussions of controversial issues, including structured academic controversy models and the town hall model. All of these models typically involve a generative question, such as "Should our state eliminate capital punishment?" or "What is the best method to make elections more fair?" Using generative questions, students examine various perspectives on the issue and have multiple opportunities to ask questions and voice their own views.

In addition to fostering deliberation skills, providing students with opportunities to participate in collective decision making can help to foster their political efficacy (i.e., the belief that their action can influence political affairs). Researchers have found that political efficacy increases when youth have experiences that help decide class rules, when they become involved in school-wide decisions, and when they participate in various classroom decision-making processes.

Likewise, classroom projects that provide opportunities for civic engagement beyond the schoolhouse doors can foster political efficacy and an understanding of the challenges involved in civic action. Such projects may include efforts to support citizens' pro-environmental behaviors or increase government funding for school libraries, or other causes that students may consider important. Fifth-grade students in one economically impoverished Chicago school followed the Project Citizen curricular framework to research and advocate for improvements in their educational opportunities. In the process of guiding such civic engagement experiences, educators' creation of an open classroom climate in which students feel free to share their perspectives can also help to foster political efficacy.

Whereas some students come to school with strong expressive and receptive communication skills that have prepared them to engage in respectful exchanges, many students find it useful to practice these skills before engaging in potentially heated exchanges. Thus, explicit instruction on (and/or modeling of) acknowledging and summarizing an opposing perspective can prepare students to collectively create an open classroom climate and share ideas more fruitfully—in classrooms, schools, and broader civic entities.

Limitations and Caveats

Although many democratically oriented educators would like to integrate democratic management strategies into their classrooms and schools, opportunities to do so may be limited by various contextual factors. For example, certain states, districts, and schools strictly regulate course content, assessments, and other structural and curricular matters, and these regulations may limit the extent to which students, parents, teachers, or community members can influence educators' decisions about these issues. Although state standards often provide educators flexibility that could allow for democratic practices, pressurizing students to prepare for standardized tests can sideline such efforts.

Moreover, educators who aim to manage their classrooms or schools democratically do not always receive the support of parents, colleagues, or supervising administrators. For example, principals may object to teachers' employment of nonstandard pedagogy. Furthermore, students who are accustomed to direct instruction and more authoritarian arrangements may resist participating in activities that challenge them to articulate their perspectives and deliberate with peers over controversial issues. Thus, while there are many benefits to democratic management of classrooms and schools, the success of democratic management may vary according to the characteristics of the specific classroom, school, or community environment.

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See also Anti-Bias Education; Caring Approaches; Climate: School and Classroom; Collaborative Approach to Classroom Management; Democratic Meetings; Kohlberg, Lawrence

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DESISTS

A desist is any action taken by a teacher to stop students' off-task behavior or misbehavior in a timely and accurate manner. It can be verbal, as in a reprimand, or nonverbal, such as a glance or glare, or even proximal movement toward the off-task student.

The term was coined by educational psychologist Jacob Kounin from a series of seminal studies of classroom dynamics. In what he labeled an accident, Kounin wrote that while lecturing in a college-level course on mental hygiene he observed a student in the back row who was holding up and reading the newspaper. At that moment, he reprimanded the student, who then put the newspaper down. What he found more noticeable was the effect that his reprimand had on other students in his room; it appeared as if they believed the statement was intended for each of them as well. He described how the whispering subsided and the looks of daydreaming disappeared and how these other students refocused their eyes on their notes. In short, the verbal reprimand to one student rippled across the room and affected the other students who now appeared to be on-task. He labeled a specific reprimand to that one student a *desist*, and labeled what it caused in other students the *ripple effect*.

From that initial encounter with desists and ripple effects, Kounin and his colleagues began a series of experiments to study the degree to which a desist issued for a specific infraction had a ripple effect on other students in the room. They conducted experiments in other college classrooms, in kindergartens, and in secondary schools, which included analyses of videotapes and interviews with high school students. Across these studies, Kounin reported results regarding the characteristics and the effects of teachers' desists on students' classroom behavior.

Characteristics of Desists

A desist is known not only as verbal or nonverbal, but also for its qualities. For a desist to be effective, Kounin

and his colleagues found three essential features: clarity, firmness, and roughness.

Clarity

Clarity refers to a teacher behavior in which the name of the student who is misbehaving is specifically included in the desist. A clear desist also includes a brief statement of what the student is doing that is unacceptable, and at least why it is unacceptable or what the acceptable student behavior is. These task-focused desists, where the teacher describes the desirable behavior, tended to be most effective in returning students to their work.

Firmness

Firmness refers to how much the teacher means what he or she says. Kounin found that students easily perceived whether the teacher was serious about stopping the misbehavior. He also found that firmness was strengthened when the students knew the teacher would follow-through on the desist.

Roughness

Roughness refers to whether the teacher's desist expresses anger or impatience, either verbally or non-verbally, with the off-task student. Kounin found that rough desists increased the emotional discomfort of the observing students. As such, softer desists were more effective in not further disrupting the flow of instruction.

These three characteristics led to deeper investigations into how teachers manage their classroom. In further investigations, Kounin found that desists were part of a larger classroom dynamic, which included the degree to which the teacher managed the classroom with what he termed *smoothness*.

Importance of Smoothness

Through his studies, Kounin found that some teachers did not need to issue as many desists if their teaching strategies prevented off-task behavior and misbehavior from occurring at all. He found that teachers who did not issue many desists used other strategies that had the effect of minimizing student misbehavior. These related behaviors such as withitness, overlapping, group alerting, and movement management are considered under the broader concept of smoothness. That is, teachers who had convinced their students they were constantly and accurately attentive to what was happening in the classrooms tended to have well-managed classrooms,

using desists to focus on those students who lost their focus and drifted off-task. In short, smoothness of the lesson is the context in which desists are employed. If the lesson is well-managed and the teacher makes it easier for the students to follow its flow, the need for desists may be limited.

Conclusion

Kounin's work drew a connection between teachers' classroom management behaviors and their role in maximizing academically engaged time during class. He found that teachers controlled the flow and pace of their lessons. The lessons could be smooth, or they could be fragmented. If they were smooth, engagement was maintained better than if they were fragmented. Also, if they were smooth, desists did not disrupt the flow and pace of the lesson further. This was an important contribution to understanding classroom dynamics.

Since the time of Kounin's initial work, many education researchers have tied students' time-on-task behavior to their academic achievement. Accordingly, how the teacher monitors and manages student behavior indirectly influences student achievement, thereby making desists a useful teacher behavior for maintaining academic focus within good instructional management. In sum, if on-task behavior correlates positively with student achievement, and teachers can use the principles of Kounin's research to minimize off-task behavior, then teachers' classroom management abilities indirectly influence student academic performance.

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See also Ecological Approaches; Fostering Classroom Engagement; Kounin, Jacob; Off-Task Behavior

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normal school day. Detentions are usually held in a classroom under teacher or administrator supervision on weekday afternoons (after-school detention), during the students' lunch period (lunch detention), or during the weekend (Saturday school). Detention is considered a minor punishment, ranked in severity below suspension or expulsion, and may be administered in retribution for late or incomplete assignments, tardiness to class, dress code violations, or other minor behavioral offenses. Often, schools mandate that the student's parent or guardian be given 24 hours' notice before the scheduled detention in order to ensure that the student has transportation home.

A similar but distinct punishment is in-school suspension (ISS). ISS is a punishment more severe than detention, but less severe than out-of-school suspension. In ISS, as in out-of-school suspensions, students cannot participate in their normal classes or socialize with peers, but serve their suspension on the school grounds under supervision. While the exclusionary practices of out-of-school suspension and expulsion prohibit students from attending school, effectively shifting the weight of discipline to parents, detention and ISS keep students under the responsibility of teachers and administrators. Therefore, this entry conflates ISS with detention, treating them as one subject.

Application of Detention

Students in detention are often made to use the allotted time to complete schoolwork, whether it is their normal homework assignments for the day or the incomplete assignments for which they were assigned detention in the first place. Other times, students are required to read quietly, complete ungraded writing assignments or worksheets assigned specifically for the detention, or sit in complete silence. The adult supervising the detention may be the teacher who assigned the detention to the student or another teacher or staff member whose job is primarily to preside over detentions.

Efficacy of Detention

Detention is designed to preserve classroom order by being unenjoyable to the extent that the threat of further detentions will discourage the student from committing offenses in the future. However, some debate exists as to whether this is indeed the most effective way to improve classroom behavior. Detention is not an effective deterrent for some students, who actually may not mind staying after school with peers rather than going home to an empty house. And some students, especially those with more introverted temperaments, find a silent classroom with a teacher readily available

DETENTION

Detention is a disciplinary measure wherein students must remain in school for a period of time outside the

to provide homework help a preferred alternative to loud, busy lunch rooms or distraction-filled after-school settings.

Alternatives to Detention

Some critics claim that detention would be more effective if it were given structure and a basis in curriculum or programing. The creators of an alternative detention model, called the Restorative Justice Center, say the traditional, silent, and solitary detention is a retributive and penalizing approach that simply metes out punishment in the form of emotional pain. Restorative justice, on the other hand, is an approach that focuses on restoring harmony among individuals and bringing healing to the relationships that were damaged by the offense committed. The Restorative Justice Center model uses detention time to engage in constructive, discussion-based group activities to address problem behavior and come up with action plans to make retributions for offenses.

Other alternatives for silent detention include mentoring programs and peer mediation. Schools can also implement holistic programs, such as Schoolwide Positive Behavior Supports, to prevent problem behaviors and reduce the rates of disciplinary referrals in the first place.

Issues of Racial Justice in Detention

Because detention and other in-house disciplinary programs require staffing, they are more costly than the exclusionary strategies of out-of-school suspension and expulsion. Thus, some schools may unfairly favor the harsher exclusionary punishments over detention when choosing disciplinary actions for students—simply because the schools cannot afford the staffing required for supervised detentions. Harsher penalties may also be favored owing to the zero-tolerance policies many schools adhere to.

However, there is little reported data on this phenomenon; although statistics on the prevalence of and demographics within suspensions and expulsions are widely available, schools do not need to report comparable statistics on minor disciplinary measures such as detention. So, even though there is clear evidence of stark racial imbalances in suspension and expulsion rates, it cannot be assumed that the same imbalances exist in detentions when schools are passing over detention to favor harsher disciplinary actions. Research by Russel Skiba and colleagues shows that students who are black, Hispanic, male, or have disabilities tend disproportionately to receive disciplinary actions against them, receiving harsher punishments for the same offenses committed by white students. His study found that black, male students

were underrepresented in detention rates, whereas they were overrepresented in exclusionary discipline practices. Thus, it seems that minority students unfairly shoulder much of the burden of the underuse of detention when it occurs. However, more research specifically on detention is necessary before definitive conclusions can be drawn for this phenomenon.

Conclusion

Detention and ISS have the potential to offer students and schools benefits that exclusionary disciplinary practices cannot. If administrators are willing and able to allocate resources to structured, program-based, in-house disciplinary solutions such as detention and ISS, many of the negative effects of suspension and expulsion (e.g., academic setbacks from missing class time, dangers of being unsupervised and out of school) could potentially be avoided. However, further documentation and reporting of detention rates and practices is needed to illuminate the challenges and successes of both traditional and structured detention methods, especially to ensure that all disciplinary actions are taken fairly and justly, without regard for students' minority or majority status.

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See also Discipline Codes of Conduct; School Discipline; Suspension and Expulsion

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DEVELOPMENTAL APPROACHES

When managing classrooms, virtually every educator takes into account the age and stage of students. To a certain extent, therefore, virtually every educator adopts a developmental approach. However, this easy observation covers up the real questions developmental educators try to answer when figuring out what to do with students. The real questions are: “What exactly develops?” and “What exactly should we do to support development?” The minute we ask these questions, we realize that the answers are not clear.

Furthermore, once we figure out good methods for supporting children’s development, we seem to head in exactly the same direction as figuring out good methods to support children’s learning—rendering the concept of development useless. In other words, if we get into the practical implications for adopting a developmental approach, the approach itself seems to disappear.

Despite the unclarity and seeming irrelevance of the concept of development for adopting an approach to classroom management, there are good reasons for retaining the concept and using it to construct an approach to classroom management, one that is distinct from other approaches. The reasons are many, but three, in particular, stand out.

Reason One: Tying the Present to the Long Term

The first reason is that unlike other core concepts that drive classroom management (e.g., relationship building, skill development, positive reinforcement), the concept of development explicitly ties the present to our long-term goals for students (becoming active citizens, caring adults, creative life-long learners). In sum, at issue for developmental approaches is not simply whether students behave themselves within any given school year and not simply whether students learn what they are supposed to learn in any given grading period. At issue is whether students develop as *persons* and progress on all of the most important *developmental tasks*.

Developmental tasks are those that take years, not months or grading periods, to develop—and for many, even a lifetime may not be enough. You cannot, for example, sit a two-year-old down and say, “Listen carefully, I want to teach you the difference between real and pretend, how to think logically, and how to engage in collaborative relationships,” because those distinctions and processes take years to develop. Similarly, you cannot sit a 13-year-old down and say, “Listen carefully, I want to teach you how to have your own identity,

be comfortable and competent in intimate committed relationships, and have moral convictions based on universal principles.” Some things, especially the most important things, take time to develop. Of course, for children to progress on developmental tasks they need our support—but in supporting development, we know we must be patient in ways that differ from when we are patient while teaching for learning.

Reason Two: Supporting Qualitative Changes in Students

The second reason for making supporting development the aim of classroom management is that unlike the other core concepts, development focuses on supporting *qualitative changes* in students, especially qualitative changes that have to do with the way students organize themselves to master developmental tasks. This distinction between qualitative and quantitative is not clear-cut, but it is clear enough to be useful. We would, for example, be limited in describing age changes in students if all we could describe are quantitative changes, such as changes in height, size of working vocabulary, number of facts known about world geography, and so forth. We would not be so limited if we could add information about qualitative changes captured in distinctions such as between cooperative and collaborative peer relationships, conventional and postconventional morality, and ability to think about one relationship at a time only (preoperational thinking) and ability to think about multiple relationships simultaneously (operational thinking). Adopting a developmental approach means, then, helping students develop qualitatively different and more mature ways of being in the world.

Reason Three: Focusing Attention on Inner Processes

The third reason for making development the aim of classroom management is that doing so focuses attention on *inner processes* and supporting the development of inner processes, processes such as *decentering* (coming to understand perspectives other than one’s own), problem solving (discerning means to ends), and managing feelings (developing inner controls).

To support the development of inner processes, those adopting developmental approaches invariably adopt *constructivist* approaches to teaching as opposed to didactic (transmitting facts, teaching values, training to promote skills) approaches, not only with regard to academic subjects but also with regard to helping students become better friends and more responsible members of the classroom community. They do so because constructivist approaches focus on *processes* and not

just on achievements. The following is an example of a teacher taking a developmental approach with a disruptive boy in an after-school program for troubled children—by developing symbol-making processes to turn what others considered his problem behavior into organizing his thinking and managing his feelings in more mature ways. Here is teacher Seki's account:

One of D's favorite monsters is Godzilla, and he likes drawing it. When he draws Godzilla, he also draws people running away, their blood, and dead men. In the school program, children are not allowed to draw violence, battle, and blood. D understood that others did not like his drawing Godzilla, but because he enjoyed others' negative reactions to his Godzilla drawings, he drew them anyway—which sometimes earned him a time out.

However, after some thought, I decided to go in a different direction. I checked a website full of Godzilla pictures and Godzilla stories—to learn more about Godzilla and to practice drawing Godzilla. Then one day, when D was drawing Godzilla alone during art time, I went to his table and asked him what he was drawing.

D: "Godzilla"

T: "Um, it looks like Godzilla. But it seems that you forgot to draw a part on his face. Many people don't know it."

D: "Wait, wait . . ." After he thought for a while, he said, "nose?" and then he added the nose.

T: "Yes, that's right. But still, you forgot to draw another part." He became very serious while trying to remember Godzilla's face.

D: "Ears?"

T: "Yes, now you know."

He was glad to know that Godzilla has ears. I explained how Godzilla's ears look, and then he added the ears. He was satisfied with his Godzilla and started to draw fire and a battle scene.

T: "Your Godzilla is getting better. Do you know how Godzilla's body is? His skin?"

D: "I know! Like this?" and then he added the ragged skin on Godzilla's body.

T: "Now your Godzilla looks like a real Godzilla! Good job."

After this interaction, we had many opportunities to draw Godzilla. Now, when D draws Godzilla, he shows more maturity, the maturity of an artist. He doesn't dwell so much on people running away from Godzilla, nor on the blood, nor on trying to annoy others. Now he tries to capture the details of Godzilla—paying attention mostly to matters of shape and proportion.

The important lesson in this example is this: what may appear on the surface to be problem behaviors to be eliminated or punished (e.g., scaring others with sketchy drawings and enactments of Godzilla) can in reality be behaviors to be developed—and in their development, we see the development of inner processes (e.g., capacity to symbolize as an artist symbolizes and organizes thoughts and feelings rather than act out on thoughts and feelings) that help a child function better. There is, then, subtlety and power in developmental approaches.

Supporting Development on Developmental Tasks: Example of Moral Development

To illustrate what is meant by supporting development on developmental tasks, consider the example of moral development. Much has been written about moral development, moral education, and how both relate directly to classroom management since developing morally often leads to students not needing external control or management.

With regard to the moral development of individuals from a developmental perspective, the main point is that moral development occurs as a series of qualitative changes made possible by children and adolescents being actively engaged in solving the many everyday problems that raise issues about what is just (fair) and caring. To support students' moral development is, then, to support their being actively engaged in problem solving in situations with a moral dimension—and from preschool through high school, there is no end to the list of situations with a moral dimension.

Lawrence Kohlberg's work has given us stages that capture the qualitative changes in the development of students' moral judgments. In the first stage, of *preconventional morality*, children rely on what adults say is right and wrong or to the rules adults impose and that define right and wrong. That is, for children in a preconventional stage, morality is on the outside. Somewhat paradoxically, by giving adults the authority to determine right and wrong, children often do as they wish—until some adult steps in to control them—because they have no inner moral compass to control or guide themselves.

In the second stage, that of *conventional morality*, what is right and wrong is determined by rules and procedures that have been internalized by the child, as evidenced by the child's seeing rules and procedures as applicable to everyone, regardless of status and authority. At the conventional stage, then, morality is on the inside. To see how useful this idea of development occurring when rules and morality are put on the inside, consider the following observation of three children in a first-grade classroom.

A few years ago, while consulting for an early childhood special education program, I had the opportunity to join two boys and a girl for snack. The snack of the day was cookies, and the rule was no more than two cookies per child. As was my custom when I visited classrooms, I found a way to test the meaning of classroom rules for the children, by announcing I was going to break the rule and have three cookies.

The boy nearest me hardly looked up. His reaction to my breaking the rule suggested that, for him, rules came from the "outside" and were really no different from an adult telling children what to do. The second boy looked surprised and puzzled, but then with a shrug he seemed to be saying I could do whatever I wanted. His behavior suggested that for a moment, at least, he was poised between two worlds: the world where those in authority rule and the world where rules govern everyone, including those in authority. He was, then, only just beginning to make the shift to having morality be on the inside.

In contrast to the boys, the girl was visibly annoyed, and after a brief pause, she announced with some irritation, "No, you can only have two!" For her, my being an adult made no difference: a rule was a rule. Her morality was definitely on the inside.

This example illustrates what is meant by children putting morality on the inside, but it also illustrates the significance of doing so—because the informal test of what rules meant to the children perfectly discriminated who was having and making more trouble. The first boy (who was the reason for the consultant's visit) was a particularly uncooperative and disruptive boy; the second was occasionally disruptive, and the girl who owned the class rule (had put morality on the inside) was quite well behaved. This example illustrates, then,

that morality on the inside in the form of rules owned by the children themselves does a better job regulating behavior than does morality on the outside in the form of rules imposed by those in authority.

So, how does someone support children putting morality on the inside and developing morally? As mentioned above, developmentalists suggest adopting a constructivist model of teaching, one that gets students to actively problem-solve around issues pertaining to rules, justice, and caring. They also suggest that educators find acceptable ways to share control—especially through discussions at class meetings, discussions about what rules should govern the classroom.

Resolving Conflicts: Problem Solving and Perspective Taking

In helping to resolve conflicts between teachers and students and between students themselves, developmental approaches encourage students to problem-solve, coordinate agendas, and, when necessary, negotiate compromises. Here is one example of a teacher using a developmental approach to help resolve a conflict between three children and herself:

Stopping by the sand table, the kindergarten teacher calls out, "Time to clean up, it's circle time." Dana and Sylvie protest and dawdle. Rather than force them to clean up, the teacher asks, "What is the problem?" "If we put the lid on the sand table, our castle will be squished!" The teacher then asks, "Can you think of a way to clean up without squashing your castle?" After some thought, the children stacked up blocks to prop up the lid, then went happily to their meeting.

The teacher's response to the children was a way of helping them transition to the class meeting, but it was also a way to help them move (develop) from immature ways of responding to frustration (e.g., by whining, by refusing to cooperate) to more mature ways that use thinking to problem-solve. Again, a developmental approach supports the development of inner processes that take years, not days, to mature. That is, the teacher in this example will have to continue to support problem solving because problem solving is not something that children learn once and for all time.

Developing Controls From Within: Self-Control and Emotional Development

From a developmental perspective, providing support for the development of self-control requires an ongoing

balancing act and keen sensitivity to what a child or adolescent is *experiencing* (feeling and thinking). On the one hand, adults need to manage behavior and exert control over children and adolescents. On the other hand, they also need to guide children and provide space and opportunity for children and adolescents to manage their own behavior and exert control over themselves. We see this in Fritz Redl's insightful analysis of the child's experience of punishment—and how that experience determines whether punishment will work well or not. It is possible for punishment to lead to growth and development, but only with lots of guidance and support from an adult—guidance and support that addresses a child's experience and makes it possible for the child to act in more mature ways in the future.

Here is an example of how a teacher provided such support. The teacher had had to send her student, Dennis, out of the classroom after he had hit someone (for him, a punishment)—because that was the class rule. But before he departed, his teacher said the following:

Do you remember what we decided would happen if you hurt anyone?" He nodded and remained serious as I continued. "Now I have to call Mrs. Alexander because that's what we agreed to do if this happened. But this is your classroom, and this is where you belong. And we're right in the middle of math workshop. I know you really like it, and you're so good at that math computer game. And now you're going to have to miss your time there. I am very sad that you have to miss the rest of math workshop; I hope you calm down very quickly with Mrs. Alexander so that you don't miss anything else. This is where you belong." (Scarlett, 1998, p. 177)

The main point here is not about punishment but about how it is not always easy to provide developmental support. One has to be finely attuned to how a child or adolescent is feeling and thinking—and shape decisions, words, and actions accordingly, all with the long-term goal being that the child will eventually control himself.

Here is one further example of a teacher providing developmental support for children to control themselves. In this example, the teacher was about to use a hot-air popper to make popcorn. She knew that as soon as she turned the machine on, her preschoolers would reach and grab. So, to prevent them from doing so, she had them practice controlling themselves:

Teacher: Are we going to touch the machine?

Children: Nooo!

Teacher: Are we going to grab the popcorn as it comes out?

Children: Nooo!

Teacher: Look at your hands. (She holds out her own hands and the children do the same.) Tell them, "DON'T TOUCH!"

Children: (in unison) "DON'T TOUCH!"

When the moment came, no one touched—because the support given to the children was enough for them to control themselves.

Developmentally Appropriate Practice

So far we have discussed what is not so apparent about developmental approaches. There remains what was mentioned in the beginning about the need to adapt methods to the age and stage of students. What was not made clear is what adapting to age and stage entails. To clarify, then, we here examine the popular concept of *developmentally appropriate practice*.

When used appropriately, the concept developmentally appropriate practice helps teachers shape curriculum and choose management methods that are both age- and individually appropriate. The previous example of getting very young children to practice not touching popcorn is an example of what is meant by choosing a method appropriate for a particular age group. This method would not be appropriate for older children and adolescents who need not physically practice because they are more capable of using a teacher's verbal instructions to monitor their own behavior.

In short, when it comes to creating developmentally appropriate practice in behavior and classroom management, there are no prepackaged programs, no programs that will fit one age group and every student within an age group.

Conclusion

Here we have seen how adopting a developmental approach is lot subtler and more complex than many assume it to be. As mentioned, many assume a developmental approach means simply adapting management methods to the age and stage of a student—such as by using simplified directions for young children. This is indeed one meaning of taking a developmental approach, but as mentioned, there are other meanings as well. This discussion has tried to show that developmental educators think in terms of the long term, support qualitative changes by supporting progress on developmental tasks, and by supporting the development of inner processes such as perspective taking, reasoning, and controlling impulses.

Developmental approaches have a great deal of merit precisely because they link what we do for the short term with what we want children to become in the long term. In so doing, they demand from us not only a trust in the process of development but also a trust in children themselves, their natural inclinations to develop and respond to supports for development.

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See also Constructivist Approaches; Developmental Discipline; Developmentally Appropriate Practice; Kohlberg, Lawrence; Piaget, Jean; Redl, Fritz

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child to achievement outcomes, educators recognize that fostering appropriate social-emotional development through monitoring classroom behavior is paramount for long-term success in learning. Since the early nineteenth century, teachers in the United States have taken a variety of approaches to classroom management and discipline informed by the underlying political and philosophical currents of the period with the intent of educating children to become productive citizens. From the inception of public schooling, debates have occurred about the school's role in disciplining children and the most effective means of achieving order in the classroom. More recent research has addressed the role of school climate in student engagement, learning, and as a mechanism to prevent bullying and support positive community development.

Developmental discipline promotes the democratic practice of giving each child shared authority to negotiate conflict for the good of the classroom environment through encouragement of perspective taking, empathy building, and problem solving. In sharp contrast to more traditional approaches, and in line with a constructivist approach to discipline, teachers and students collaborate to help students internalize the values necessary for life-long development and for learning social-emotional skills.

Behavioral Approaches to Discipline

Most educators have moved away from implementing corporal punishment, which is currently banned in public schools in 31 states, in favor of more behavioral strategies, such as offering rewards for appropriate behavior and punishing undesirable behavior in the classroom. Several variations of behavioral approaches to discipline have emerged since the 1800s, but since the 1970s the predominant approach implemented in U.S. schools is grounded in Lee and Marlene Canter's assertive discipline. In its most distilled form, assertive discipline supports the use of reinforcement for desired or target behaviors and punishment for undesired behaviors; it has been shown to be simple to implement and effective for short-term issues. In this context, a reinforcer refers to anything that strengthens (increases) or maintains a behavior, and a punishment refers to anything that weakens (decreases) a behavior. In the current behaviorist context and in the move away from corporal and other harsh forms of discipline, punishment does not refer to physical punishment, such as spanking—nor to other obviously harsh forms of discipline. Rather, it refers simply to the *function* of weakening/decreasing a behavior.

Underlying the Canters' model of assertive discipline and most behaviorist models is the belief that students are self-centered and must be directed and controlled through extrinsic reinforcement and punishments

DEVELOPMENTAL DISCIPLINE

Although recent educational policy and legislation have shifted teachers' focus from the development of the

(negative consequences). The assertive discipline model, which promotes teacher-directed control of behavior to limit inappropriate behaviors, gained strong support from teachers in the 1970s and 1980s. However, because the solutions are situation-specific and require teacher control, some early childhood professionals have expressed concerns about the method's impact on children's long-term development.

Critics of assertive discipline argue that it does not instill in students a foundation for reflection and decision making regarding their own actions. Although assertive discipline and other behaviorist approaches can be efficient tools in managing behaviors, many teachers question whether these approaches provide opportunities for students' internal reflection and dialogue with others, critical experiences undergirding awareness of the function and consequences of one's behavior—which is essential for long-term positive development. Children may learn to stop a behavior or demonstrate desirable behaviors in order to achieve a reward or avoid a punishment, but they do not necessarily *understand* their own behavior, that of others, and what is needed to participate actively as a caring citizen in a classroom community. As children matriculate to secondary education settings, their teachers have more difficulty achieving the same results with behavioral techniques and, as a result, must retrain children to reflect on their actions and consequences. However, children who are given authority early on to settle their own conflicts through multiple teacher-guided strategies are able to achieve resolution in a variety of settings without the need for constant, consistent reinforcement and teacher intervention.

Developmental Discipline in the Classroom

Proponents of developmental discipline seek to help children gain a deeper understanding of their actions and the impact those actions may have on the greater classroom community. Teachers use the approach to develop young students into caring and active citizens in the school community so that they can make positive contributions later in the larger democratic community and culture; to that end, they construct their classrooms to support learning and development through discipline.

Developmental discipline promotes the use of indirect and proactive methods of control and should be viewed as a preventative, rather than reactive, method of classroom management. At the center of the developmental discipline approach is the belief that children want to succeed and that poor behavior is a result of making a mistake, of not having learned the appropriate response to a situation, or simply not having developed those inner processes (e.g., perspective taking) that help with problem solving in conflict situations. This provides an opportunity for teachers to scaffold or provide support and

assistance to children at different points in their development—to learn appropriate behaviors but also to acquire the habits of mind and tools for getting along with others that are valued by the larger, democratic culture. In social-emotional learning, teachers know the children well enough to understand where they are in their development and how to provide support to each individual child as well as the classroom to help them participate in the class community at their peak level.

Teachers recognize that conflicts will arise and, with some guidance and priming in conflict resolution skills, expect children to work out their own conflicts as they grow and mature. However, early on, children must be given power to negotiate their own conflicts. When early childhood educators rely on a less teacher-directed classroom and focus more on facilitating children's ability to participate in the democratic process, children are empowered to learn and internalize democratic approaches to conflict resolution.

Role of the Educator

For those educators passionate about developing caring, democratic classrooms and school communities, developmental discipline offers a framework for creating nurturing and orderly classroom environments that promote citizenship. For them, this approach frames discipline in positive terms, as a path for growth, learning, and development.

As educators have assumed the roles of parents during the school day, particularly in early childhood education, notions about the parents' role in development, discipline, and research in these areas have translated to inform how teachers can interact with students to promote development and learning. Parental discipline is strongly correlated with a child's moral and social-emotional development, making this research central to how teachers discipline students. Diane Baumrind's research—which outlines three types of parenting styles: (1) authoritative, a directive adult-led style of control, (2) authoritarian, which offers a balance of responsiveness and firmness to provide control, and (3) permissive, in which the parent does not exert direct control in most situations—has been highly influential in shaping the role of the teacher in the classroom setting. Recognizing that authoritative teaching styles are most effective for developing nurturing relationships and supporting social-emotional growth in the classrooms, this style has become a cornerstone for teachers who embrace developmental discipline.

Developmentally Appropriate Practice

The developmental discipline framework calls for teachers to be mindful of the child's developmental level and recognize that learning is a continuous process. To

implement developmental discipline successfully, teachers can use observation and parent report to get a deeper understanding of the child's developmental stage in order to meet the needs of the child at the individual level. As outlined by Carol Copple and Sue Bredekamp, developmentally appropriate practice encourages teachers to account for their student's developmental stage and tailor their instruction to provide learning opportunities suitable for the child's ability level. This framework does not prescribe a one-size-fits-all approach guided solely by a child's age range; rather it takes into account both the child's age and general expectations in that developmental age range as well as the individual child's ability and level. It does not support implementing one method of discipline or instruction to children in a classroom of similar-age peers without regard for the varying rates at which children mature.

Diversity and Discipline

In addition to considering the child's developmental age and maturity level, developmental discipline also requires taking into account how socioeconomic status, culture, ethnicity, and race may influence that child's response to discipline. Children may be accustomed to more authoritarian or permissive parenting styles, leading them to misunderstand the more authoritative styles associated with developmental discipline. Developmental discipline encourages teachers to customize their approaches to support children in developmentally appropriate as well as culturally appropriate ways, to ensure that expectations are clear while showing care and warmth. Family-school collaboration can be an important tool for better understanding of individual family cultures and community perspectives. In addition to observation, partnering with families to instill consistency for the child is key to the success of developmental discipline.

Investing in Citizenship and Community

When considering discipline in a positive way, as an opportunity for learning, teachers are more apt to implement developmentally appropriate practices and provide a variety of strategies to meet children's long-term needs for growth and development. Teachers may not immediately achieve the desired result of having each child conform to the social and behavioral expectations of the classroom, so educators must trust in the process. Developmental discipline requires patience and perseverance on the part of the professional; however, the ongoing practice of developmental discipline has the potential to yield powerful results for the child. Developmental discipline provides children with the tools and resources they will need as they mature and develop into conscientious citizens.

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See also Caring Approaches; Community Approaches to Classroom Management; Developmental Approaches; Developmentally Appropriate Practice; Kohlberg, Lawrence; Piaget, Jean; Vygotsky, Lev

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DEVELOPMENTALLY APPROPRIATE PRACTICE

Developmentally appropriate practice (DAP) is a way of teaching promoted by the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) to best promote young children's development and learning. It outlines best practices for decision making in the classroom based on child developmental principles, characteristics of the individual child, and social and cultural context. The NAEYC published its first position statement, edited by Sue Bredekamp, on DAP in 1986; it revised and republished its statement in 1996 and again in 2009. The revisions addressed concerns that DAP did not adequately take cultural differences into account, as well as make updates according to current research findings in the field of child development. However, critics of DAP say it still cannot adequately address all the needs of the diverse population of students in the United States.

Core Considerations for Developmentally Appropriate Decision Making

By framing teaching as decision making, DAP aims to provide guidelines that should inform decisions on all

levels of the educational process: the real-time decisions teachers make in the classroom while interacting with children, the decisions around curriculum design and selection, and the policy decisions that affect school districts, state education standards, and national laws and policies. DAP encourages all who are involved in education to make these decisions intentionally, by always taking into account the following three areas.

1. *Child development principles.* The NAEYC lists 12 principles, shaped by scientific evidence and widely accepted theories of development, which decision makers need to understand and use to inform their practices. For example, one principle is that development is the result of both biological maturation and experience; another principle states that secure attachments and positive peer relationships are necessary for optimal learning and development. DAP encourages educators to understand the theory and research behind the sequential trajectory of development that all children generally follow; with these in mind, teaching practices should be tailored to children of different ages and who are in different developmental stages.
2. *The individual child.* DAP notes that each individual child has unique needs. Children reach developmental milestones at different paces and have different temperaments and personal interests; these should influence how teachers go about supporting their learning and development.
3. *The social and cultural contexts in which the children live.* The final consideration for educators' decision making is children's unique cultural, linguistic, and racial backgrounds. For example, teachers must consider how to make children who are English language learners comfortable when coming to school for the first time, how to communicate with immigrant parents and respect child rearing practices that might differ from mainstream American methods, or take into account psychological and educational implications for a child whose race is the classroom minority.

Guidelines for Developmentally Appropriate Practice

In addition, DAP presents the following five guidelines as goals for how developmentally appropriate education should manifest itself in practice.

1. Creating a caring community of learners
2. Teaching to enhance development and learning

3. Planning curriculum to achieve important goals
4. Assessing children's development and learning
5. Establishing reciprocal relationships with families

These guidelines also argue that teachers cannot implement DAP standards without being properly supported by a system of policies and funding that reflects the principles of DAP. In order for teachers to create developmentally appropriate learning environments, policymakers must provide clear and fair curriculum standards, professional development and fair wages for teachers, program evaluation, and funding for educational institutions.

DAP in Historical Context

Throughout the history of education, there have been many important thinkers and educators who have recognized that children have unique needs and learning styles. In the early 1800s, German educator Friedrich Froebel coined the term *kindergarten* (children's garden) and argued for the role of child activity in learning. Maria Montessori's approach to early childhood education, with its emphasis on independence and children's individual courses of development, began spreading throughout the Western world in the early 1900s.

One of the most important and widespread changes in the field of developmental psychology as a whole, though, came with the cognitive revolution of the 1950s, especially through the work of Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget. Piaget, in contrast to his contemporaries, recognized that children's abilities emerge from both maturation and experience over the course of development. Piaget is known for identifying phenomena such as infants' lack of understanding of object permanence and young children's inability to understand conservation (i.e., that a quantity of a substance may remain the same despite changes in the container's shape or apparent size). By providing conclusive evidence that mental abilities of children are distinct from those of adults, Piaget's findings suggested that educators must take special care to meet children at their present intellectual stage, rather than pushing them to achieve the same things as older individuals.

Another important precursor to DAP was the work of psychologist David Elkind. In the 1980s, a psychometric philosophy of education prevailed. In the psychometric philosophy, the learner is seen as having easily measured, static amounts of abilities; knowledge is not constructed by the child in many complex and interweaving developmental processes, but effortlessly transferred from giver to receiver, a quantifiable item that is separable from the learning process itself. This approach, therefore, suggests that children should be

pushed up to the level of the curricula given to them, rather than modifying the curriculum to each child's unique developmental stage. Elkind, on the other hand, advocated for a developmental philosophy of education. Pointing out the flaws of the psychometric approach, he helped educators view the goal of teaching as supporting development rather than as making children learn as fast as possible.

Criticisms

One of the most common criticisms of DAP, both at the release of the NAEYC's original 1986 position statement and today, is that it treats the unique challenges of a diverse student population as a background issue, steering educators to see children as culture-free. Though the NAEYC's later revised statements heightened their emphasis on cultural context and concerns around diversity, some critics assert that the very child development theories on which DAP was founded are inherently ethnocentric. Critics like Bruce Mallory and Rebecca New, editors of *Diversity and Developmentally Appropriate Practices*, argue that DAP, as a concept created in a Western industrialized societal context, is insufficient as a framework from which to meet the needs of children whose racial, ethnic, or cultural background gives them challenges and disadvantages that have been historically and systematically entrenched in U.S. society.

Another critic challenges the idea of holding educators to universal standards at all. Sally Lubeck critiques the NAEYC's push to make DAP the standard, universally agreed-upon teaching methodology within the United States; she argues that diversity of viewpoints and ideas is valuable, and by establishing firm guidelines on what is developmentally appropriate or inappropriate, the NAEYC discourages critical discussions between practitioners and creativity and customization by teachers.

Conclusion

DAP, as promoted by the NAEYC, is a set of education best practices grounded in child development research findings to foster optimal development and learning in young children. DAP encourages educators to make intentional decisions, always keeping in mind the unique characteristics of children's developmental stages, personal characteristics, and cultural backgrounds. However, critics claim that DAP falls short of addressing the needs of the vastly diverse population of young children in the United States whom educators today sometimes struggle to support.

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See also Age and Classroom Management; Early Childhood Education and Classroom Management; Piaget, Jean; Play, Learning, and Classroom Management

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DIAGNOSTIC AND STATISTICAL MANUAL (DSM)

The *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fifth Edition* (DSM-5) is the current version of the diagnostic system published by the American Psychiatric Association, a professional body of physicians, but the influence of DSM extends far beyond any one group. The DSM has become a standard part of practice for virtually all mental health professionals in the United States.

DSM diagnoses are more than a short-hand communication tool among clinicians. A DSM-5 diagnosis and the corresponding codification in the International Classification of Diseases (ICD; the United States is currently using ICD-9-CM) is the key that may unlock reimbursement/coverage by insurance companies and other third-party carriers who fund much of the delivery of mental health services in the United States. DSM diagnoses are definitional elements for many proposals and grant applications in mental health research and are used by funding agencies to indicate research priorities.

Diagnoses also enter the popular press and the everyday language of people working to make sense of their lives and difficulties. And DSM diagnoses play a role, often unrecognized, in the literature on classroom management.

DSM categories influence the very questions that are asked in educational or human service professions: “What problems come up in classroom management?” “How are these problems recognized?” “How will we learn ways of better addressing the concerns we have for students who are not thriving?” Our understanding of problems will frame our attempts at solution, and in the area of child problem behavior, this understanding is often expressed using the language of DSM. Educators are often presented with information about the diagnostic status of the children in their classrooms (e.g., “The doctor says that my son has ADHD”). Individualized education plan documents often make reference to DSM diagnoses reported in physician reports or psychological evaluations. Thus, a basic understanding of what these statements mean, and do not mean, can be very helpful in classroom management planning.

Categorical Nature of DSM

DSM-5 is categorical—it defines groups and the criteria for group membership or exclusion. More specifically, it works to identify patterns of behavior that are of interest to mental health practitioners, and it establishes rules to determine if a child is displaying one of these patterns. Individual observations about a child or complaints of the child are considered points of data. (Observations by the professionals are *signs*, and reports by the child or parent or teacher are *symptoms*.) The recurrent appearance over time of signs and symptoms defines a *syndrome*, a pattern of actions and characteristics that co-vary together.

A syndrome that persists over time and has a negative impact on the child’s life is called a *disorder*. The major conceptual structure of DSM is a description of recognized mental disorders built with the elements of syndromes and symptoms. To a large extent, the diagnostic categories are presented from an atheoretical and purely empirical stance; that is, when making a diagnosis, no assumptions are usually made about the intrinsic nature or cause of children’s problems, no particular theory of human nature or psychopathology is endorsed. Well-documented risk and etiological factors are considered at times, but the emphasis is on clear descriptions of objective manifestations of cognitive, emotional, or behavior difficulties. Being atheoretical allows DSM diagnoses to be used by practitioners with a wide range of theoretical and clinical orientations toward counseling and therapy.

Not all problems that negatively affect children’s lives are seen in DSM as mental disorders. Adverse environmental circumstances, for example, would be seen as important but would not be viewed as a mental disorder. Mental disorders are defined as patterns of behavior

displayed by an individual. Within the DSM, problems such as abuse or neglect or poverty would be designated as “other conditions which may be the focus of clinical attention,” often informally referred to as V codes because many were codified beginning with the letter V in previous editions of DSM.

DSM does not classify children. Rather, it classifies patterns of problematic behavior children may experience or display. It is to the credit of the various working committees that produced DSM-5 (and several previous editions) that clients are never reduced to only their problems—there is never a reference, for instance, to autistic children but always to children who show autistic disorders. Unfortunately, this self-conscious effort on the part of the DSM committee members to avoid reducing individuals to their disabilities is often not mimicked in ordinary conversations outside the committee.

Another important aspect of the DSM is that only clinically significant problems are to be considered mental disorders. It is recognized that normal and successful childhoods are not trouble-free and without distress. Mental disorders are conceptualized as causing either a significant degree of personal distress and suffering for the child or major impairment in the child’s ability to function in his or her family, community, or school. For a behavior pattern to be considered a mental disorder, it must, then, matter in some important way in the child’s life. The determination of clinical significance usually reflects both the nature and frequency of problematic behavior, and some degree of clinical judgment is inevitably involved.

The operative principle in DSM is that the professional judgment of the clinician is pivotal in diagnostic decisions. Mental health diagnosis is viewed as a professional activity, and extensive education and training of the practitioner is assumed. One practical aspect of this stance is that disagreements of diagnosis between different professionals or changes of diagnoses over time for a given child would not necessarily be viewed in terms of who is right or wrong or whether the previous diagnosis was correct or incorrect. Diagnostic decisions are always based on the information available and from the perspective of the professional making the determination—diagnoses may and should change if new and different data become available for consideration.

The current DSM provides a highly flexible tool for describing problematic patterns of cognition, emotion, and behavior in youth and adults. The large number of diagnostic categories and the provision for residual case classifications for most major categories allow for a high degree of specification of abnormal behavior, but this also creates challenges in terms of complexity and reliability. There are continuing issues between specialists advocating the inclusion of new or more specific

diagnoses and other professionals arguing that distinctions are too fine-grained, and categories should be combined or deleted in subsequent editions. In sum, more categories may allow for greater specificity, but more categories increase the burden of greater complexity and risk for error.

One current manifestation of this ongoing debate is whether autistic disorder and Asperger's disorder should be combined into a single autistic spectrum disorder category—as they have been in DSM-5. Though the advocates for consolidation may appear to have won (DSM-5 groups Asperger's disorder within the autistic spectrum disorder group), that victory may prove temporary—with future research and debate leading to a reversion to separating the two.

Used in a professional way, DSM-5 allows a great deal of information about a child's difficulties to be captured and communicated efficiently. By considering a child's membership in a diagnostic group, we are able to access the ever-growing empirical literature concerning that diagnostic grouping. This provides information regarding not only the immediate problematic behaviors that brought the child to a clinician's attention but also the likely development course of this problem, what to expect in the future, and what empirically supported interventions have been demonstrated to benefit the youth.

DSM: A Range of Information

A full DSM-5 diagnosis, however, considers more than the immediate problems that brought the child to the attention of a clinician. DSM-5 continues a pattern of recognizing a wide range of information by way of its requiring information about more enduring aspects of the child (intellectual disability and personality trait information), the child's medical conditions that may affect adjustment, and environmental and psychosocial stressors relevant to coping. These kinds of information can be tremendously useful in determining classroom management needs and plans.

The core focus of DSM diagnoses is the identification of clinical disorders. Disorders are identified in terms of certain essential features that specify the general nature, the outline, of the type of problem being considered. Then, specific diagnostic categories are defined in terms of criterion sets, which indicate what symptoms need to be seen, in what number, for how long a duration for the specific diagnosis to be appropriately made. For most of the problem areas, a residual case classification is also available to capture atypical presentations that show the general features of a problem area but do not reach full criteria for inclusion in any of the specific diagnoses within that grouping. A great deal of

information is reviewed and summarized within the text of DSM regarding associated symptoms as well as the available data on familial patterns, course, prognosis, and differential diagnosis with other disorders that may be present similarly.

Concluding Remarks

As a diagnostic system for human cognitive, emotional, and behavior problems, the ultimate criterion for DSM is its utility: Can this system capture the most useful information about a child in a reliable way? A device or idea can be misused or used poorly, but that is on the responsibility of the user. Overall, the available research would suggest that DSM-5 can be used reliably. Beyond the basic requirement of demonstrated levels of acceptable reliability in clinical use is the question of validity. Does this system have the greatest validity we can achieve at this time to move our understanding forward?

An inherent limitation of the DSM formation is its categorical nature. The problems of youth are assigned (or not assigned) to diagnostic categories. Categorical classification approaches have one major advantage over the alternative, dimensional views of behavior, in that categorical placement allows for straightforward assignment of resources or treatment decisions. Dispositional decisions (“regular class or special education placement?” “treatment with CNS stimulant medication or not?”) are more challenging with dimensional classification schemes, and dimensional approaches to classification have their own difficulties.

This easy application to disposition is only a real advantage, of course, if the classifications are valid, meaningful distinctions that reflect real-world differences. Diagnostic patterns of behavior are not discrete entities in the world, like a broken arm or a strain of influenza. They are abstract generalizations made by human beings, but such generalizations can be very helpful in identifying relationships and effects in complex phenomena. All the same, one should remember that diagnostic categories are human creations and will someday probably be replaced by other conceptualizations as knowledge of the causes and mechanisms of behavioral adjustment and maladjustment advances.

An important limitation of DSM is that children with problems that just miss classification with a particular diagnosis, so-called subclinical cases, may be similar to the mildest cases in children with this classification—yet these *just missed* cases may not be eligible for services that would probably benefit the children. For some, perhaps for many, with cognitive (e.g., reading disabilities), emotional (e.g., eating disorders), and behavioral (e.g., ADHD) problems, the degree of severity may be much more important than the simple presence or absence of

a certain number of diagnostic symptoms. This is analogous to medical problems such as hypertension and obesity where categorical classifications such as normal versus abnormal lose too much information to serve us well. Problems of degree can be more easily considered in dimensional classification approaches. This is an issue that will continue to be grappled with in future editions of the DSM and more generally in efforts to understand the problems that can develop in the lives of children.

Alvin E. House

See also Assessment of Students; Autism Spectrum Disorder; Behavior Disorders; Conduct Disorder; Disabilities and Classroom Management; Individualized Education Programs; Intellectual Disabilities (Mental Retardation); Language Disorders; Learning Disabilities; Medication for Emotional and Behavioral Problems; Special Education Laws

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DIFFERENTIAL TREATMENT AND REINFORCEMENT

This entry defines, describes, and gives examples of differential treatment and differential reinforcement. *Differential* means to act differently toward some person, situation, or object than one does to another person, situation, or object. Differential treatment may refer to a systematic intervention to change behavior in one or more persons. It may simply mean that we act or respond differently to another person, perhaps not necessarily realizing that we do so.

Teachers may, for example, differentially treat young children according to their acquisition of and fluency with sight words, providing them more opportunities to respond and receive positive or corrective feedback if more opportunities are needed. Similarly, for a child who is withdrawn or who has inadequate social skills,

teachers may arrange for more socially skilled peers to initiate interactions with that child, so the child can observe others interacting and receive social feedback. Such deliberate differential treatments can help, in these examples, improve sight vocabulary or social skills. Some instances of differential treatment include the more technical differential reinforcement procedure to be described in the next section.

However, differential treatment can and does occur on a less intentional basis. Depending upon what differential treatment is used and how it is used, the outcomes may be negative rather than positive. Decades of research have shown that teachers sometimes differentially treat students on the basis of their race, ethnicity, gender, disability diagnosis, or past, rather than current, behavior. Racially or developmentally different students, for example, may receive more office discipline referrals and more severe discipline consequences. Similarly, teachers' instructional contacts, opportunities to respond, and feedback may differ depending on the students' and/or teacher's gender or students' grade level, sometimes adversely affecting student learning and behavior.

Differential reinforcement has a more technical, scientific meaning, referring to a specific type of procedure, one derived from psychologist B. F. Skinner's operant learning model. Reinforcement is a process and an outcome. The operation of reinforcement occurs when some event or stimulus occurs following a behavior, and its outcome is that the behavior increases. Whenever we use the term *reinforcement*, it refers to a situation in which a behavior is increased by its consequences.

Two other aspects of reinforcement, positive and negative, are considered only briefly here—because they are discussed more fully in other entries in this volume. Positive and negative refer not to the reinforcer's quality or perceived pleasantness/unpleasantness, but to how the reinforcement is conducted. In positive reinforcement, a consequence is *applied* after the behavior occurs, and the behavior increases. When a young child points to an out-of-reach toy on a shelf and the teacher gives him that toy, the teacher has applied receipt of the toy to the child's pointing behavior. If the child's pointing to out-of-reach toys increases, then his pointing has been positively reinforced.

Negative reinforcement involves *removing* something after a behavior occurs, and the behavior increases. A nonverbal boy with autism yells and screams when given his shoes to put on. The parent says, "Okay, you can go barefoot," and removes the shoes, not pressing her request that the child wear his shoes. Later, when the parent tries again to get the child to put his shoes on, the boy yells and screams, perhaps much louder, longer and quicker, until the parent removes the shoes. The child has been negatively reinforced for screaming—because

when he screams, the request to wear his shoes or the shoes themselves are removed and when again presented with his shoes, the child is more likely to scream again.

Differential Treatment, Differential Reinforcement, and Classroom Management

Differential treatment and differential reinforcement interventions are important because, depending upon how they are used, they can improve positive behavior or make inappropriate behavior worse. Teachers and other classroom personnel need to be aware that they may unintentionally treat children differently, possibly producing detrimental results. This may occur when a teacher avoids interacting with a student who presents learning or behavior problems, thus giving the student fewer opportunities to receive positive feedback or appropriate error correction. The reverse can also be true, as students with behavior problems often receive more attention (e.g., repeated instructions, reprimands) for their problem behavior and less positive support for their appropriate behaviors. These errors in differential treatment may be inadvertent; no one sets out to teach or manage behavior badly.

By the same token, if a teacher rearranges how he or she responds to student learning or behavior problems, both learning and behavior can be dramatically improved. Indeed, evidence-based differentiated instruction often improves not only learning but also behavior, such that more intensive behavior interventions may not be needed.

Overview of Differential Reinforcement

There are at least three basic differential reinforcement procedures to support positive classroom behavior change: (1) differential reinforcement of other behavior (DRO), (2) differential reinforcement of incompatible behavior (DRI), and (3) differential reinforcement of alternative behavior (DRA). In what follows, these three procedures are briefly defined and examples given of classroom application. Cautions and suggestions for their use are noted.

Recall that differential reinforcement means that something that is known or suspected of being reinforced is applied only after the student engages in behavior the teacher wishes to increase. In DRO the teacher provides the reinforcer only if the student does not engage in a specific problem behavior during a specified time interval. Reinforcement is dependent on the student omitting the problem behavior, so DRO is sometimes called omission training.

For example, during the math lesson, Ted makes disruptive noises (grunting, groaning), while peers are

engaged in the task. Knowing Ted's interest in football, the teacher arranges to have sports magazines in the classroom with stories about football games and players. The teacher tells Ted that during the math lesson she will be checking on him every so often. She tapes an index card to the corner of his desk with a small chart on it dividing math into 15 one-minute blocks. As long as Ted does not make any noises during an interval, the teacher puts a check mark in the 1-minute block, and if he has at least half of the blocks checked by the end of the math lesson, Ted gets 5 minutes of free time to read sports magazines. Over time the teacher gradually increases the number of 1-minute blocks Ted has to fill to earn free time (from 50% to 60% to 70% of the blocks). Ted may work on the math assignment, look around the room, or ask to go to the bathroom, but he earns a check only so long as he does not make disruptive noises.

DRI provides reinforcement only if the student engages in a behavior physically incompatible with the problem behavior (behavior to be reinforced and the problem behavior cannot physically occur together). In the previous example, the teacher could arrange for Ted to do the math problems orally, saying correct answers to math problems with a peer tutor or helper. When Ted says correct answers, the teacher (or peer tutor) awards him points on the reward card, again gradually increasing the number of check marks, requiring increasingly higher numbers of correct oral answers to receive free time to read sports magazines. Answering orally is physically incompatible with noise-making; the two cannot happen at the same time. If the check marks and backup reinforcer of reading sports magazines are effective, Ted's appropriate oral answers should increase and noise-making decrease because they are physically incompatible.

DRA is similar to DRI except the appropriate alternative behavior is not physically incompatible with the problem behavior. Returning to the Ted example, the teacher requires Ted to write answers to math problems. So long as he is writing answers when she checks on him, Ted earns check marks toward free time. It is entirely possible that Ted could simultaneously write math answers and still make inappropriate noises. However, over time Ted should come to associate writing answers and check marks/free time with a concurrent decrease in noise-making.

Other differential reinforcement procedures include *differential reinforcement of low rate* (DRL) and *differential reinforcement of high rate* (DRH). These two procedures produce opposite types of behavior outcomes but are similar in that they do not seek to eliminate a behavior but simply modify its rate to acceptable levels. In DRL, reinforcers are delivered to a student when his or her behavior occurs at a specific reduced rate.

Perhaps during baseline, Ted rushes through his math assignment, writing answers too quickly (e.g., one answer every 3 seconds) and producing incorrect, illegible answers. The teacher reinforces Ted with a check mark on his reward card if he writes answers at a rate of one every 15 seconds, reinforcing him for slowing down. In contrast, George may perform the same math task too slowly, writing answers only every 30 seconds and running out of time to complete the assignment. The teacher gives George a check mark on his reward card only if he produces an answer every 15 seconds, speeding up his work.

The same procedures can be used for behavior problems, such as when a student frequently interrupts a teacher with questions during a lecture. Not wanting to eliminate the student's inquisitiveness altogether, the teacher differentially reinforces a lower rate of question-asking (e.g., two or three questions during a math lecture).

Cautions and Issues in Using Differential Reinforcement

There are several issues or cautions in using differential reinforcement procedures. First, DRO is not a skill-building (constructive) intervention. DRO does not teach a specific appropriate replacement behavior; rather, it just reinforces absence of inappropriate behavior. Although DRO can be a very convenient, easily implemented technique, it is important at some point to begin teaching specific positive behavior skills. DRO may initially decrease high-rate inappropriate behaviors to a level at which sufficient classroom control exists to be able to teach positive skills.

Second, critical to DRO is determining the student's baseline *interresponse interval* (IRI), the average amount of time between each inappropriate behavior. Rosa is frequently out of her seat during baseline, an average of every 2 minutes in a 30-minute period. If the teacher only reinforces Rosa if she is in her seat for at least 5 minutes, given her baseline IRI (one out-of-seat every 2 minutes), then it is unlikely Rosa will ever get reinforced. A rule of thumb is, when using DRO, to compute the behavior's average IRI and then use half that rate as the initial reinforcement interval for omission of the behavior, increasing the likelihood of the student getting reinforced. In Rosa's case setting, the reinforcement interval at 1 minute (half of her 2-minute baseline IRI) would be appropriate. As Rosa's in-seat behavior increases, the reinforcement interval can be gradually increased from every minute to every 2 minutes, then 3 minutes, and so on.

Third, because all differential reinforcement procedures rely on reinforcement, one must employ

consequences that are actually reinforcing. Identifying effective reinforcers includes (1) asking the student what he or she would like to work for, (2) watching what a student frequently does, and (3) reinforcer sampling. If a student frequently interacts with peers or talks frequently about computer games, then a point system to earn peer interaction or computer game time is a possible reinforcer. Reinforcer sampling gives a student brief access to two different activities (reading books about dinosaurs or watching cartoon videos) at a time and seeing which one he or she chooses or spends the most time with. Relatedly, in any reinforcement intervention, it is wise to provide a student with a reinforcer menu (e.g., several different reinforcers) from which he or she can choose, preventing the student from getting tired of the same reinforcer each day (technically called *satiation*).

Fourth, as with any behavioral intervention, one needs a goal for the student to become less dependent on teacher-implemented, intensive differential reinforcement and become more self-controlled. To this end differential reinforcement procedures should be combined with effective self-management procedures such as self-recording, self-evaluation, self-reinforcement, and goal setting.

Finally, differential reinforcement is only as good as it is accurately practiced. Accurate, consistent implementation is called *treatment fidelity* or *procedural reliability*. Major components of differential reinforcement treatment fidelity include (1) observing and recording the student's problem behavior over several days to establish a baseline and determine IRI; (2) setting short- and long-term behavior objectives; (3) identifying effective reinforcers; (4) setting an initial reinforcement interval per baseline IRI; (5) periodically observing and recording student behavior as the differential reinforcement program is implemented; (6) evaluating intervention effectiveness based on the observed baseline and intervention behavior rates; and (7) regularly keeping a checklist of specific differential reinforcement intervention steps completed.

Conclusion

Differential treatment and differential reinforcement can provide powerful ways to help students thrive in classrooms. However, both can also do the opposite—cause harm to students, especially when performed without intention or inconsistently. The challenge, then, is to use differential treatment and differential reinforcement intentionally and for the purpose of supporting student learning and development.

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See also Applied Behavior Analysis; Behavior Support Plans; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; Reinforcement

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DIFFERENTIATED INSTRUCTION

The 50 million children who populate our nation's classrooms are diverse in every sense of the word. They come from hundreds of cultures, and many speak more than one language at home. Each and every one of them has unique personal interests, experiences, learning preferences, and variable levels of understanding. Despite this diversity, nearly all students in the United States are likely to encounter a standardized and stratified system of schooling and be taught by classroom teachers who gear curriculum, instruction, and assessment for groups of fourth graders or physics students. Differentiated instruction (DI)—where time, student grouping, modes of teaching, and other classroom elements are flexible—stands in stark contrast to a one-size-fits-all approach to teaching and learning.

DI is an organized yet flexible approach to teaching and learning in which teachers and students purposefully select and modify instructional and curricular *content*, *process*, *product*, and *environment* according to student *readiness*, *interests*, and *learning profiles* in order to maximize student learning. DI guides teacher decision making about the appropriate selection, integration, and implementation of curriculum and instruction, based on evidence about student understandings and assessment of student needs. DI is philosophically and structurally aligned with modern systems of classroom management such as Positive Behavior Intervention and Support and with systemic approaches to school-based social, emotional, academic, and behavior support such as response to intervention (RtI), in which three levels of schoolwide support (core, supplemental, and intense) are implemented along with the most effective instructional and behavioral practices in the classroom.

Differentiating According to Student Readiness, Interests, and Learning Profile

There is a great deal of research to support the notion that people are more apt to learn when they are working in their zone of proximal development—the cognitive space that exists between mild boredom and intense frustration. When students are engaged in tasks that are neither too easy nor too difficult, when what is asked of them is a close match to or just beyond their current skills, understandings, and preferences, they are more engaged and able to access opportunities to learn. There are three key domains, unique to each learner, that influence a student's zone of proximal development at any given time and that should be considered when differentiating instruction: readiness, interest, and learning profile.

Readiness has to do with a student's developmental and cognitive capacity to work with a specific idea or concept at a particular time. Readiness, or a child's entry point, is flexible and can vary in any lesson or unit of study at any time depending on the concept under study. Readiness does not refer to, and should not be confused with, a child's ability, which is commonly understood as static and unchanging over time. *Interest* has to do with a child's affinity, curiosity, or passion for a particular subject, skill, or task, and refers to a person's innate curiosity to engage in particular activities or topics. A student's *learning profile* is about how he or she learns best, which is shaped by a child's preferred style(s) of learning, personal talents, and cultural heritage.

Key Curricular Elements That Can Be Differentiated

In a differentiated classroom, the teacher will pre-assess and continually assess his or her students' readiness, interests, and learning profiles, and he or she will use that assessment to plan four key curricular elements. Specifically, the content, processes, products, and learning environments of schooling can be flexible, adjusted, and implemented in ways that enable each student to have a personalized connection to the curriculum so as to experience meaningful learning.

Differentiating the Content

Content refers to what teachers expect students to know, understand, and be able to do, and to the fundamental materials or mechanisms through which that learning is accomplished. The content of a unit of study consists of the facts, principles, and skills related to a particular subject. In a differentiated classroom, the key facts, core concepts, and essential material are clear and limited; students are not expected to demonstrate

understanding of more than a small portion of the enormous body of knowledge and information that exists for every subject area. Teachers must be adept at deciphering the difference between *essential* knowledge and skills and what knowledge and skills are just *worth being familiar with* (see Wiggins & McTighe, 1998). When teachers identify a limited body of knowledge, skills, and understandings—the essentials—the curriculum can become flexible and responsive to individual learners. Teachers can purposefully expose individual students to interesting but nonessential content as they gain access to and come to understand the core learning.

Teachers can differentiate content by using particular texts/manipulatives with some, but not all, learners, offering a choice in what to observe or read and by using a variety of media (such as online programs, written texts, simulations, and video/digital recordings) to convey key concepts to varied learners depending on student readiness, interest, and learning profile. When the essentials are clear and limited, there are an inordinate number of ways to vary the content of instruction in order to provide an individualized level of challenging and personalized learning experience for all students.

For example, in any given classroom, there is likely to be a continuum of student *readiness* for particular content and concepts. There may be students who are entirely unfamiliar with the lesson's intended learning objectives, those with partial understandings, and those with deep and accurate understandings. A one-size-fits-all approach to what gets taught and how it gets taught will undermine learning for most students. Therefore, teachers can differentiate the content of the curriculum by adjusting the degree of cognitive difficulty of an assignment to provide an individualized level of challenge according to readiness. For example, students who are unfamiliar with the lesson's concepts could complete tasks that ask them to engage with the understandings at level 1 of Webb's Depth of Knowledge (e.g., match, recall, repeat, state). Students with partial mastery could be asked to complete tasks in the second or third levels (e.g., compare, categorize, summarize, revise, critique), while students who have demonstrated mastery could carry out tasks in Webb's fourth level (e.g., analyze, create, prove, design).

Differentiating the Process

Process has to do with the key skills that enable students to make sense out of essential learning objectives. This aspect of differentiation provides students the opportunity to practice and develop their skills based on the method or approach that provides the right level of challenge. For example, to study a particular mathematical topic, some students may read about it; others may listen to someone talk about it; some may manipulate

objects, while others may do a combination of all three. Process is the means through which the learner comes to understand and make sense of the most essential concepts, facts, and skills of the content or subject being studied.

Teachers can greatly vary the activities in which individual students engage so as to enable them to make meaning of concepts and skills and to reach particular learning goals. The process or activity can include varying levels of difficulty or include a great degree of student choice to reflect individual interests. For instance, students could be encouraged to explore key concepts through a choice of competitive, cooperative, and independent processes and could include an array of kinesthetic, auditory, and visual activities in a learning environment with flexible physical spaces and arrangements based according to personal interest and/or learning profile.

Differentiating the Product

The product is what the student is expected to produce at the end of a lesson or unit of study through which his or her understanding and level of mastery is demonstrated. It is the vehicle to demonstrate learning, and vehicles can be customized and differentiated in unending ways. Products are intended to be used for diagnostic, formative, or summative assessment purposes and can include cooperative problem-solving projects, paper/pencil/online tests, reports (oral/lab), discussion participation, three-dimensional objects/diagrams, essays/poetry, simulations, multimedia presentations, and so on.

An effective and differentiated product causes individual students to consider what they have learned, to apply their knowledge and skills in creative and engaging ways, and to demonstrate what they have come to know in relation to core/essential understandings. For example, for a given set of standardized learning objectives in which students are expected to learn the same foundational content, students may be given the option to complete a particular product through which to demonstrate their level of mastery in their preferred learning style. Visually oriented learners may produce a storyboard or comic book; oral/verbal learners may deliver a radio address or webcast; learners who express themselves best through writing may produce a brochure or essay; kinesthetic learners may carry out a puppet show, pantomime, or play. Teachers can differentiate learning products by enabling students to choose from meaningful options in how they show what they know.

Learning Environment

DI is intended to help teachers make decisions in collaboration with their students about how to create a learning environment that is safe, engaging, structured,

and supportive for all. The learning environment includes the physical layout of the furniture and materials in a classroom, how space is used by teachers and students, organization and cleanliness, and overall climate and norms.

Teachers who differentiate the classroom environment will provide varied and flexible work areas to accommodate readiness, interest, and learning profiles. For instance, furniture and technology will be arranged so that both introverted and extroverted learners, as well as individuals and groups, have a place to work. Carol Ann Tomlinson, the recognized founder of and premier expert on DI, unequivocally states that classroom environment can either encourage or deter students to engage with academic content and to grow as learners.

DI enables the classroom environment to be one in which students feel respected for who they are, challenged at appropriate levels, and safe to take risks in support of their own learning and the learning of others. Teachers who differentiate instruction understand that creating and sustaining a learning community is a critical, never-ending process. Differentiated classrooms are clear and emphatic about the importance of a positive learning community, so they are explicit about beliefs that inform classroom norms, such as each person is unique and all learn differently. Much learning occurs through social interaction and people constructing new knowledge by building on their current knowledge (and hence will have different levels of readiness at any given time). Learning is developmental, and a positive emotional climate strengthens learning.

In a differentiated classroom, classroom management is differentiated based on assessment results, student readiness, interest, and learning profiles. All instructions are clearly presented in multiple ways so that students can easily understand and contribute to the development of classroom rules, routines, and procedures that help everyone to appreciate what is expected behaviorally and academically. The creation and cultivation of classroom community is the energy that fuels the capacity for DI.

Assessment and DI

It is not possible to differentiate instruction in the absence of ongoing embedded assessment of student readiness, interests, and learning profiles. Teachers need to uncover student readiness, interests, and approaches to learning in order to make evidence-based decisions about the structure and delivery of curriculum and instruction. In a differentiated classroom, assessment and instruction are inseparable. Ongoing diagnostic and formative assessments enable teachers to understand how well and in what ways their students are learning (or not) so they can adjust the content, process,

products, and learning environment of the curriculum accordingly.

Assessment in a differentiated classroom strives to help teachers know their students well—academically, socially, and emotionally. Traditional grading and overreliance on summative assessment practices that emphasize norm-referenced, numerical/letter-based reporting of student achievement do not readily align with the principles of DI. DI necessitates that teachers embed within their instruction ongoing formative assessment through which students get to know themselves, receive and interpret feedback, and have opportunities for revisions and growth. Teachers who differentiate recognize the need to regularly modify the products of the curriculum by using descriptive feedback tools such as rubrics so that students can accurately demonstrate their learning. In a differentiated classroom, teachers focus on meeting students where they are to enable them to make continuous progress toward and beyond learning goals.

Conclusion

DI challenges many of the assumptions that underpin public schooling in the United States and, as such, stands in contrast to the ways that many schools approach curriculum, instruction, and assessment. Undifferentiated classrooms are common and tend to group students homogeneously; address social, emotional, behavioral, or academic content through a limited range of modalities and materials; and expect students to primarily receive social, emotional, behavioral, and academic knowledge passively (through listening and reading) and separately (independently).

Although few people disagree with the philosophy of DI—that teachers should adjust curriculum and instruction to meet the needs of more students—critics point to what they see as an inherent flaw: teachers simply do not have the time to engage in a more individualized approach to teaching. At some level, this criticism is legitimate; unlike many European and Asian countries, in which teachers spend an average of 20 hours per week working in teams to improve instruction, less than 10% of a U.S. teacher's work week is typically available for time outside of the classroom to plan and develop high-quality curriculum and instruction. However, despite having less time to plan for DI than some of our international counterparts, DI has gained broad acceptance in the United States from school leaders and teachers who appreciate the attendant tools that help them meet the needs and capitalize on the strengths of a wider range of students in specific and purposeful ways. It is clear that DI is challenging the status quo and stimulating educators to consider innovative and evidence-based ways to achieve the public schools' twin goals of equity and excellence.

A differentiated approach to curriculum and instruction is especially important in the current educational reform era of standardized curriculum content and high-stakes assessments. Teachers may feel pressure *not* to tailor instruction to meet student needs for fear that their students will not perform well on high-stakes standardized tests. As numerous critics have pointed out, a one-size-fits-all approach to instruction (i.e., a nondifferentiated approach) in which educators address student learning issues with group-level teaching practices that are a part of a preexisting, limited, or low-leverage set of instructional strategies undermines learning. Rather, teachers are strongly encouraged to plan, develop, implement, and modify the content, process, and products of curriculum in ways that enable all students to experience meaningful social, emotional, behavioral, and academic outcomes.

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See also Assessment of Students; Curriculum and Classroom Management; Instruction and Cognitive Load; Instructional Rounds; Teacher Teaming and Professional Development

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DIGITAL TECHNOLOGY AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Technology in the classroom takes many forms—from the crayons to the books to electronic whiteboards—all these tools are technology. This entry focuses on digital technology tools such as desktop computers, laptop computers, tablet computers, digital and video cameras,

electronic whiteboards, mobile phones, and software tools. These digital technologies are evolving rapidly. When used appropriately, digital tools have the power to create personalized learning experiences for students, assist teachers in managing daily tasks, and teach digital literacy skills for use in future careers. This entry approaches digital technology as a teaching tool from both student and educator perspectives.

In what follows, classroom management, as it relates to digital technology, is discussed in two key areas: classroom management considerations when using digital technologies and classroom management facilitated by new digital technologies. Because digital tools tend to change frequently, the discussion will remain technology-neutral, speaking only of tools in general, not of specific devices or programs.

Classroom Management Considerations When Using Digital Technologies

Digital technologies in the classroom come in many shapes and sizes, with varying computational power. Educators may be managing the hardware (e.g., laptops, desktops, digital cameras) or software (e.g., word processing programs, applications, games), or likely both. Some classrooms may even have digital building tools, such as robotics kits. Whether a school has a 1:1 program (where every child receives his or her own digital device), has a few tools in the classroom, has a few tools for the whole school, or has a bring-your-own-device policy, some basic guidelines exist for classroom management around digital tools. Consider some examples:

- Use digital technology tools in the same way as nondigital tools—to support classroom curriculum goals—rather than just for the sake of the technology itself. As such, digital technologies are viewed as tools, and access is not provided as a reward or denied as punishment.
- Establish rules and expectations for use of software, Internet applications, and tablet applications. Some considerations: What programs and websites are allowed when? For how long? For limited supplies of equipment, how and when do students switch off with one another?
- Test digital tools before class. Ensure that website links work and browser versions are up to date; check software loads on the operating system being used by the students; and make sure the equipment is charged.
- Establish rules and expectations for hardware use, such as how the students should care for and handle the tools and where they should be stored and charged. Age-appropriate classroom rituals

for distribution and collection of tools can be established. For example, high school students are better able to handle and distribute laptops to each other, whereas kindergarteners need adult intervention.

- In order to avoid distraction, explain tasks/directions before handing students digital devices or turning on hardware. Encourage students to troubleshoot problems with each other in order to build problem-solving and collaboration skills.
- Discuss digital literacy and teach digital literacy skills needed for the lesson. This will vary by age and exposure to digital technology. Some common areas to evaluate may be mouse skills for young children, including targeting and clicking of icons on screens. Older students may need lessons in appropriate password sharing or distinguishing between factual and suspicious information sources.
- Digital tools are complex. Unexpected problems will likely arise. Have a backup plan and model frustration tolerance for students.

Classroom Management Facilitated by Digital Technologies

Digital technologies have also impacted the ways in which educators manage everyday classroom tasks. For example, electronic whiteboards may be used in place of traditional whiteboards or chalkboards in order to highlight key aspects of a lesson, display a webpage to the class, or transition more seamlessly between handwritten and digital content. Online management systems track grades, attendance, and behavior plans.

Educators may also use digital software and hardware tools for differentiated instruction, for example, assigning books on e-readers or e-reading software that contains dictionary, highlighting, and text-to-speech features or assigning different applications or software programs for extra reading or math instruction. Software tools typically provide real-time tracking of students' progress so educators can reference the information to know how and when to intervene with a student. In terms of hardware, pop quizzes using clickers (remote-controlled survey tools) and application/web-based survey tools can give an educator or the whole class a sense of where the group stands in their knowledge or opinion of a topic. Online courses offer a way to provide supplemental instruction for students who require or seek enrichment on a subject or who are not able to attend school in a traditional classroom environment.

For collaboration and communicating ideas, Internet-based tools such as blogs, wikis, and social networks provide a space for students to discuss topics from class, self-monitor their learning and seek clarification on unclear topics, and keep in touch with one

another and their teacher. Educators may also use these tools to communicate and share with each other around lesson plans, conferences, and classroom management strategies. Educators and students alike may search online for video tutorials for enrichment or additional explanation on a topic. Classrooms may collaborate with each other across the world via video conferencing or social networking tools. With digital resources, educators can manage student learning both in and out of the classroom and build their own network and bank of resources.

Flipped Classrooms

Digital technologies, in particular online video technology, have led to a new approach to classroom teaching, referred to as the *flipped classroom*. In a flipped classroom, the students view course materials, typically prerecorded video lectures produced or curated by the teacher, before arriving in class. When the student comes to class, he or she then has the knowledge to participate in assignments that would typically be thought of as homework. Class time is spent less on lecture and more on project-based learning and individual assignments, with the teacher as a guide. Students are able to work on the lesson material outside of the classroom at their own pace, rewinding and reviewing as needed. Teachers are able to circulate through the classroom to work on individual student's needs.

Conclusion

New digital technologies are powerful resources. They may be used to differentiate instruction, taking into consideration students' varying learning needs and interests, which, in turn, can have a positive impact on classroom management. Furthermore, digital technologies, in particular software tools, provide paper-free systems for educators to manage attendance, grades, lesson plans, and behavior plans. The Internet also provides a method for educators to communicate with one another to share ideas on lesson plans and classroom management strategies, both with and without digital technologies.

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See also Computer-Assisted Instruction; Technology for Struggling Readers; Video-Aided Instruction

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DISABILITIES AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

The term *classroom management* generally refers to a broad set of concepts that subsume everything teachers do to arrange and organize their classrooms and instruction, with the particular goal of ensuring students' academic and behavioral success. Though sometimes used interchangeably, the term is distinct from *behavior management*, a narrower term that refers more specifically to procedures designed to increase or decrease the likelihood that certain behaviors will occur.

Although both terms should imply a broad level of teacher attention and effort toward a range of factors associated with academic success and prosocial behavior, it is probably the case that practitioners most often use both terms to describe general concerns with difficult or troubling student behavior that disrupts classroom instruction and prevents learning.

Classroom management and behavior management are frequently cited as among the greatest concerns of teachers. This is especially true of beginning teachers, who may underestimate the time and effort required to design and implement a comprehensive classroom management plan. Perhaps more importantly, they may also underestimate the nature and extent of learning and behavior problems they are likely to encounter, especially if they are teaching in a so-called general education setting and erroneously assume that significant problems with behavior and learning are the domain of special education professionals only or occur in special education settings only. Two separate concepts suggest that such assumptions are faulty. First, although many students with disabilities indeed have significant learning and behavior problems, there are

many more students with no identified disability who display equally problematic behavior. The most obvious example of this involves the disability category of emotional disturbance, referred to by the professionally preferred term *emotional and behavioral disorder* (EBD). It is estimated that while only about 1% of the school-age population is identified as eligible for special education because of EBD, the consensus among scholars is that at least three to six times this number of students are probably in need of services for emotional or behavioral concerns, but are not identified and served by schools.

Second, there is a continuing trend toward educating students with identified disabilities in general education environments (i.e., in *inclusive* settings). Since at least the 1990s, students with disabilities have been increasingly included in general education classrooms, rather than receiving their education in separate environments (e.g., resource rooms, separate classrooms, separate schools).

The advent of specific legislation, most notably the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, created even greater momentum toward inclusive education as students with disabilities were held to higher standards, and schools were required to provide all students with meaningful access to the general curriculum. By 2009, for example, the U.S. Department of Education reported that roughly 60% of all students with disabilities spent at least 80% of their school day in general education classrooms. In contrast, only about 15% of students with disabilities received more than 60% of their education outside of the general classroom.

In short, there are large numbers of students in general education classrooms who display chronic and significant learning or behavior problems; these include students with no identified disabilities, as well as the increasing number of students with identified disabilities who are included in general education environments. The result is significant challenges for teachers in terms of classroom and behavior management. This entry considers (1) some of the key learning and behavioral characteristics of students with disabilities and (2) the basic components of classroom management to which teachers must attend. The entry argues that the inclusion of students with disabilities in general education classrooms heightens the need for teachers to develop and implement classroom management plans that emphasize simplicity, explicitness, and predictability.

Characteristics of Students With Disabilities

Although the educational program for students with disabilities, by definition, must be individualized to meet each student's unique needs, a number of general

characteristics are consistent across the majority of students with disabilities. Toward this point, we note that while all students with disabilities—regardless of the severity of the disability—are increasingly included, the majority of students with identified disabilities fall into categories of disability referred to as *mild* or *high-incidence* disabilities; these include learning disabilities, EBD, and mild intellectual disabilities. Especially within these high-incidence disability categories, a number of learning and behavioral characteristics are common.

Problems With Attention and Memory

Students with high-incidence disabilities may have significant trouble paying attention or attending to task, which in fact involves at least three separate skills or abilities: coming to attention, sustaining attention, and attending to the proper stimuli. First, it may be difficult for teachers to gain the attention of students with high-incidence disabilities (e.g., getting them to sit in the proper spot, put all other distracting materials or objects away, and focus on the teacher or the work at hand). Further, even when the teacher gains students' attention, it is often short-lived; that is, many students with disabilities often cannot maintain focus on the task at hand for very long. They are easily distracted by stimuli extraneous to their work (e.g., others talking, activity outside their classroom). Finally, many students with disabilities have trouble discriminating among the various aspects of stimuli associated with a given task. In other words, even when they are attending, they may focus on the wrong parts. They may miss critical elements, such as the symbol in an arithmetic problem (+, −, ×, ÷), or may be distracted by or give unnecessary attention to irrelevant aspects of stimuli (e.g., spending too much time and focusing energy on the churning water depicted in a painting of George Washington crossing the Delaware River).

Given these problems with attention, it is perhaps not surprising that most students with high-incidence disabilities have trouble in some form with memory. They may seem to forget material previously learned, to the extent that they may have mastered a skill one day (such as learning a set of vocabulary words, or how to solve a particular type of math problem), only to appear completely confused the very next day. They may forget simple school survival skills, such as bringing a pencil, book, or notebook to class; to turn in their homework (even when it has been completed); or that there is a vocabulary quiz every Friday. Instances such as forgetting to turn in homework or forgetting that there is a quiz every Friday can be particularly frustrating to teachers; after having a vocabulary quiz every Friday throughout the school year, a student with a disability

may seem genuinely surprised, and of course be unprepared, when the teacher announces on a Friday in late Spring that it is time for their weekly quiz. Importantly for our purposes here, such problems with memory can impact social behavior as well as academics. It is not surprising that forgetfulness of these sorts, especially when it persists in the face of constant reminders, can be viewed by some teachers as willful misconduct or a student acting oblivious or feigning incompetence on purpose.

Noncompliance

Noncompliance can be a frequent problem for students with disabilities, but it is important to distinguish between willful noncompliance—simple refusal to do what is asked—and noncompliance that may be associated with a skill deficit or lack of knowledge about when, where, and how to do something. For many students with disabilities, noncompliance is indeed willful; that is, they consciously choose not to comply with a teacher request. But even in such cases, there is almost always a motivation for the student not to comply. Most commonly, noncompliance can be thought of as an effort to gain or obtain something desired by the child (e.g., attention from others) or to avoid something the child finds aversive (e.g., to get out of a difficult assignment).

Teachers must also be attuned to the possibility that noncompliance may be associated with specific skill deficits; in other words, a student may not comply simply because he or she does not have the skills necessary to do so. In the case of both social skills and academic or school survival skills, behaviors that teachers might assume students have long ago mastered may simply be missing (e.g., how to obtain more school supplies; what to do when you do not understand an assignment; how to look up information in the library or on the Internet).

History of Academic and Social Failure

Given the problems described in terms of attention, memory, and noncompliance, it is not surprising that students with disabilities generally have experienced a significant history of academic and social failure since entering school. They have likely experienced poor grades and failure to master many key academic fundamentals (reading, writing, mathematics), which only sets them up for further academic struggles. Academic problems alone may negatively impact relationships with both peers and teachers, but in addition to academic struggles, students with disabilities also frequently struggle with basic social skills. Not knowing how to engage in sharing, turn-taking, or conversations, or how

to give and receive praise or compliments may limit the chances of developing positive interpersonal relationships with both teachers and peers.

The relationship between academics and behavior can evolve into a downward spiral: poor academic performance sets students up for continued academic failure, which then puts them at heightened risk for engaging in disruptive, off-task behavior. As negative behaviors are learned and occur more frequently, academic performance may be further impacted. It is difficult to describe the precise relationship between academic and social failures in causal terms, but it seems certain that the two are related and contribute to one another.

Components of Classroom Management

Many elements comprise a good classroom management plan, and the specific details within these elements can vary according to grade level, characteristics of the student population, and the specific needs of a classroom, school, or district. Nonetheless, several key characteristics tend to be associated with an effective classroom management plan. These include simplicity, explicitness, and predictability. As we note, these characteristics are especially important for students with disabilities.

Simplicity

All schools and classrooms have rules, and although there is no consensus on a specific number of rules, the general guideline is that fewer are better. Part of this logic is simply that students will have less to learn and remember if there are three classroom rules rather than 10. The rules must also be simple in that they are stated in plain language that students understand. Showing good deportment or good citizenship may be too abstract or confusing. This is not to say that rules cannot be based on an abstract concept and even stated in broad terms. If this is the case, however, it becomes critically important that students are taught explicitly what specific behaviors a concept encompasses. For example, respecting others may be an acceptable classroom rule, but only if the concept is taught to students in terms of the specific behaviors students are expected to display. Respecting others, for example, may include a number of components or specific ways that students demonstrate respect: keeping one's hands to oneself, or only using another person's property after seeking permission. Note that teaching only the rule as written, "Respect others," even if students memorize and can repeat it along with other classroom rules, will likely have no impact on student behavior. Simple, concrete examples of behaviors that are expected (as well

as behaviors that are unacceptable) must be clear to all students and easily discerned from school or classroom rules.

Explicitness

It has been established that when expectations for students' behavior or academic performance are stated directly in clear, concrete terms, students' outcomes are improved. Moreover, this is true both in terms of compliance with classroom rules as well as in academic learning. For example, even when students are presumed to know and understand general classroom rules, behavior problems and rule violations can be reduced when these expectations are communicated explicitly on a regular basis (e.g., "please push your chair in and keep your hands to yourself as you line up quietly"). In terms of instruction, academic performance is enhanced and disruptions or off-task behavior reduced when task expectations are made clear at the outset of lessons (e.g., "today we're expanding our topic sentences into paragraphs; I'm going to demonstrate with my own paragraph, and before you leave today you should hand in a complete paragraph of your own").

In addition to clarity in expectations, the consequences students will experience for their behavior must also be made explicit. Perhaps most important in this regard is that follow-through on stated consequences must be highly consistent for the consequences to have any positive impact on students' behavior. A common misperception is that the term *consequence* refers to a negative outcome or punishment, administered when students violate some classroom rule. In truth, decades of research suggest that positive consequences that acknowledge students' positive behaviors—their compliance with classroom rules—are the most powerful tool available to educators in terms of increasing positive social and academic behavior in students. Put simply, students must know exactly what is expected of them and what outcomes they will enjoy for meeting those expectations (e.g., privileges, activities, social rewards).

Predictability

The preceding notions about expectations and outcomes being explicit are part of a larger idea that is strongly associated with effective classroom management: predictability. In simple terms, a classroom environment that is highly predictable for students lends itself to greater compliance, more on-task behavior, and fewer disruptions and rule violations. In this environment, students are well aware of what is expected of them, what they are supposed to be doing at a given moment,

and what consequences—positive and negative—they can expect based on their effort or performance. In contrast, an unpredictable environment in which expectations are unclear and consequences cannot be anticipated is much more likely to promote off-task behavior or mischief.

It is important to note that the concepts of simplicity, explicitness, and predictability are not to be confused with rigidity or harshness. A longstanding misconception with regard to dealing with students' challenging behavior is that teachers must exert greater control or create classrooms perceived as strict. On the contrary, the structure implied by simplicity, explicitness, and predictability refers only to a framework that is clear and obvious to everyone. This means only that most or all overt aspects of classroom environment, classroom routines, and even instruction itself remain constant and provide a consistency that students can predict and rely upon. In the classroom, physical structure can refer to students knowing where to store their belongings, where to return homework or submit assignments, and where materials and supplies are kept. Knowing the routine of the day or class period is also an important element of structure, and when such routines are taught, practiced, and rewarded, they become predictable. For example, do students know what to do upon entering the classroom each day (e.g., put their belongings away, place their homework in a folder on the teacher's desk, have a notebook and pen or pencil ready, and copy the challenge problem from the board)?

Finally, if classrooms are to represent predictable environments for students, it is imperative that rules be clear and simple and consistently implemented. Students must have little doubt that their rule-following and positive behaviors will be recognized or rewarded, just as they must know that rule violations will also be addressed, most commonly with a temporary loss of some part of a reward or privilege. It should be reiterated that in an effective classroom management plan the bulk of a teacher's attention is focused on the recognition of students who engage in positive academic and social behavior.

Conclusion

The characteristics of students with disabilities—most notably problems with attention and memory, noncompliance, and a history of academic and social failure—suggest that the recommended hallmarks of a comprehensive and positive classroom management plan for any classroom are probably even more critical when students with disabilities are included. The key elements of such a plan are simplicity, explicitness, and predictability.

It is important to note that when any classroom includes one or more students with serious challenging behavior (e.g., severe forms of aggression or disruptive behavior), the basic framework described here will likely be insufficient to resolve the problem. In such cases, an individually targeted behavior intervention plan will probably be necessary, but this should not alter the need and indeed probably heightens the importance of a classroom management framework built on simplicity, explicitness, and predictability. Even when individual students display seriously challenging behavior, the predictable structure of an effective classroom management plan provides the necessary foundation upon which to build more targeted interventions.

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See also Behavior Disorders; Evidence-Based Classroom Management; Functional Behavioral Assessment; Inclusive Classrooms; Learning Disabilities; Preventing Behavior Problems

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DISCIPLINE, SCHOOL AND CLASSROOM

Discipline is defined in the present context as instruction and actions implemented in order to train a person

to follow a particular code of conduct and cease engaging in disruptive behaviors. It is a critical concern for educators, as disruptive behaviors significantly impact school climate and classroom instruction. Within schools and classrooms, discipline serves a number of purposes: discipline corrects undesired student behavior, contributes to students' sense of schools being safe places for them, and, potentially, promotes each student's ability to achieve self-discipline. This entry describes the current state of school and classroom discipline in the United States, with a particular focus on challenges and promising approaches.

Punishment

Historically, punishment has been the most popular response to misbehavior. Punishment is the use of an undesirable consequence to decrease the likelihood of an undesirable behavior's recurrence. The use of punishment within the school and classroom contexts can take multiple forms, including corporal punishment, lectures, time-outs, moving a student's desk, or removing students from the classroom or school. The evidence suggests that punishment can be mildly effective for deterring undesirable behavior in the short term. However, evidence also suggests that what is meant to be punishment can accidentally reinforce behavior; what seems effective for the short term can turn out to be ineffective (or worse) for the long term.

To be effective, punishment has to be undesirable. When punishment unintentionally functions to achieve something a student desires, as when a student who does not want to be in school is sent home for acting out, the would-be punishment is better described as an unintended reinforcement.

Certain types of punishment are limited with respect to their long-term effects, including punishments associated with zero-tolerance policies. In the past two decades, zero-tolerance policies have institutionalized a popular approach to discipline, one that requires predetermined punishments for unacceptable student actions regardless of context. Zero-tolerance policies are implemented on a schoolwide basis. They are intended to be enforced in a uniform fashion across classrooms. Students who misbehave are typically sent by the teacher to the school office, thus taking responsibility for discipline away from the teacher and giving it to administrators.

Two of the most popular punishments associated with zero-tolerance policies are suspensions and expulsions. Suspensions occur usually for 1 to 10 school days. A student is removed from regular classes and placed either under the supervision of parents (out-of-school suspension) or under special supervision of the school (in-school suspension). Expulsions are long-term

removals from the classroom setting. The intent in using suspensions and expulsions is to remove disruptive students from the classroom, ensure students receive negative consequences for their actions, and promote the safety of other students.

Despite widespread use of zero-tolerance policies, the available data indicate that such policies negatively impact school and student outcomes. In 2012, Brigid Flannery, Jennifer Frank, and Mimi Kato found that among the most common types of school disciplinary responses to first-time truancy, exclusionary discipline was by far the most commonly used. Out-of-school suspension was the only strategy related to decreased probability of truancy reoccurrence for first-time offenders. However, repeated implementation of out-of-school suspension significantly increased truancy. Their results provided insight into the utility of suspension as a deterrence strategy for the general school population as well as the harmful effects of suspension for the most at-risk students. That is, for a subset of students who act out repeatedly, exclusionary discipline appears to reinforce rather than punish their negative behavior.

Challenges of Punishment as a Discipline Technique

Negative Impacts

Research has consistently found negative impacts of exclusionary discipline practices, particularly suspension. For the subset of students who are most likely to receive discipline, suspension is not effective at correcting the problem behavior or teaching positive alternatives. Research has found associations between suspensions and academic problems, exacerbated behavioral problems, disengagement from school, and dropout. Repeated suspension has been hypothesized to push students toward a trajectory of life within the criminal justice system, which has been termed the school-to-prison pipeline.

Disproportionality

Another challenge with the use of exclusionary discipline within schools is that of disproportionality in its application to minority students. Zero-tolerance policies have been taken to be fair because of their one-size-fits-all approach. However, research has documented that significantly higher rates of exclusionary discipline practices are used on African American students than students of other races—even when socioeconomic background is the same and even when their transgressions are no more serious than those from other groups. To explain the higher rates, the research on exclusionary

discipline practices has identified more complex interactions between educators, school systems, and students, interactions that result in discriminatory discipline practice.

Shifting Political Climate of School Discipline

Recognizing the limitations and harms of zero-tolerance policies, there has been a recent shift toward examining alternative methods to punishment as the primary form of school discipline. For example, in 2011 the federal government launched the Supportive School Discipline Initiatives designed to promote effective discipline practices in every classroom. The goal of the initiative is to ensure that discipline strategies support student learning, engage students in school, improve the learning climate, and are administered fairly. Emerging research has found that positive and proactive discipline can offset risks for delinquency and engage at-risk students in school.

Promising Approaches to Discipline

There are a number of promising discipline approaches for overcoming the challenges associated with zero-tolerance-associated methods of disciplining. On a general level, a multitiered approach to discipline is recommended because it employs less costly strategies with the whole student body—strategies that are effective for most students—while employing more intense and costly strategies for students who do not respond to these whole student body strategies. There are typically three tiers: the universal level (schoolwide), such as school rules that are enforced fairly; the secondary level (classwide or small group), such as supports for groups of students who need skills training; and the tertiary level (individual students), where more intensive interventions are designed to meet a student's unique needs. The following are evidence-based multitiered approaches to student discipline.

Positive Behavior Approaches

Positive behavior approaches to school discipline, such as schoolwide positive behavioral supports, teach and reinforce social skills to address behavior concerns. In tier one supports, school rules are taught to the students; rewards are provided for those who abide by school rules, and consistent consequences are administered for those who break them. In tier two, students exhibiting some behavior challenges are given moderate support such as targeted social skills instruction, basic

behavior plans, or classroom management support for the teacher. In tier three, for students who repeatedly exhibit concerning behavior, supports include a functional assessment of students' behavior and evidence-based behavioral interventions to address and correct the behavior.

Restorative Justice

Restorative justice shifts the orientation of school discipline from one that aims to control students to one that engages students in self-discipline through mediation and reconciliation. Tier one restorative justice supports involve community building throughout the school supported by classroom circles designed to build relationships and respect. Tier two supports use restorative processes such as conflict resolution and informal mediation to maintain relationships when harm is done. Tier three supports repair harm after a more serious offense with strategies such as problem-solving circles and conferencing.

Social Emotional Learning

Social emotional learning promotes skills necessary for students to manage emotions, care for others, and form positive relationships. Social and emotional learning lessons provide a range of information to students from emotional regulation to fostering positive interpersonal relationships with others. At a tier one level, teachers teach social and emotional skills such as empathy and problem solving within the academic curriculum. At tier two, students who are identified as at risk for developing social and/or emotional problems (through screening or referral) are provided with need-specific, evidence-based social-emotional or behavioral training. At tier three, students with a need for individualized intervention are given more intensive services that incorporate multiple systems including the student's family.

Conclusion

School professionals have an ethical obligation to protect the educational rights of all students. When students misbehave, their behavior can negatively impact the learning of other students as well as their own, and so must be corrected through adopting some form of discipline. In doing so, it is critical for educators to select discipline interventions that not only stop disruptive, unwanted behavior from occurring in the moment and in the short term but also prevent such behavior from happening in the long term. For that to happen, it

is wise to shift from primarily negative methods emphasizing punishment and exclusion to more positive methods emphasizing prevention, positive alternative behaviors, and the development of true classroom communities.

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See also Application of Positive Behavioral Intervention and Supports to Schoolwide and Classroom Settings; Methods, Ineffective; Punishment; School Discipline; Schoolwide Discipline Policies; Suspension and Expulsion

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DISCIPLINE CODES OF CONDUCT

Discipline codes of conduct are written policies commonly used in schools to articulate which behaviors are sanctioned and what consequences there will be if students engage in misbehavior. Mandated by the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB, 2001), codes of conduct are currently found in virtually every school in the

United States. This entry reviews the evolution of discipline codes of conduct in U.S. public schools and concludes with an explanation and discussion of present-day codes of conduct.

Historical Background

The Nineteenth and Early Twentieth Centuries

In the mid-1800s and with the advent of compulsory education laws, public school administrators found themselves in the position of having to educate large masses of young citizens, many of whom were being trained for industrial jobs. Public schools took on the role of socializing children about work-related behaviors, which included punctuality, obedience, and deference to authority. And so early written discipline codes of conduct and related discipline policies and practices were enacted to convey expected behaviors for those preparing for a world of work in factories. Standards for behavior, in the form of discipline codes, were also used to indoctrinate to Anglo-Saxon values and social norms the waves of immigrants, mostly from Europe, who came to the United States during the latter part of the nineteenth and early part of the twentieth century.

From early iterations of discipline codes of conduct, discipline codes were used to control behavior and mete out punishments for noncompliance. Punishments included corporal punishment as well as exclusion and isolation. Early on and in response to student misbehavior, physical punishment was utilized frequently.

In the 1950s and 1960s, a great many Hispanic and African American families migrated from the south to urban centers in the north. Both groups faced similar socialization processes through the use of often punitive disciplinary practices. Essentially, discipline codes of conduct were used as methods of control and to build an obedient workforce whose behavior reflected the values of the socially dominant (i.e., White, middle-class) majority.

The Late Twentieth Century

In 1975, the long-standing punitive and exclusionary nature of school discipline was challenged by the *Goss v. Lopez* case. The plaintiffs argued that 10 Ohio students who were suspended for several days without due process had had their Fourteenth Amendments rights violated. They argued that under the Constitution, education is equivalent to property protection and, therefore, cannot be taken away without a formal hearing. The case was decided in favor of the plaintiffs, which set a precedent that students must be afforded due process rights in school and that decisions about suspensions

cannot be made by an administrator acting alone. Since that time, discipline codes of conduct have often incorporated guidelines for conducting due process hearings and notification of suspension decisions.

Around the same time as *Goss v. Lopez*, and despite statistical findings that school violence at the time was actually decreasing compared with prior levels, the public perception was that schools were unsafe and youth were engaging in high rates of serious misbehavior. This public perception was most likely influenced by highly publicized social and civic youth unrest related to the unpopularity of the Vietnam War. Both public perception and civic unrest became catalysts for the federal government to commission a study of school violence. Two federal groups, the National Institute of Education (NIE, 1978) and the National School Resource Network (NSRN, 1980), disseminated publications that emphasized the need for codes of conduct to describe expected behaviors in a preset fashion rather than simply describing punishment (mostly exclusion) for misbehavior. In these studies, discipline codes of conduct were described as mechanisms by which key school stakeholders such as teachers, administrators, parents, community members, and students would all understand the expectations for behavior.

The NSRN document contained content about the role of discipline codes of conduct in balancing the rights of the individual for an education with societal rights concerning safety—an example of the common theme in American democracy of trying to balance individual rights and what is called *the common good*. The theme of balancing these two often competing demands emerged in the years to follow with respect to the federal special education legislation described below.

In the years following these federally commissioned reports, the reports' main recommendations to focus on prevention went largely unheeded. From the 1980s to more recent times, discipline codes of conduct continued to focus on punishments for misbehavior. However, more recent shifts in discipline practices appear to be more aligned with the spirit of the recommendations made by these national organizations in the late 1970s.

Discipline Codes of Conduct in Recent Decades

Since the publication of the national reports in the late 1970s, three major events have greatly impacted school discipline and discipline codes of conduct. They are (1) federal special education legislation, commencing with Public Law 94-142 and culminating with the revised Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA, 1990; IDEA, 1997; IDEA, 2004), (2) Gun Free Schools Act (1994)/Zero Tolerance Policies, and

(3) prevention-oriented approaches, such as Schoolwide Positive Behavior Support. On the basis of empirical research, all three argue against the use of suspension.

Special Education Legislation

One of the most far-reaching pieces of legislation was Public Law 94-142 (PL. 94-142, 1975). This landmark legislation specified that all children, regardless of disability or educational need, are entitled to a free and appropriate public education. PL. 94-142 also established that suspensions of 10 or more days for children covered by PL. 94-142 were analogous to a change of placement.

Over the years, PL. 94-142 was reauthorized and renamed the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA, 1990; IDEA, 1997; IDEA, 2004). IDEA (1997) included a number of provisions that relate specifically to school discipline. One of these provisions was that schools were to review their discipline policies and align them with more proactive approaches to discipline. For students with behavioral issues, school teams were to develop behavior plans that include positively stated replacement behaviors and procedures for teaching these behaviors to students. In addition, schools were asked to consider positive behavior supports, or schoolwide approaches to teaching expected behaviors to all students, as a way of preventing behavior problems.

At the same time and in keeping with the provision of the Gun Free Schools Act (1994), IDEA (1997) also had provisions for automatically suspending students with disabilities for more than 10 days in situations where weapons or drugs were involved. When schools perceived a student to be dangerous, then a hearing officer could be consulted to assess the danger and apply a long-term suspension if deemed necessary. IDEA (1997) first introduced the concept of a manifest determination hearing. Under a manifest determination hearing, school administrators are given the autonomy to suspend a student for more than 10 days if it is determined by a school team that the behavioral offense is not related to the child's disability. In order to make this decision, the school team must first conclude that the child's individualized education plan and behavior intervention plan, both required components for children suspected of having behavioral issues, are appropriate. If the school team concludes that the individualized education plan and behavior intervention plan are appropriate, then, if the behavior is believed to be under the student's control and something that he or she is aware of, the student can be disciplined like every other student. Finally, behavior intervention plans must be considered for all students suspected of having behavioral challenges, not only those in special education.

During the 1990s, there were a number of highly publicized school shootings that gained national attention. Despite their being rare and hardly representative, these events were perceived as indicating a general problem, and they likely helped bring about some of the policy changes described above.

IDEA (1997) reflected a number of significant changes to the ways that regular as well as special education students are disciplined. IDEA (2004), the most recent version of special education legislation, has provided increased autonomy to school personnel in disciplining students. One of the most substantive revisions to the law was that in situations where school districts are in a disagreement with parents about which school placement is most appropriate (termed *alternative educational placement*), then it is not required that students remain in the least restrictive environment. Furthermore, school districts can impose long-term suspension for students who engage in bodily harm.

While greater flexibility was established for the use of long-term suspensions, there was also language to reflect the use of more proactive content. For example, statements were made about the use of positive behavior support and the need for all students to have access to the general education curriculum.

Overall, in analyzing the stipulations related to discipline in special education legislation, suspension has been viewed as a change of placement, and schools have been required to engage in due process procedures when suspension is delivered for violations under the code of conduct. Additionally, IDEA (1997) expanded the types of behaviors for which long-term suspension (e.g., more than 10 days) can be enacted without invoking the change in placement characterization. IDEA (1997) also provided for the use of proactive procedures, such as positive behavior supports, and the teaching of positive replacement behaviors and thus shifted the focus away from exclusion and punishment.

Gun Free Schools Act

The Gun Free Schools Act (1994) derived from federal legislation mandating no tolerance for any amount of drugs brought into the United States through international waterways. This legislation was subsequently applied to schools and became widely known as zero-tolerance policies, to be applied so that students engaging in weapons or drug violations are automatically removed from school. Ironically, while this law fell out of favor outside of educational settings, it picked up momentum in schools throughout the 1990s, roughly the same time that highly publicized shootings were occurring and the larger public perception of schools was that they were unsafe. Over the past 20 years,

zero-tolerance policies have sparked a great deal of debate. Many have argued that zero-tolerance policies have been taken to an extreme, examples being reports of students being removed for bringing toy guns or plastic knives to cut their food. Still others have pointed to the disproportionate representation of ethnic minority students, particularly children of color, in suspension, and the exacerbation of this phenomenon through the overzealous use of zero-tolerance procedures. Several policymakers have pointed to the unintended consequences of suspension, which includes school dropout and entry into the juvenile justice system. However, still others argue that zero-tolerance policies are necessary to maintain order and safety within a larger *get tough* approach. The concluding section of this entry considers more recent responses to school discipline, which have arisen, in part, to answer the concerns noted here about the exclusionary discipline responses that have attended discipline codes of conduct since their inception.

Schoolwide Positive Behavior Support/Rtl

Over the past decade, many educators, researchers, and policymakers have considered ways to shift from the punitive-oriented discipline policies reflected in codes of conduct to more prevention-oriented discipline policies. A prime example is what is called Schoolwide Positive Behavior Support (SWPBS), an approach that has gained significant momentum in recent years as a system-level approach in which behaviors are taught to students on a preset basis. The SWPBS approach is, then, consistent with recommendations made for discipline codes of conduct many years ago.

By establishing a common set of three to five positively stated expectations and then directly teaching them to the entire school body, SWPBS attempts to prevent as many behavior problems as possible by students taught what to do rather than waiting and having to discipline when problems occur. Another key component of SWPBS is the use of data to determine progress and if there is a need for more intensive behavioral support for groups of students and/or individuals.

Conclusion

Discipline codes of conduct have been in existence since the advent of public and compulsory schooling in America. Until fairly recently, discipline codes of conduct have focused on punitive procedures and exclusion through suspension and expulsion from school. Despite the recommendations of national groups in the late 1970s that discipline codes of conduct be reconfigured to reflect more proactive content, punishment and

suspension remained the focus. Special education legislation, beginning with PL. 94-142, afforded students with disabilities due process rights when suspension was delivered. However, suspension has remained a common discipline practice for all students who violate codes of conduct. The Gun Free Schools Act (1994) and related zero-tolerance policies served to further the use of suspension.

At the same time, zero-tolerance policies have created widespread public and professional debate. More recently, partially in response to frustration about the overuse of suspension and zero-tolerance procedures, system-level supports such as SWPBS have transformed discipline systems in many schools and shifted the focus away from punitive discipline and onto proactive discipline procedures that national groups (e.g., National Institute of Education, 1978; National School Resource Network, 1980) recommended several decades ago. Over the next several years, it seems discipline codes of conduct are likely to continue this shift away from punishment-oriented methods and toward methods that are more positive and proactive.

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See also Government Policy and Classroom Management; Guns: History, Policy, Consequences; History of Classroom Management; Individuals with Disabilities Education Act; Law and Classroom Management; Schoolwide Discipline Policies

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DISCIPLINE GAP

See Ability Grouping

DISRUPTIVE BEHAVIORS, POSITIVE APPROACHES TO

Disruptive behaviors challenge teachers, interrupt students' learning, and invite negative responses that can escalate issues. Developing a positive and effective approach to disruptive behaviors is, therefore, essential to ensure effective classroom management that not only restores order but also supports students' learning and long-term development. The history of schooling, in general, and classroom management, in particular, might well be described as one of negative, even harsh, ways of responding to disruptive behaviors. Such harsh approaches unfortunately continue to be seen in some modern-day classrooms.

Regardless of theoretical orientation, however, contemporary approaches to classroom management are focused on positive ways of dealing with disruptive behaviors. Such strategies include framing disruptive behaviors in a positive manner, teaching expectations (e.g., keeping hands and feet to oneself), reinforcing appropriate (nondisruptive) behavior, and organizing and monitoring classrooms that prevent disruptive behaviors from happening in the first place.

As is outlined in the introduction to this encyclopedia, classroom management is ultimately managing the dilemmas that can occur day in and day out. A major challenge, therefore, arises in trying to address presenting problem behavior for the short term *while also* supporting student development for the long term. Responding negatively to disruptive behaviors may work for the short term, but doing so repeatedly can have long-term negative effects. Therefore, although many intervention studies have focused on reducing disruptive behavior, recommendations often focus on increasing positive behaviors that might both replace disruptive behaviors and have implications for positive long-term development. For example, some now advocate for a keystone variable approach, one targeting those variables that are likely to positively influence a broader range of behaviors when modified. By targeting on-task behavior, for example, disruptive behavior is likely to decrease because students cannot engage in both disruptive and on-task behavior simultaneously. This entry explains a proactive and positive framework for addressing disruptive behaviors.

Defining Disruptive Behavior and Its Significance

In a 1995 poll by the American Federation of Teachers, 17% of teachers reported losing 4 or more hours of instructional time in a given week due to disruptive student behaviors. Therefore, disruptive behaviors in classroom settings put at risk not only the learning of students doing the disrupting but also the learning of their classmates.

Whether it is referred to as disruptive, externalizing, challenging, or acting-out behavior, disruptive behaviors refer to behaviors that interfere with a teacher's ability to teach or students' ability to learn. Disruptive behaviors vary significantly in terms of kind and degree of severity, as well as consequent interruption to the classroom. One challenge inherent in defining disruptive behavior is that each teacher will likely have a different threshold for what each considers disruptive. Some may allow for low-level noise and chatter, whereas others may apply the pin-drop rule.

Minor disruptive behaviors may include fidgeting, being out of seat, or making off-topic comments. Major disruptive behaviors may include damaging property or engaging in physically aggressive behaviors. Most students will exhibit minor disruptive behaviors on occasion. Those who exhibit recurrent patterns of disruptive behaviors, major or minor, may require a much more intensive level of intervention.

There is abundant research to show that students who regularly demonstrate disruptive behavior are

more likely to struggle academically and be at greater risk for antisocial behavior later in life. However, the research also shows that this trajectory can be changed through early intervention. Furthermore, meta-analytic findings suggest common school-based interventions can have as strong an effect on disruptive behavior as more intensive, individualized interventions—especially if those interventions are sustained and positive.

Positive Ways of Addressing Disruptive Behavior

One commonality among today's empirically supported school-based strategies is their positive nature. A prime example is the emphasis today on responding to students who disrupt by reinforcing desired behavior.

In the context of responding to students who disrupt, *reinforcement* is about increasing desired behaviors, whereas *punishment* is about decreasing problematic, disruptive behaviors. However, as straightforward as this may sound, in reality it is not so simple. Before intervening, one must first determine how a particular student is being reinforced for engaging in disruptive behavior and how the student can be supported to behave in ways that are not disruptive and that promote learning. One must, in other words, identify what is causing a student to disrupt and what causes that student to learn. If teachers can determine why a student may be engaging in a particular disruptive behavior, they can often intervene by teaching the student a more appropriate alternative behavior or skill. As one example, a student who calls out or makes inappropriate noises may be attempting to get the attention of peers or of the classroom teacher. Although a teacher's initial response may be an attempt to squelch the disruption by confronting or reprimanding the student, this may ultimately give the student the attention that was sought, thereby unintentionally reinforcing an undesired behavior. Having determined attention-getting to be the cause of the calling out, the teacher can teach the student more appropriate ways to obtain attention from the teacher or provide opportunities for structured peer interactions that provide healthy attention from peers.

Alternatively, some students may engage in disruptive behaviors, such as roaming the classroom or playing with objects (e.g., fidgeting with erasers, tapping pencils), in order to avoid tasks. In these cases, a teacher may need to find creative ways to promote engagement, such as by increasing the number of opportunities to respond (e.g., through choral responding or the use of response cards) or reinforcing students for being on task.

There are many other positive ways of addressing disruptive behaviors. For example, reframing is a method of redefining what is initially framed as a disruptive behavior to instead bring out something positive in the behavior (“You are funny,” “You have a lot of energy—which is good,” “Jimmy and Harold, you two are good friends; nice”). Similarly, the field of occupational therapy and the concept of sensory integration problems have provided a positive frame for understanding and addressing many disruptive behaviors, a frame that leads not to reprimands but to attending to the kinds of stimulation a child may need as well as avoid. These methods have a common emphasis on the positive and can be useful in managing behavior for both the short and long term.

Conclusion

Every teacher will encounter instances of disruptive behavior, both minor and major. Given the prevalence of disruptive behaviors and potential for harm, it is important that teachers have an approach that proactively prevents as much disruptive behavior as possible and that also addresses disruptive behavior positively—as through teaching and reinforcing expected desired behavior that facilitates students being on task and learning. By addressing disruptive behaviors positively and avoiding falling back into punitive, reactionary, and negative practices, teachers do more than foster compliance and order in the classroom. They will also be supporting students’ long-term development.

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See also Active Student Responding; Differential Treatment and Reinforcement; Expectations: Teachers’ Expectations of Students; Functional Behavioral Assessment; Off-Task Behavior; Reframing; Reinforcement; School-Based Occupational Therapy; Sensory Integration

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DOCUMENTATION AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Documentation of classroom management is used to show how teachers structure the classroom and respond to all students’ learning needs. Documentation of behavior management is becoming increasingly important because it allows for accountability. It involves recording behaviors of students as well as the strategies teachers and administrators use to teach appropriate behaviors. Effective documentation requires one to describe behavior expectations and classroom procedures; dates, descriptions, and duration of challenging behaviors that need to be addressed; instructional strategies used to increase appropriate behaviors; and student behavioral progress.

Documentation of rules and expectations should be clear and concise. According to Kristin Sayeski and Monica Brown, it involves posting three to five rules written in a positive manner all students, administrators, parents, and fellow teachers can see and understand. It also involves writing out procedures for the day-to-day functioning of the classroom and putting a system in place to share these procedures and provide frequent reports with parents. Procedures should be written in family-friendly language and include rules, a schedule, cues the teacher will use to gain students’ attention, how instructional tasks will take place, how behavior will be redirected, how rules will be reinforced, and how communication about behavior will take place.

Daily or weekly communication reports are excellent ways of documenting classroom management as well as communicating with parents. Communication reports can involve the rules, the date, at least one positive statement about the student’s behavior, any specific behaviors that were addressed that day or week, the time, setting, frequency, and duration of those behaviors, and space for a caregiver to share comments or concerns.

There are students who require targeted or intensive instruction to learn appropriate classroom behavior. For students who require more instruction and guidance, documentation should summarize the specific behavior that will be addressed as well as the evidence-based instruction that will teach and encourage appropriate behaviors.

Documenting Behavioral Needs and Intervention Strategies

Before documenting instructional strategies for challenging behaviors, teachers must document the

Table I Behavior Log for Class

| <i>Positive Behavior</i> | <i>Name</i> | <i>Date</i> | <i>Respect Everyone</i> | <i>Stay in Your Work Areas</i> | <i>Keep Your Hands and Feet to Yourself</i> | <i>Follow Directions</i> |
|--------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------------------|--------------------------------|---|--------------------------|
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behavior need of the student. There are three ways of documenting specific behavior needs. The first is by writing descriptions of a student's behavior that occurred within a specific time period, for example, lunch time, math instruction, and recess. These descriptions are useful in examining not only a specific behavior but also the student's interaction with individuals and the environment. Descriptions should include (1) a narrative that portrays the setting of the observation, (2) everything the student says and does and with whom or what, and (3) a description of everything that has been said and done regarding the student and with whom. It is critical that the language used to write the description is done in a manner in which someone who is not familiar with the student or environment can understand what has been written and that there is a clear differentiation between what is being observed and opinion. These narratives provide a way of analyzing behavior for future interventions.

The second way of documenting behavior is by collecting tangible items that result from a student's behavior. This can be accomplished by collecting work samples, pictures of finished tasks, and digital recordings. A teacher should seek out school districts' guidelines and procedures regarding pictures and digital recordings.

The third way of documenting behavior is through observations of certain behavioral features. Norris Haring, Alice Hayden, and Patricia Nolen share features of behavior that can be documented. Features include

(1) the number of occurrences of a behavior, (2) the number of occurrences in a specific time period, (3) how long a behavior is performed, (4) the time between a teacher's cue and the occurrence of a behavior, (5) the physical description of the behavior, (6) the intensity of a behavior, and (7) a description of where the behavior takes place.

If a teacher decides to document behavior through observation, then he or she must choose how to record the feature of the behavior. There are five ways of recording behavior features: event recording, interval sampling, time sampling, duration, and latency.

Event recording is writing down the number of times the behavior happens. An example of event recording is writing a tally mark every time a student speaks out of turn. *Interval sampling* is writing down how often the behavior happens within a short interval of time. For example, a teacher checking every 20 seconds to see if a student is engaged in an assignment within a 5-minute period, then writing a tally mark indicating if the student is on task. *Time sampling* is writing down how often a behavior happens within longer periods of time. An example is similar to interval sampling; however, the teacher would check every 5 minutes to see if a student is on task within a 30-minute period. *Duration* refers to recording how long the behavior happens. An example of duration recording is when a teacher writes down a time when the student is out of her seat, then records the time she sits down at her desk. The number of minutes will

Table 2 Behavior Log for Targeted Instructional Strategies

| <i>Date</i> | | | |
|---|---|-----------------|--------------------|
| <i>Small Group Behavior Goal</i> <i>Guiding Question:</i> What is the response for students who demonstrate challenging behaviors? | <i>Behavior Support Strategy</i> | | |
| | Pre Correction | | Check in Check Out |
| | Mentoring | | Self-regulation |
| | Behavior Contracts (e.g., Daily Report Card etc.) | | |
| <i>Student Names</i> | <i>Type of Data</i> | | |
| | <i>Frequency</i> | <i>Duration</i> | <i>Latency</i> |
| | | | |
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Source: Adapted from Sayeski and Brown (2011), Figure 1, p. 11.

Table 3 Behavior Log for Intensive Instructional Strategies

| <i>Date</i> | | | |
|--|----------------------------------|-----------------|----------------|
| <i>Individualized Behavior Goal</i> <i>Guiding Question:</i> What is the response for a student who demonstrates challenging behaviors? | <i>Behavior Support Strategy</i> | | |
| | Social story | | |
| | Individualized self-regulation | | |
| | Individualized behavior contract | | |
| | Individualized token economy | | |
| | Individualized precorrection | | |
| <i>Student Names</i> | <i>Type of Data</i> | | |
| | <i>Frequency</i> | <i>Duration</i> | <i>Latency</i> |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |

Source: Adapted from Sayeski and Brown (2011), Figure 1, p. 11.

then be totaled. Lastly, *latency* is recording how long it takes the student to start a behavior after a cue of some kind. A cue can be anything from the teacher giving directions to a bell ringing to indicate it is time for class to start. For example, the teacher records the time when directions were given for a test in class, then the time the student started the test. The latency period is the number of minutes between the teacher giving directions and the student starting the test.

Once the behavior needs have been established, the teacher must document intervention strategies and continue documenting the behavior the same way he or she did when establishing the behavioral need. Some behaviors require a functional behavior assessment before determining an intervention, yet other behaviors do not. To accurately monitor progress, a distinction must be made in the documentation of the student's behavior before and after the intervention is implemented. Therefore, it is important to label the recording sheet or product accordingly. Examples of behavior logs that can be used to record behavior are provided in the next section.

Examples of Behavior Logs and Tiered Documentation of Interventions

Behavior logs should include students' names, dates, rules, and a place to document positive behaviors as well (see Table 1). In this example, students' names are documented, checks for positive behaviors in the left column, checks for rules that were broken in the right columns, and the date.

Behavior logs for students who need targeted or even intensive instruction for appropriate behaviors need to be kept as well. Examples adapted from Sayeski and Brown for both targeted and intensive instructional strategies are provided (see Tables 2 and 3). These logs document the behavior expectation that is being targeted, the type of intervention strategy, the type of documentation, the student's name, and the date. In these examples, students' names are documented; the behavior expectation is written; and the intervention, the type of data, and the date are recorded.

Conclusion

Documentation of behavior management allows for accountability. It involves not only recording behaviors of students but also strategies teachers and administrators use to teach appropriate behaviors. Effective documentation includes the behavior expectations and

classroom procedures; dates, descriptions, and duration of challenging behaviors that need to be addressed; instructional strategies used to increase appropriate behaviors; and student behavioral progress. For students who require more instruction and guidance, behavior documentation should summarize the specific behavior that will be addressed and the evidence-based instruction that will teach and encourage appropriate behaviors.

Vanessa Hinton

See also Assessing Classroom Management; Assessment of Students; Assessment of Teacher–Student Relationships; Behavior Support Plans; Disabilities and Classroom Management; Evidence-Based Classroom Management; Functional Analysis; Functional Behavioral Assessment; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports

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DROPOUT PREVENTION

High school dropout rates have declined slowly but steadily during the last decade; however, high school dropout remains a top priority for communities, administrators, and teachers. Students who do not complete high school are at risk for a variety of economic, health, and social consequences. Unemployment, welfare dependency, lower earnings, mental health issues, gang membership, criminal activity, and time

spent in jail are all higher for young adults who do not complete high school.

The 2010 national status dropout rate was 7.4%; however, the rate varies significantly by ethnicity, income level, and location. Hispanics, American Indians, Alaskan Natives, and African Americans from lower economic levels and/or from urban areas are all significantly more likely to drop out. This entry provides a brief description of risk factors associated with dropout and a summary of evidence for promising intervention strategies.

Dropout Risk Factors

The majority of research related to high school dropout has focused on identifying risk factors. In general, these risk factors have been divided into two groups: alterable risk factors and status risk factors. *Alterable risk factors* are those that can be changed through interventions, while *status risk factors* such as race, health, or location either cannot be changed or are more difficult to change. In addition to these categories, some researchers and policymakers are beginning to look at school- and system-level factors that may lead to increased risk for dropout. Based on analysis of these risk factors, it is now possible to identify students, early on, who are at risk for high school dropout. In most cases, no one risk factor can be tied directly to a student's decision to drop out. Typically multiple risk factors play a role in a long, slow process of disengagement from school.

Common alterable risk factors include

- Early adult responsibilities
- Attitudes, values, and beliefs related to the importance of school or occupational aspirations
- Behavioral deviance such as drug use, early sexual activity, and trouble with the law
- Frequent suspensions or expulsion
- Stressful life events, peer rejection, student mobility
- Poor academic achievement, grade retention
- Poor attendance or frequent tardy arrival
- Negative school climate or teachers perceived as not caring

Dropout Prevention: Interventions and Recommendations

Despite the national attention on reducing dropout rates, there is surprising little research testing the effectiveness of dropout interventions. What Works Clearinghouse (WWC) has reviewed and identified programs that are designed to help students stay in school and graduate. Program descriptions, reviews, and the

criteria used for these evaluations can be found on the WWC's website. Several additional resources have been published that combine research findings with expert opinion in order to provide a set of recommendations for reducing high school dropout rates. The Institute for Educational Science's (IES) practice guide for dropout interventions provides six key recommendations which align closely to those in other guides.

- Use data systems to identify students at risk early.
- Provide adult advocates to students at risk.
- Provide academic support and enrichment.
- Implement programs to improve students' classroom behavior and social skills.
- Provide personalized learning environments and individualized instruction.
- Provide rigorous and relevant instruction to better engage students in learning. (Dynarski et al., 2008, p. 6)

Despite recommendations for early identification and systems of intervention, most dropout intervention programs are intensive and offer individualized support, but the programs are often not implemented until the student is already in high school—when it may be too late. Emerging evidence from research suggests that a more efficient and effective approach to dropout intervention is the early use of universal multicomponent interventions. Multicomponent interventions target more than one risk factor at a time. For example, a mentoring program may provide academic tutoring, social skills instruction, and an advocate for the student. Universal interventions are provided for all students regardless of observable risk factors. For example, making improvements to school climate and providing all students with both high-quality academic instruction and social skills training may prevent students from disengaging from school and reduce the need for intensive individualized interventions later on.

Universal schoolwide interventions such as Response to Intervention or Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports provide a framework to guide schools toward using data to effectively implement schoolwide universal interventions, as well as identify students at risk early and target interventions appropriately. In addition, some evidence points to school organizational structures (such as school size or the use of teaming) and school policies (such as frequent use of retention or suspension) that can affect dropout rates.

Conclusion

High school dropout remains an important concern for educators. Many risk factors have been linked to a

student's risk for dropout. The decision to drop out of school is typically a long process of disengagement from school and is more likely when multiple risk factors are present. Emerging research and expert opinions suggest that universal, multicomponent interventions delivered early in a student's career may be the most efficient and effective way to address the dropout issue. Academic and social skills building, connection with adult mentors and advocates, and school climate and organization are all important elements in preventing students from disengaging from school and eventually dropping out.

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See also Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; Tiered Assignments

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DRUGS AND ALCOHOL

Educators are often confronted with the concern or realization that their students are using drugs or alcohol. These substances can have a profound ability to interfere with an adolescent's capacity to learn and function. It is paramount, therefore, that schools and educators develop ways of helping students with drug- or alcohol-related problems. The focus of this entry is to explain how that help may be delivered.

Adolescent Substance Use and Associated Problems

High school remains a time when many students experiment with drinking and drugs, despite laws prohibiting their use by adolescents. Because of their higher engagement in impulsive decision making and risky behaviors, adolescents may be more susceptible to problems with substance use. Further, numerous hereditary and environmental factors may also impact adolescents' vulnerability to addiction.

Alcohol, nicotine, and marijuana are three of the most commonly abused substances. According to the 2012 statistics from the largest yearly survey of U.S. students, *Monitoring the Future*, 7 out of 10 high school students have used alcohol by the time of graduation. In addition, survey results estimate that 45.2% of 12th grade students have tried marijuana, and 6.5% of 12th grade students use it on a daily basis. Other abused substances include amphetamines, cocaine, inhalants, hallucinogens, and designer drugs such as MDMA (i.e., molly and ecstasy).

Adolescents also frequently misuse prescription drugs, such as stimulants, opioids, and benzodiazepines. By the time they graduate, 21.2% of teenagers take prescription drugs without a doctor's approval. Many opioid drugs are legitimately prescribed for pain conditions by physicians, including Percocet, Oxycontin, Dilaudid, and morphine. Unfortunately, many young people obtain these medications illicitly from friends, family members, or drug dealers. Accidental overdoses of opioids leading to death are not uncommon.

The benzodiazepines (e.g., alprazolam, clonazepam, and diazepam, which are used for the treatment of anxiety) can also be addictive substances when used for pleasure and can be deadly when taken in excess. Like alcohol, if not appropriately tapered under the care of a physician, benzodiazepines can be lethal during withdrawal.

These problems associated with substance abuse are further complicated when educators suspect a student is using while in their classroom. A student who has arrived high or who is acting intoxicated or disinhibited can disrupt an entire classroom. Not only can this make for a difficult situation to handle, it may lead to school discipline, serious reprimands, or even criminal charges.

How Can We Intervene?

There are currently no nationally standardized ways to intervene and manage adolescent substance misuse, and so schools have adopted a wide range of disciplinary responses. Frequently, schools default to a

zero-tolerance policy even though there is minimal evidence that a zero-tolerance policy is an effective method for prevention/treatment of substance use in adolescents. In many school districts, consequences and punishments are made on an individual basis.

Whatever the particular school or district policy may be, when it comes to substance abuse there are a number of challenging questions, such as “How does one identify or address concerns that a student may be using substances?” “How does one intervene with those students who have already developed substance abuse addiction?” “How can providers and educators get involved in a helpful and supportive way?”

Intervening in an optimal way can significantly increase the chance that those students obtain proper treatment. However, educators vary in their level of desire, ability, and comfort for engaging in conversations with students about substance misuse. Teachers may be reluctant to talk to the student for fear they do not have the expertise, authority, or permission to address the topic. However, school adults are on the front lines and in a prime position to observe behavioral and functional changes in those students potentially misusing substances. There are, then, good reasons for school adults to get involved by taking the following steps:

Recognizing Those at Risk

Teachers may become suspicious or gain knowledge of a student’s substance use from direct conversation, from concerned peers, through writing compositions, or by noticing concerning behaviors. These behaviors may include a change in functioning as demonstrated by a decline in grades, social isolation, absenteeism, a suspicious car accident, or lack of motivation to participate in their previously enjoyed extracurricular activities.

Teachers may be fearful about falsely accusing students who are not actually misusing substances. Attributing a decline in school functioning or behavioral changes to substance use when other factors are potentially at play can rupture the relationship between teacher and student and alienate the student, possibly making him or her feel even more misunderstood and marginalized.

After taking the appropriate actions as prescribed by the school protocol, a teacher can refer the student to the school social worker or psychologist for an initial screening. Screening for contributing psychological factors such as depression, anxiety, low self-esteem, trauma, or an unstable home environment should be performed.

Starting a Conversation

When a school adult (be it a counselor, administrator, or teacher) recognizes these signs and chooses to have a discussion with the student, a sensitive, informed approach can dramatically affect the adolescent’s willingness to get help and change the student’s trajectory. When school adults speak with the student and/or family about their concerns, conveying care and avoiding shaming the student is crucial to building a collaborative process. By providing clear and concrete examples of what the school adults have observed, the student may have more trouble minimizing the problem. Statements such as “I’ve noticed that it has been harder for you to get to school, or to turn in assignments,” or “It is important for us to figure out what could be causing these changes,” sound less accusatory and make a student more open for discussion.

Parents may sometimes deny that their child is using, minimize it as a normal expected process, or become angry that their child is being targeted. This can be very troubling to school adults, as they may feel that their authority is undermined. Finding a way to unite around a common goal to help the student is imperative, and having concrete steps of intervention is useful in promoting a willingness to maintain collaboration.

It can be helpful to give the student a choice of which adult he or she would like to work with to resolve the problem. Options for assistance should be tailored to the individual student and may include a pediatrician, school counselor, psychiatrist, or parent. Depending on the school district, consulting psychiatrists may be available to assist in the intervention.

Motivational Interviewing

Motivational interviewing (MI) has proven to be an effective way to engage students who might not recognize their own substance use as a problem. MI uses the *stages of change* model, which has five stages of readiness to make a health behavior change. These include precontemplation, contemplation, preparation, action, and maintenance. The three major core components of MI are expressing empathy, developing discrepancy, and supporting self-efficacy.

MI promotes integrity because it helps people to clarify their core values and consider how to live in greater consistency with them. See the list of further readings to learn more about MI, which can be employed by any individual or educator.

Reintegration

When reintegrating students after a suspension, detention, or criminal charge (such as a felony for

dealing or a misdemeanor for possession), one must keep in mind that prior reprimands may be embarrassing to students and that privacy should be maintained. Keeping a level of open communication between providers and educators with the permission of the student and family can help foster change.

Policies for Responding to Substance Abuse

What steps and legal reporting requirements exist if a teacher hears of drinking at a house, or that parents are commonly involved in aiding minors to obtain alcohol? Although there are no absolute answers to these questions, addressing these situations with a thoughtful approach is paramount.

In school settings, each school district is responsible for developing a school board policy regarding the typical zero tolerance toward concealed weapons and drugs on school grounds. The notion of zero tolerance emerged during the 1990s, and school boards are encouraged to use several guidelines in developing these policies. When addressing drug and alcohol issues, school administrators must be cognizant of a student's rights associated with substantive (individual) and procedural due process in order to avoid arbitrary and capricious actions by school officials.

Conclusion

Educators are often the first to identify problematic behavior changes in their students, including changes brought about by substance abuse. Educators are, then, in a position to help adolescents who are misusing substances or who are at risk of doing so. School adults who take a thoughtful, compassionate, and respectful approach when talking to students suspected of misusing substances can ultimately improve a student's desire and ability to engage in treatment. Furthermore, school policies can help turn reactions to substance abuse from being punitive to being helpful for the long term.

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See also Behavior Disorders; Law and Classroom Management; Monitoring; Safety, Policies for Ensuring; Schoolwide Discipline Policies

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DYNAMIC AND RELATIONAL SYSTEMS THEORY

Dynamic and relational systems theory provides a way of looking at and explaining development. As a way of looking, it leaves the heavy work of data collection and problem solution to us. That is, it serves not to prescribe best practice but to approach problems with an eye toward complexity that can unearth the unexpected and lead to more powerful practice. Therefore, this entry is not so much about methods for managing classrooms as it is about a better way of defining classroom management and its development—one that may generate new and better ways of developing classrooms into good learning environments.

Traditional Ways of Defining Classroom Management

Traditional ways of defining classroom management view the classroom as composed of distinct elements so that the job of managing classrooms becomes one of

identifying the separate causes of children's behavior and implementing methods to address those causes. So, for example, classroom management is assumed to be about teachers implementing best practice so that students are motivated and cooperative and so that there are supports in the form of routines, instruction, rules, physical arrangement of desks, and so forth. Using this traditional way of thinking, the causes of students' behavior and misbehavior are seen in terms of separate influences coming not only from teachers and fellow students but also from families, students' biological makeup, and their culture—all spoken of as independent elements in their own right.

Thinking this way promotes the traditional research approach of defining independent and dependent variables and thinking in terms of *this causes that*. So, for example, a student's misbehavior may be attributed to his or her biology (e.g., attention deficit hyperactivity disorder [ADHD]), culture (one that is different from the culture of the teacher), language (e.g., not English), particular antecedents and consequences preceding and following target behaviors, or all of the above. Using this way of thinking about problems in the classroom, we look perhaps to change biology (e.g., with medications), provide language instruction, accommodate cultural differences, and control antecedents and consequences so as to modify behavior.

This way of thinking and what it may lead to provides opportunities to solve problems, help students, and manage classrooms—and so the paradigm or overall mindset that sees classroom management and influences on students in terms of discrete, independent elements is reinforced and goes unquestioned. However, there is another paradigm and overall mindset, that of dynamic and relational systems theory, which may work even better.

Dynamic and Relational Systems Ways of Defining Classroom Management

The terms *dynamic* and *relational* give a hint as to the different mindset of those adopting a dynamic and relational systems theory mindset. Instead of viewing classroom management as composed of discrete elements, each with a meaning independent of the others, the dynamic and relational systems theory mindset sees the meaning of teacher and students, individual and culture, biology and behavior, and all other dichotomies found in the ways classroom management is usually described and explained, as being intertwined. Using this mindset, culture is *in* the student and not a separate entity, and rather than the biology of a student being seen as determining a student's behavior and learning (as so often is the case when people reduce a

student's behavior to a student having ADHD or to being learning-disabled), the reverse becomes equally plausible—with behavior and learning deeply influencing biological development. The dynamic and relational systems way of describing and explaining is not, then, like other interactionist perspectives emphasizing how distinct variables can interact to cause something; it is a radical way of speaking about interaction—one that makes it impossible to reduce problems to this or that cause.

The practical significance of this radical interactionism lies in its leading us to acknowledge and embrace complexity and, in so doing, to think in terms of multiple perspectives and multiple points of entry. We might still choose to attend to biology or to antecedents and consequences or to some other focus or perspective on some problem—but as a perspective, we realize we could adopt a good many other perspectives as well. We need not reduce the problem to one perspective only. We might intervene with, say, a reward system or with a group discussion about rules, but treat these as single methods and, while using a dynamic and relational mindset, we might look to adopt a host of other methods as well—with no one method, however evidence-based it might be, being privileged.

A Simple Example: Lining Up During a Transition

An example might help to make clear the possibilities when adopting a dynamic and relational systems theory mindset. Consider the seemingly simple and straightforward problem of teaching school-age children to line up at the classroom door for the purpose of making a transition to an out-of-class activity. Thinking in traditional ways, the expectation might be that during the first days of school, the lining up will be somewhat haphazard, but that over time the lining up will go quickly, quietly, and smoothly or at least reasonably so. To better ensure that this goal is reached and during the first week of school, teachers might set rules and expectations about lining up and explain to the children the consequences for not following rules or not living up to expectations. And the advice may also be about making explicit what is expected behavior (hands and feet to self, eyes on the person in front of you).

Such advice and methods may serve teachers well and accomplish the goal of getting children to line up in a reasonably efficient and acceptable way. However, the advice and methods ignore complexity. Why, for example, is lining up to make a transition out of the classroom important in the first place? Is lining up really central to good classroom management and along

with other common whole-group practices (e.g., circle or meeting time) central to the meaning of schooling? Raising questions such as these invites at least thoughtful reflection that might well lead to either eliminating lining up as a method or to redefining the meaning of lining up to allow for a new form of lining up not captured in traditional ways; for example, having students line up electronically using some new computer application and then leaving the classroom when the computer indicates it is time to leave. Whether this electronic lining up is a good idea or not is beside the point. The point is that lining up, just like the rest of what we take for granted as inherent in classroom and schoolwide protocol, is not some static thing that has one meaning only. Its meaning and purpose derive from the system it is in and that system may be, indeed is likely to be, ever changing.

Or suppose that a traditional way of lining up is the method chosen for making a smooth transition out of the classroom, but there is one child who continually disrupts the lining-up process, a boy, say, from a poor neighborhood where cultural norms differ from the norms of the school. This problem along with other behavior problems have won the boy the diagnosis of ADHD and the label of *special needs kid* along with a host of unusual treatments called *supports*—such as a carefully designed plan to reinforce his lining up properly and having him suffer negative consequences if he does not line up properly. From a traditional view of problems, causes, and methods for managing classrooms, all this seems not only sensible; it may also seem like the only sensible way—at least with respect to helping the boy line up properly.

But using a dynamic and relational systems mindset, we might keep traditional methods for the boy (e.g., medication, behavioral reinforcements) but change their meaning in subtle ways—by changing the overall context for the lining up as we attend to multiple systems (large and small) that make up the context for lining up. We might, for example, focus on the boy's family system for dealing with compliance and noncompliance and notice that the parents and their cultural tradition have no problems getting the boy to line up or do other simple things—because they use certain words with certain facial expressions and certain body postures that communicate a positive kind of authority that the boy has come to respect and follow. We might learn from the parents and parents' culture ways of helping the boy line up that get the job done but without stigmatizing the boy and while playing to the boy's strengths, not weaknesses.

Of course, we might not choose such a happy way of intervening or we might try to do so, but fail—a dynamic and relational systems mindset does not dictate

what to do, nor does it ensure treatment integrity. All it ensures is a kind of reflection that is more encompassing than traditional mindsets for defining problems and solutions to problems. This is no small achievement. That is, just because the theory or mindset does not tell one what to do does not negate its value. In fact, any theory that tells one what to do can lead to more harm than good—since judgment should never be taken out of the equation of serving children well.

Conclusion

A dynamic and relational systems theory of classroom management is a way of thinking that sees classroom management not in terms of discrete, independent entities (teachers, students, instruction, learning, discipline, etc.) but rather as dynamic systems in constant motion and often leading not just to change but also to development. As a way of thinking, it opens us up to more complexity than one is apt to see using a traditional mindset—and in doing so, there is the promise of more refined, creative, and positive methods and approaches for serving students and creating good learning environments.

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See also Approaches to Classroom Management: Types; Points of Entry and Classroom Supports

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DYSFUNCTIONAL CLASSROOM SYSTEMS

The classroom can usefully be described as a system and context in which learning is encouraged to take place. There are many components to that system, and when the teacher understands the classroom as a

system to be managed, then that teacher is more likely to be successful. This entry discusses the benefits of system theory as a tool for identifying, understanding, and resolving the problems that characterize the dysfunctional classroom. The premise in systems theory is that it is important to identify the controlling variables in the system—those that most directly affect behavior and learning—and change those variables, not necessarily blame the child or the teacher.

Systems Theory and Classroom Management

Systems theory treats all human behavior and learning as influenced by the different types of environmental systems in which students and teachers exist. This ecological theory helps us understand why students and teachers may behave differently when placed in different contexts, such as different schools or classrooms. Systems theory helps to explain why some students will learn in one classroom context and not in another. Indeed, it may be unreasonable to try to understand student learning and behavior without first understanding the various systems or contexts that can affect students and teachers.

In traditional classroom management, the teacher is most often directed to observe the student's learning and behavior directly, but without the benefit of the system context that could bring more insights into why the student is behaving inappropriately or failing to learn. In this scenario, the student is always the problem, and the teacher is always the sole professional responsible for the student continuing to misbehave or not learning in school.

Components of the Systems Theory Model

In the most basic terms, systems theory might best be visualized as a nested model of concentric circles. The development of an individual student's learning and behavior is reflective of five environmental systems. At the core is the microsystem; next comes the mesosystem, surrounded by the exosystem, and the macrosystem. The fifth is the chronosystem, which pervades all other parts of the system model.

The *microsystem* is the system in which the student lives every day. Included within this microsystem are the student's family, friends, school, extracurricular activities, job, and neighborhood, to name a few. The nature of the relationship of the student to the microsystem is reciprocal. The system influences the student and student influences the system. For example, if students live

in a low-income neighborhood with both parents working in the evenings and the parents themselves having had little schooling, it is not as likely that the students will get their homework done. Because these same parents may be unable to come to parent-teacher conferences due to their work schedules, student and parents alike may have a diminished sense of engagement with school. A good classroom manager will consider this microsystem before arriving at any conclusion that the student is simply unmotivated to learn.

The *mesosystem* represents all the possible interactions between the parts of the student's microsystem. These interactions can have a positive or a negative influence on the student's behavior and learning. For example, let us assume that a student's family is a member of a church whose liturgical teachings are intolerant of gender identity differences or homosexuality. In this particular case, that student may become homophobic if those attributions are not respected but nevertheless managed properly. So, for example, that student and family might hold to their religious beliefs but might also be tolerant of every student's right to be educated no matter what their gender identity. On the other hand, that same church might preach, "Love Thy Neighbor." That same student in such a church congregation might be moved to help with Habitat for Humanity or a similar project, volunteer at the food pantry, or become a peer tutor in an area of study he or she enjoys, thus taking pride in these academic accomplishments as a means for helping others.

The *exosystem* is the ecological system of larger societal institutions that may indirectly affect microsystems for the student and teacher. These institutions include social and school policies created by local and state government, the local Parent Teacher Association, attitudes and beliefs in the broader community, newspapers, radio, and TV stations, as well as local businesses and how they operate in the community. For example, teachers in some states have become distressed to hear that tenure has been abolished by the state legislature and that there will be no raises this year. Those teachers may have less emotional tolerance for student misbehavior because they feel a lack of support from parents, community, and the state, which translates into less behavior tolerance in the classroom. This may explain, in part, why some teachers reflexively send students to the office or suspend them for minor infractions. It has been estimated that students of color will be suspended or expelled up to 20 times more than white students, and the usual consequence for bullying is suspension. A systems perspective would suggest that frequency of student suspensions should be monitored in terms of a rationale for the suspension, the characteristics of the student suspended, and whether the suspension brought

about the expected behavior change. If discrimination is the primary cause for the suspension or if the suspension did not work, and classroom misbehavior or bullying continues, then the strategy should be rethought.

The *macrosystem* involves the culture (and perhaps various subcultures) where the student lives. This system involves the attitudes, beliefs, behavior patterns, and living environment of the world around the student. For example, Native American students attending a reservation school may not see the value of further education after high school if their primary goal is to remain in their community on the reservation, even though they are capable of being outstanding students in college. High school teachers will often cite material rewards as the incentive for students to perform well in school: "Don't you want a nice house and a nice car?" If the student is not materially motivated, however, then those incentives will have little or no value.

The *chronosystem* includes natural events, various developmental and personal transitions over time (favorable or unfavorable), and sociohistorical circumstances such as the current unavailability of jobs, the changing career market, and even the high cost of living in one's own apartment (thus the current phenomenon of boomerang kids). Today's students live at home longer or, after graduation, return home commonly to live with their parents. Natural events include such untoward events as tornadoes, hurricanes, wildfires, and earthquakes. Transitions include parent divorces, the death of a nuclear family or extended family member, or other life-altering events such as sickness, mental health challenges, or special needs. One can easily see that a student acting out in class might be engaging in this behavior to get the negative attention of the teacher, which is better than no attention or support at all. Many students prefer to go to their teachers for counseling before they will seek out a school counselor or school psychologist, who is not part of their immediate system. A student who needs help in grieving the loss of a grandparent may not have the social skills to ask for support. Other students might shut down emotionally and become passive-aggressive due to parents talking of divorce; the end of a marriage is usually a traumatic event for the couple's children. That is why some students will show the *thousand mile stare* in class because they are nervous and possibly traumatized about the future for themselves and their family. Teachers need to understand why the student has checked out today.

Teachers observe many different contextual variables that impact the lives of their students. Each student comes from a different microsystem, mesosystem, and, to some degree, different macrosystems. The important point is that while systems theory teaches that

most students will come from the same exosystem and chronosystem, they still must be understood individually because their microsystems and mesosystems are different. For these reasons, each student may react to a teacher in a different manner when a request for compliance, attention, start of work, cooperation, work stoppage, or effort is made.

For example, an excellent systems-based teaching strategy is to create classroom cohort groups among students with similar interests, backgrounds, motivations, and experiences. Let us say the discussion is about current events and the goal of the lesson is to discuss dwindling employment prospects and to determine ways to get an advantage in job-seeking. Using system theory, the teacher would divide students into several cohort groups based on students' shared subcultures or macrosystems. Next, students might create a flowchart of how they would respond to a slow job market to improve their chances of getting a summer job. Finally, students might share their work with other groups by creating new subsets of cohort groups containing members representing each of the original cohort groups. This positive classroom management and teaching method will allow students to take advantage of their unique ecological systems to share and learn from students who are not part of their macrosystem. In the process, students learn that the experiences of others are unique and that they might benefit from seeing the world from a different point of view.

A *location-specific curriculum* that employs a systems approach can also be used to enhance a sense of classroom community. A location-specific curriculum is rooted in local traditions and the uniqueness of a town. It includes learning about the local and regional ecology, economy, and culture. Students become experts on their local environment learning local history, stories, legends, rituals, and practices that have shaped the community and their place in it.

Yet another systems-based strategy is for students to learn the principles of positive communication and problem-solving conflict resolution by forming groups of three and identifying potential classroom conflicts that could reflect dysfunctional classroom systems. Teachers or students could develop ideas for such potential conflicts. Individual roles are assigned to each person in the group. Two students take opposite sides in the conflict and one student serves as the conflict resolution facilitator with close supervision by the teacher as students learn the communication and conflict resolution strategies involved.

First, students are assigned to role-play and reverse role-play various positions in the definition of the classroom conflicts. Students must state their positions in a positive manner, not accusatory, owning

their feelings and stating specifically how the conflict is frustrating to them. The other student is taught listening skills and guided to respectfully ask for clarification if needed. Then in a democratic manner, roles are reversed and the second student gets to state his or her position in defining the conflict in a nonaccusatory manner while the first student listens. Second, students on both sides of the conflict brainstorm possible solutions to the classroom conflict as specified. Third, students evaluate the pros and cons of each solution offered. Fourth, students are asked to vote on which conflict resolution approaches they think would work best. There may be more than one resolution. Fifth, impasses are resolved by further discussing the likelihood of success for each conflict resolution approach selected. Sixth, a contract is developed, signed, and monitored for compliance by all parties in follow-up meetings.

Once this approach has been rehearsed with the students using imaginary but potential classroom conflicts, then the teacher and the students are ready to move on to apply these new interpersonal communication and problem-solving conflict resolution skills to some real dysfunctional classroom system challenges in their own classroom. These might include bullying, arguments, class disruptions, misunderstandings, poor manners, and disrespect. Regular classroom meetings employing this problem-solving conflict resolution approach can prevent the escalation of problems in the classroom at large and between individual students. This management strategy can teach valuable interpersonal skills, including listening, empathy, cooperation, sharing, impulse control, anger management, conflict resolution, and concern for the rights of others, as well as the entire classroom as a functioning system.

Conclusion

Classroom systems can be categorized into types according to how well they are functioning to promote good learning environments:

Dysfunctional classroom systems: Constant struggle for order in lieu of academic success

Adequate classroom systems: Continuing struggle for order, frequent disruptions but some academic work takes place

Orderly classroom systems: Restrictive learning environment with effective management of academic work

Orderly and enabling classroom systems: Smoothly run classrooms with a diversity of interdependent instructional strategies

In summary, a systems approach to understanding teaching, student learning, and classroom management can best be described in terms of reciprocal accountability. Both teachers and students work within the structure of systems. Schools and teachers have a responsibility to understand their students within their individual systems and contexts, and students have the responsibility to reciprocate by achieving to the best of their abilities, given that the classroom environment has been differentiated to meet the unique needs of individual students so as to create a supportive community of learners.

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See also Boundaries; Ecological Approaches; Interpersonal Systems and Problem Behavior

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DYSLEXIA: INDIVIDUALIZING INSTRUCTION

Dyslexia is a Greek word. The prefix *dys* means impaired. The base word *lexi* is short for *lexicon*, which means mental dictionary. The suffix *a* marks *having a condition* expressed in the base word. So *dyslexia* is a specific condition related to impaired word-level skills. Students with *dyslexia* struggle in learning to pronounce written words, when they cannot rely on meaning cues and spell written words. This entry discusses the learning profile associated with *dyslexia*, the ways in which *dyslexia* is assessed, and a variety of specific plans and strategies for oral and written instruction of students with *dyslexia* from early childhood through middle and secondary school and young adulthood. Emphasized throughout is the importance of a positive learning environment and the value of promoting students' sense of self-efficacy, self-worth, and motivation to succeed.

Identifying Dyslexia

Research has identified biological bases for dyslexia. These include gene variations and brain differences. Yet dyslexia is not a medical disorder—it is a specific learning disability in a healthy student who does respond to instruction. Nor is dyslexia a developmental or an acquired disorder, both of which are also associated with difficulty in learning to read and write. Students with dyslexia are developing typically, except for a very specific struggle in learning to read and spell words.

Creating an appropriate educational environment is an effective treatment, as has also been shown in research. Unfortunately, schools are not given evidence-based guidelines for identifying and teaching students with dyslexia. The federal special education laws use eligibility criteria for qualifying for special education services under broad categories such as learning disabilities. The criteria vary widely from state to state and generally do not define specific learning disabilities such as dyslexia. However, there is nothing in the law that prevents schools from proactively identifying children with the hallmark learning profile associated with dyslexia and individually tailoring instruction to their instructional needs:

- Onset in kindergarten and first grade when student struggles in learning to name and often write letters and learn sounds that correspond to letters
- Student struggles in learning oral reading of written words, especially out of sentence context with meaning cues
- Student struggles in spelling written words in isolation and in his or her own writing

Research has shown that the earlier students with this learning profile are identified and given appropriate instruction, the better the outcome. In fact, there is no evidence that pull-out special education services are as or more effective than provision of the appropriate instruction in the general education classroom. However, other professionals in the multidisciplinary team should help general education teachers identify the children with hallmark characteristics of dyslexia so that appropriate instruction tailored to their learning differences can be planned and implemented. Although early identification and intervention in the primary grades are desirable, if that has not happened, it is still possible and essential in the upper grades to conduct diagnostic assessment to plan individually tailored instruction for students with dyslexia (and other disabilities interfering with learning).

Multidisciplinary assessment is needed because not all reading and spelling problems are dyslexia.

There are other causes of reading and writing problems, and the appropriate individually tailored instruction depends on identifying the nature of the problem interfering with a student's learning. In some cases, a student falls outside the normal range in all or selected developmental domains and is not a typically developing learner. Dyslexia should only be diagnosed in students whose development is otherwise normal except for the specific problems in learning to read and spell words.

Some students have a specific oral and written learning disability (OWL LD) that is often confused with dyslexia but results from impairments in combining words rather than in words alone. The first signs of OWL LD are in the preschool years when children are late talkers—both for single words and combining words. They may also have trouble understanding heard language. During the school years, students with OWL LD often have continuing problems in listening and reading comprehension and written expression of ideas. Students with OWL LD need individually tailored instruction such as learning how to use

- function words (prepositions, conjunctions, pronouns, articles) to glue together content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs) to create syntactic structures; and
- word order specific to academic language (written register) to unscramble sentence anagrams into sensible sentences.

Children with OWL LD also may benefit from explicit instruction in learning to listen, follow directions, express ideas orally, use language for social acts, and interpret the social uses of language by others.

Research has identified behavioral indicators of the biological bases of dyslexia. These include impairments in phonological awareness (holding spoken words in memory while thinking about their component sounds), orthographic awareness (holding written words in memory while thinking about their component letters), and rapid automatic naming and writing of letters. These behavioral indicators provide instructional clues for the tailoring of decoding instructions to help students with dyslexia learn to read and spell words. Effective instruction teaches the alternative correspondences between one- and two-letter spelling units and phonemes to decode and spell unfamiliar words. Reversing letters has not been shown in research to be a defining feature of dyslexia.

Students with dyslexia may also have other co-occurring disorders. These include *dysgraphia*, a condition of impaired letter writing by hand, and *attention deficit disorder* (ADD), a condition that impairs ability

to focus on what is relevant (ignore what is irrelevant), switch attention (from one letter to the next within a word), sustain attention (stay on task over time), and self-monitor (review their work in progress and revise when necessary). Students with co-occurring dysgraphia and/or ADD benefit from differentiated instruction in general education, which addresses their instructional needs not only for dyslexia but also for these co-occurring disorders, which may sometimes occur alone without dyslexia. For example, students with dysgraphia need explicit instruction in forming the component strokes of letters to produce legible letters automatically or in using technology tools to generate correctly spelled words in well-formed clauses. They may also need explicit strategy instruction for focusing on task at hand, staying on task, switching tasks, and organizing and completing their work at school and at home in a timely fashion.

Equity Issues

Studies of how frequently dyslexia occurs in the school-age population show that at least one in five children may have the biological risk factors for dyslexia with or without co-occurring disorders such as dysgraphia and ADD. Dyslexia with or without dysgraphia and ADD occurs in all socioeconomic groups, races, cultures, and languages. Thus, it is concerning that minority students are overrepresented in special education, especially minority students whose parents' level of education and income are lower than average. General education teachers who have received appropriate preservice and inservice professional development for teaching students with dyslexia and other related conditions have an important role to play in narrowing the achievement gap between those whose families do have adequate parental education and economic resources and those whose families do not.

Individually Tailoring Instruction in Groups

At first glance, individually tailoring instruction for one in five (on average) of one's students may seem like an overwhelming task. Fortunately, there are evidence-based approaches to do so in a feasible, efficient way. All students exhibit individual differences in their instructional levels at the beginning of each grade and show patterns of strengths and weaknesses in their learning profiles. Neither general education nor special education teachers have the resources to teach individual students one-to-one. However, instruction can be delivered to groups of students at similar instructional levels in ways that are mindful of individual differences in relative strengths and weaknesses within learning

profiles. For students with dyslexia, the weaknesses are the behavioral indicators of dyslexia—phonological and orthographic awareness and automatic naming and writing of letters. But students with dyslexia have not only these weaknesses but also strengths. These strengths, which may be in oral expression, science problem solving, math, creative and performing arts, athletics, and so on, also need to be acknowledged and nurtured within general education groups. That is the puzzle of dyslexia—why affected students struggle so in learning to read and spell words despite their other strengths. So how can general education classroom teachers, faced with the challenge meeting the instructional needs for *all* students including those with dyslexia, realistically provide individually tailored group instruction?

Grouping Plan in the Elementary Grades

Research evidence shows that the *walk about* model is effective. Teachers administer informal reading inventories to identify instructional levels based on accuracy in reading words on a list without context clues and on reading comprehension (retelling or summarizing the story and answering factual recall and inferential thinking questions). Then all teachers across grade levels offer reading and writing instruction at the same block of time in groups formed by common instructional levels so instruction can be aimed at a level at which children can succeed but also advance. So that children do not perceive stigma related to their achievement level, at the time for written language instruction, children walk to the classroom with the instructional group to which they are assigned. Teachers are responsible for providing instruction for two or three small groups, each at comparable instructional levels, and can individualize as needed within those groups. Students with dyslexia can be monitored by periodic assessment, with normed measures of their accuracy and rate for reading real words and pseudo-words on a list and oral reading of passages.

Grouping Plan in the Middle School and High School Grades

At this developmental level, students typically receive instruction in five or six instructional blocks each day. Both teachers and students change across instructional blocks for different courses in the curriculum. Students with dyslexia and ADD may have difficulty adapting to the frequent changes in teachers and classmates. A solution that works well in general education during adolescence and is more effective than pull-out special education is assigning students with dyslexia to

a special section for explicit language instruction. That is, instead of just making written assignments to complete in class or at home based on the assumption that students will figure out how to do the assignment on their own through discovery (implicit teaching), teachers should provide explicit instruction in strategies for language learning (listening, oral expression, reading, and writing) across the curriculum and for completing different kinds of assignments.

For example, teachers should teach strategies for listening to instructional talk such as self-monitoring through ongoing internal dialogue:

Am I paying attention?

What's the main idea or point the teacher is trying to make?

What notes could I write to help me remember the main idea and other important information?

Teachers should also teach strategies for oral expression in large-group and small-group discussions in math, science, and social studies, as well as language arts. These include taking turns, listening to others who are speaking, sharing one's views and respecting others' views, and seeking clarification through asking questions.

Teachers should also teach strategies for reading words using sounds, spellings, bases/fixes, and vocabulary meaning to identify and understand words and for comprehending sentences and passages. These include, but are not restricted to, learning content-specific vocabulary, formulating guiding questions to self-regulate the reading comprehension process, summarizing, and retelling of passages from textbooks used in different content areas of the curriculum. Likewise, teachers should teach explicit strategies for self-regulation of writing, ranging from choosing and spelling words, creating structures for linking words together in sentences, and constructing paragraphs and text structures for multiple genres (narrative, informative essays, persuasive essays, and compare-and-contrast text).

Moreover, students in middle school benefit from explicit instruction in integrating reading and writing (reading source material, taking notes, writing summaries, integrating across sources, and writing reports) and integrating listening and writing (note taking and study skills for tests). Students also benefit from writing poetry and performing dramatic roles in plays, which draw on both oral and written language.

Explicit instruction in language learning is also especially effective if the teacher assigned to the special section(s) on explicit language instruction has

had professional preparation in teaching students with dyslexia. Although students with dyslexia may have responded well to earlier instruction individually tailored for dyslexia during early childhood, the biological vulnerability may remain and express itself differently in the upper grades. For example, students with dyslexia tend to need more explicit instruction in phonological awareness (clap the number of syllables in a spoken polysyllabic word and hold up finger for number of small sounds called phonemes in each syllable), orthographic awareness (holding written words in the mind's eye while identifying single letters or letter groups in designated word positions), and morphological awareness (segmenting words into bases and affixes that mark meaning and grammar); they also need explicit instruction in integrating phonological, orthographic, and morphological awareness for reading and spelling words of Anglo-Saxon, Romance (French and Latinate), and Greek origin. They also benefit from learning explicit executive function strategies for focusing, switching, and sustaining attention. At the same time they need grade-appropriate intellectually engaging instruction and activities.

Developmental Approach to Written Language Instruction

General Guidelines

At each developmental level, the focus of instruction should be on both written language alone (reading, writing) and integrated reading writing during the part of the instructional day devoted to language arts and across the content areas of the curriculum—for example, in math, science, and social studies. All students K–6 benefit from instruction aimed at the subword, word, and sentence/text levels within four language systems: language by ear (listening), language by mouth (oral expression), language by eye (reading), and language by hand (writing). In addition, it is important to engage children cognitively. Students with dyslexia are often very bright in every way except learning to read and spell words!

Most important, it is essential to monitor their response to instruction and keep careful records of their progress that both the student and teacher can review frequently. For example, keep a notebook with observations and periodic assessment of how they respond to the instruction. Note which skills they are learning and which they are not to plan alternative ways to teach them. Be alert when they are ready to move on to more challenging skills. This progress monitoring can also be used to pair students who could benefit from helping each other work on specific skills.

Early Childhood (Grades K–3)

In addition to instruction aimed at all levels of language within each of the four language systems (by ear, mouth, eye, and hand), children with dyslexia will require more instruction across the early grades in analyzing (1) spoken words at the subword level (phonemes or small sounds that correspond to alphabet letters) and word level (syllables and onset sound and remaining rime in each syllable) and (2) written words at the subword level (one- and two-letter spelling units that correspond to phonemes) and word level (letter positions and letter sequences specific to English). They will also need explicit instruction in applying these phonological awareness (spoken words) and orthographic awareness (written words) skills to decoding single real and fake words (pronounceable pseudowords without meaning), oral reading of passages at their instructional level (grouping words within sentences to express the musical melody of spoken language), and written spelling. Systematic spelling instruction with a grade-appropriate curriculum should be in place and not be delayed until the middle grades. The reading and spelling instruction should focus on the high-frequency words in conversation and writing of English and German origin.

Children with dyslexia who also have dysgraphia will need specialized instruction in naming letters and forming letters, stroke by stroke, and writing letters from memory until the letters they write are legible to others and written automatically. They should be taught to name and write manuscript (printed) letters in kindergarten, first, and second grades and cursive letters in third and fourth grades. They should also be given explicit instruction in using the mouse and forming letters on technology tools with index finger and stylus. However, at each grade level general education teachers should differentiate instruction for students who learn these writing modes either more easily or more slowly than classmates.

Children with dyslexia also benefit from explicit instruction in reading words specific to math, science, and social studies. If they also have dysgraphia, they will probably need explicit instruction in legible and automatic numeral writing.

Middle Childhood (Grades 4–6)

Both reading and spelling instruction should introduce words of Romance (Latin and French) and Greek origin. These tend to be three to five syllables long and have some different spelling–sound correspondences than the words of English–German origin, which tend to be one or two syllables long. In addition, morphological awareness activities should be introduced.

During middle childhood, children with dyslexia benefit from explicit instruction in the transition from oral reading to silent reading and continuing systematic spelling instruction. Explicit instruction should also be provided in integrating reading and writing, for example, taking notes and writing summaries when reading source materials and strategies for preparing written reports for long-term assignments. They also continue to need explicit instruction in word identification and spelling for the content-specific vocabulary across the curriculum in math, science, and social studies. If they also have dysgraphia, they may need explicit instruction in writing multiplace numbers with and without decimal places, number facts, and the rows and columns of computations in visual-spatial arrays.

Progress monitoring during middle childhood should focus on silent reading fluency—both silent word identification and comprehension of vocabulary, sentences, and text. In addition, spelling should be monitored—both dictated spelling and use of spelling in composing.

Adolescence (Grades 7–12)

During the secondary grades it is important to monitor whether students with dyslexia achieve grade-appropriate silent reading accuracy and rate. For students whose rate lags behind grade peers, extra time on tests can be provided as an accommodation, but it is also important to continue to provide explicit instruction in improving silent reading fluency during the language arts block. In addition, secondary students continue to need explicit instruction in word identification and spelling for the content-specific vocabulary across the curriculum in math, science, and social studies and in integrated reading writing, especially for different genres used across the curriculum. In addition, they benefit from explicit instruction in strategies for listening and taking notes during teacher lectures and using these notes to study for tests. Those with ADD need continued instruction in organizational skills for completing in-class and out-of-class assignments.

Young Adulthood (Postsecondary)

Current practices focus on accommodations for students with dyslexia such as more time on tests and scribes to take notes. Given the importance of access to higher education for career success after schooling, it is also important to provide explicit instruction for the transition from secondary to postsecondary education. For example, students with dyslexia may benefit from explicit instruction in the kinds of writing skills needed

in the postsecondary courses, strategies for listening and taking their own notes, effective use of technology, and organization strategies for satisfactory work completion with time limits.

Social, Emotional, and Motivational Issues

As early as kindergarten and first grade, teachers' verbal and nonverbal feedback to students can affect their self-concept (identity as a learner), self-worth (valued member of the learning community), self-efficacy (sense they can control their learning), and motivation to keep trying. Also, the verbal and nonverbal interactions with other students can affect their social-emotional functioning. Students with dyslexia have often given up on learning because they feel defeated as many of their peers outperform and surpass them in the classroom. Finally, another source of negative emotion and motivation may be repeated assessments to find out what is wrong with students who struggle in learning to read and write. They begin to think of themselves as different from others.

Teachers may be focused on teaching reading and writing skills, but should also keep in mind what they can do to foster positive self-concept, self-worth, self-efficacy, and motivation of their students. Long after those who struggled earlier in schooling learn to read and write, they often recall the long-term negative emotional consequences of how they were treated by teachers or classmates. They are also likely to remember the teacher who taught them that they had many strengths and to feel positive about themselves as students and human beings.

Also, a motivated student will get more out of a lesson than a student not motivated to learn. Teachers should use their creativity to make lessons as engaging and appealing as possible for students who may have given up on themselves. For example, to engage students' attention, the teacher may try using movement—for example, puppets—and involve multiple senses such as sight and smells related to the story in the lesson for the day, hands-on science experiments, or reading and acting play scripts.

By middle childhood, students who have not become successful in reading and writing are constructing their personal narrative about what they cannot do that other students can do. They may be learning to be hopelessly helpless in learning to read and write. Compassionate teachers who are tuned in to what students are feeling about their struggles in written language learning can help change this personal narrative if instruction is individually tailored to teach not only reading and writing skills but also a self-identity of a

student who is able to learn. Transforming learners who have given up on themselves into learners who believe in their ability to learn requires a multifaceted approach by the teacher:

- Creating a more positive learning environment if peers are sending negative feedback about the student's learning ability
- Providing students with concrete examples of their success to counteract negative personal narratives
- Monitoring the student's self-evaluation so that minor failures are not overblown into major ones

The approaches to creating positive self-concepts, self-efficacy, and motivation outlined for middle childhood are still relevant, but have to be adapted to the adolescent. The nature and mode of negative feedback sent from peers changes and may be less visible to the teacher. Two strategies may help many adolescents create a personal narrative of hope and positive self-identity. First, help all students identify their dependable strengths, which include both nonacademic and academic skills. Second, discuss with the class how such dependable strengths can be used in their future career path.

Nurturing Self-Regulation

Success at school requires both learning from the teacher and self-guided learning. Teachers are not always there to guide the learning process for the student. Therefore, students with dyslexia benefit from instruction in strategies for self-guided learning. At the same time, they need to learn strategies for asking for help when they need it.

Other Learning Disabilities

So far, this entry has focused on written language learning disabilities in students whose development is otherwise in the normal range. Other specific learning disabilities that affect students across early childhood, middle childhood, adolescence, and young adulthood include specific math disabilities such as dyscalculia and also nonverbal learning disabilities that may affect the visual-spatial aspects of math learning or social cognition (understanding others).

P-20 Life Span Approach

For the written language learning disabilities—dyslexia, dysgraphia, and OWL LD and co-occurring attention deficit—a P-20 (preschool through graduate school) approach can be very effective. A P-20 approach acknowledges the transition to kindergarten

and first grade as well as the transition from secondary/high school to postsecondary education. Students with dyslexia and other specific learning disabilities benefit from evidence-based identification, treatment, and progress monitoring across schooling. Such a P–20 approach has promise for ensuring equity. Each general education teacher who contributes along the journey, and each special education teacher who provides consultation to the general education teacher, contributes to the well-being of specific affected students and to society in general.

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See also Ability Grouping; Bilingualism and Students With Disabilities; Computer-Assisted Instruction; Inclusive Classrooms; Learning Disabilities; Reading, Language Arts, and Classroom Management; Reading Specialists and Classroom Management

Further Readings

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E

EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Managing a classroom of young children presents challenges not usually faced when dealing with a classroom of older students. Children under age six are not fully socialized, are emotionally immature, and think and feel differently about the world than older children do. Their psychological orientation is not wrong; it is just different and needs to be respected as age-appropriate.

This entry is divided into three sections. The first section provides an overview of the psychology of the young child and discusses the language, thought, and social and emotional development of this age group. The second section provides a review of the fundamental developmental tasks of the early childhood period. The final section addresses the matter of classroom management directly.

Psychology of the Young Child

Language and Thought of the Young Child

The research and theory of Jean Piaget (1896–1980) has solidified and clarified what earlier writers described as the unique worldview of this age group. Piaget highlighted a number of different facets of young children’s modes of thought.

Egocentrism. In talking to other children, preschoolers engage in what Piaget called *collective monologues* and speak at, rather than to, one another. That is, young children do not take other children’s perspective when it is different from their own. With respect to language, this

means that although children may take turns, they do not really listen and respond to what the other youngsters are saying. On the other hand, young children can be sympathetic to other children if the other preschoolers give visible signs of distress, such as crying. Egocentrism thus applies mainly to invisible thoughts rather than to observable feelings.

Purposivism. Young children believe that everything has a purpose and see the world from that perspective. This is most evident in their questions. When a child asks “Why does the sun shine?” he or she is not demanding a physical explanation of the relation of heat to light. Rather, the child wants to know *for what purpose the sun shines*. An age-appropriate answer might be *to keep us warm* or *to make the flowers and plants grow*. Such answers are not wrong and give the child a sense of being understood, as well as the comfort of knowing that it is okay to ask questions.

Animism. Life and death are complex biological concepts that are not fully understood until the age of about 9 or 10. Young children think of life and death in terms of movement; things that move are alive and things that do not move are dead. From this perspective, the same thing can be alive or dead. A stone is dead if it is still, but alive if it is rolling down the hill.

This means that children do not really understand death as a permanent condition. An example may help to illustrate this mode of thought. A four-year-old found a dead bird in the yard, and his father dug a hole to bury it. The son asked, “Why are you putting the bird in the ground?” The father replied that the bird was dead and needed to be put away. The son was troubled and asked, “But how can he fly away if you put him in

the ground?” With young children who have just lost a beloved grandparent, it is important to remember that they really do not understand death in the biological sense as the permanent loss of life.

Transductive Thinking. Young children may not have attained the age of reason, the ability to think in categorical terms. If an older child or adult is asked to define something such as a bike or an apple, he or she will usually put it in a higher-order category, such as a vehicle or fruit. In contrast, the young will say that a *bike is to ride* and that an *apple is to eat*. At this age, thinking is limited to the concrete level, and young children are unable to think in terms of larger categories.

This kind of thinking has important implications for the learning of rules. To learn a rule, one must be able to think categorically as in the classic Aristotelian syllogism:

Major premise: All men are mortal.

Minor premise: Socrates is a man.

Conclusion: Socrates is mortal.

That is the same kind of thinking that children must engage in to learn manners, not to mention all the rules that make up formal education.

With respect to manners, consider what is required to learn to say *please* or *thank you*.

Major premise: Whenever you ask someone for something, you say *please*.

Minor premise: I want to ask for a cookie.

Conclusion: I must say *please*.

This does not mean that we should not remind children to say *please* and *thank you*; that is how they will learn. But we should not expect them to follow the rule every time. For young children, saying *please* is more a matter of memory than of having learned a rule.

Nominal Realism. For children who are just learning language, words are not always clearly separated from things. Young children do not, for example, understand that the names of things are arbitrary. If you ask a young child if a dog might be called a cat, he or she is baffled that one could even think of that question. That is why children are so upset when they are called by the wrong name.

In the same way, young children are very upset when they are called bad names. They believe that having the name is the same as having the trait designated by the bad name. It is only when they have reached the age of

reason—which Piaget calls concrete operations—that children can chant, when called a bad name, “Sticks and stones will break my bones, but names will never hurt me.”

Social Development

Young children are living in a socializing environment. They are constantly absorbing the language, rules, customs, and practices of the society they live in. While some of these are fairly straightforward, such as manners and habits, others are more complex.

In this regard, it is well to remember that good habits are as hard to break as bad ones. That is why it is so important that young children learn good work, social, emotional, and personal habits. The self-didactic materials of the pioneering educator Maria Montessori (1870–1952) are excellent vehicles for acquiring good work habits, since children learn from their own mistakes—a very powerful habit to acquire. Good emotional habits are learned by imitation; if adults handle their frustrations, anxieties, and anger without good sense, children will begin to do likewise.

Bad social habits, such as lying and stealing, are often engendered by fear of punishment. Lying usually means saying that you have not done or said something that in fact you did do or say. This is a hard discrimination for young children to make, particularly if they believe what they did or said will bring punishment or rebuke of some sort.

When a young child denies having said something or taken something, he or she is really not fully aware of telling a lie. Because language and things are not yet fully distinguished from one another, the child can believe that he or she changed the reality by means of the denial: “Because I said I didn’t, I didn’t.” There is no point in arguing with the young child’s reality (nor with the adolescent’s, for that matter). It may be better to say something like, “Well, I guess somebody spilled the milk, so we will have to be more careful next time.” Insisting that the child admit to something that he or she has denied only entrenches him or her in it and serves no useful purpose other than to reinforce the bad habit.

Other forms of socialization such as waiting in line and taking turns are best learned through imitation, the young child’s dominant mode of learning. When older children or the teacher models taking turns, it is easy for the child to follow suit.

The same is true for waiting in line; if the child sees other children quietly waiting in line, it is easy for him or her to do likewise.

For young children, acquiring these social skills is much more important than learning academic skills. Indeed, mastering these social skills is a prerequisite to academic learning and instruction.

Emotional Development

Learning to label and master their emotions is an ongoing challenge to preschool children. At the same time, they are acutely sensitive to adult emotions and feelings. Young children know intuitively when their parents are upset and distressed and when they are happy and relieved, and they respond accordingly.

Young children are equally sensitive to the emotions of their peers in the classroom. If one child is upset, there can sometimes be an emotional contagion, with every child in the room becoming troubled. That is why it is so important for the teacher to be aware of how children are feeling when they come into the room. If a child is upset, it is really necessary for the teacher to comfort the child or have him or her aside in a quiet setting.

Children can also quickly get into arguments often over taking turns or possessions. These are quickly short-circuited if the teacher asks each child to tell his or her side of the story. Another option is distraction, offering another activity, or calling attention to something different or interesting in the classroom. One of the great things about young children is that they do not hold a grudge, and the two disputants will, the next moment, be playing together again.

While young children will often play spontaneously with one another, taking turns and sharing often have to be learned. Because of young children's natural egocentrism, they sometimes have trouble waiting to take their turn with a toy, or for a snack. This, however, is not true selfishness. It is just hard for young children to appreciate that other children have the same needs as they do. Because they are good imitators, however, young children can easily learn this skill with a little teacher intervention.

Helping Young Children Acquire the Three Developmental Tasks

Crucial to a young child's success in the transition to the elementary school environment is the attainment of three skills: the ability to start and bring a task to completion, the ability to listen to instructions and follow them, the ability to play and work cooperatively with other children. These skills are the true prerequisites to the learning of the *three R's*.

Attending to and Following Instructions

One strategy for children to learn to pay attention and to follow instructions is to engage them in a group activity. A good way to start off the day is with having the children sit together around a circle.

Singing a simple morning song together tends to unite the group. Then each child is given a chance to share something of his or her life that was interesting and important to him or her. The small group activity gives each child a chance to be on stage, which most enjoy. Those children who are not good at listening and paying attention have the other children to model this for them. The small group activity puts to good use the young child's natural tendency to imitate.

Initially some children may have trouble finding something to say when it comes to their turn. Suggesting to the child that he or she say something about neutral subjects like their favorite color, food, TV show, or video is a good way to encourage children to share something about themselves. In the process they are learning to listen to other children and take turns. Young children are not terribly interested in hearing these things about other children, but they are eager to tell these things about themselves. So they model the listening behavior of the other children in anticipation of their turn.

The opening circle also provides the opportunity for children to choose the interest area they would like to work in first. If there is no room for all of the children who want a particular area, they can be divided into small groups, each with its own name. When it is time to change interest areas, the teacher can call out the name of the group that is next in line for the area.

Another technique of getting children to attend and follow instructions comes from appreciating that young children have trouble with transitions—by alerting them well in advance of a transition to come, such as moving to a different interest area, going outside, or having a snack and going home. It is important to say something well in advance. One teacher, a former flight attendant, would say to her children, "We are going to land in 15 minutes so finish up what you are doing and put your things away."

Starting a Task and Bringing It to Completion

As mentioned earlier, one of the best ways for children to learn to start and bring a task to completion is with the aid of self-didactic teaching materials, such as form boards, simple picture puzzles, and the types of simple construction tasks in which a child can follow a model in weaving paper strips or stringing beads. Such tasks enable the child to see, and sometimes use, the results of his or her labor.

Learning to Cooperate With Other Children

One of the most effective ways of helping children to learn to work cooperatively with other children is the so-called project method, introduced by educator and

philosopher John Dewey (1859–1952). A good example of the project method is that of making soup. To do this, some children need to clean the vegetables, others to measure the spices and water, and others to watch the hourglass to measure the time it takes to cook the soup. With the project method, children learn to work cooperatively in the process of producing a, hopefully, edible product.

The project method has many other benefits as well. For example, children learn the names, shapes, and colors of different vegetables; they learn measurement when putting in the spices and water, and they learn some chemistry and physics by observing how boiling water softens the ingredients of the soup.

Managing the Early Childhood Classroom

In addition to the young child's intellectual, social, and emotional development and the developmental tasks the child must acquire, knowing how to set up the early childhood classroom is essential, and establishing rapport with young children is also essential to effective management of this age group.

Early Classroom Environment

Young children have a lot of energy and have trouble sitting still for any length of time. That is why the classroom environment requires special consideration.

Montessori, for example, recognized that children were prevented from engaging in many simple activities, such as opening doors, washing their hands, and using dinnerware and cutlery, because the objects involved were designed for adults. She introduced child-sized chairs, tables, and eating utensils, which made it easy for children to work and eat comfortably. Small stools made it possible for children to reach the basin to wash their hands. Doorknobs were placed appropriately at the heights of children.

With these innovations, young children are able to do on their own what they previously had to rely on others to do for them. This prepared environment, so different from the other environments in which young children live, makes it very attractive and welcoming. That in itself is a major precondition for classroom management, because young children want to be in a place that is suited to their size and strengths.

In addition, most early childhood classrooms should be organized into several different interest areas geared to the abilities and interests of this age group. One of these is usually a quiet corner with pillows and a bookcase and a CD player or other such devices, where children can sit quietly, look at or read books, or listen to music or stories. Another area is the block corner, where a good set of wooden blocks is available for

construction and building. An easel with watercolors and a table with clay or play dough should be available for more hands-on activities. A water table is also valuable for simple science experiments related to discovering what things sink and what things float. Last but not least is an area offering adult clothing, hats, and other props that children can use for dramatic play.

Another interest area is a bow to modern technology. A computer with Internet access is now common in many early childhood settings. The software choices are important. There are many programs for young children that are primarily pictorial and do not require reading skills. Some children may come to the classroom with computer skills. Sharing and taking turns with the computer is another way of learning these social skills.

In addition to the interest areas, the classroom should have plants and animals for children to care for and to observe. Some wall space should be open to display children's art and handiwork as the semester progresses. All these make it the children's room and not just the teacher's. If possible, the room should open out onto an outdoor area. This area should have sandboxes, climbing apparatus, and a paved path on which children can ride tricycles and pull wagons, where children can go outside for large-motor-skill play in sandboxes, on climbing structures, and for riding trikes.

Building Rapport With Young Children

Establishing positive rapport with young children is essential to working constructively and productively with them. Knowing each child's name and something about him or her is a necessary starting point. Greeting each child by name as he or she enters the classroom is one way to tell the child that you think he or she is important. Finding a positive trait in each child and remarking on it is another way to build relationships.

David Elkind

See also Age and Classroom Management; Developmental Approaches; Developmentally Appropriate Practice; Montessori and Classroom Management; Piaget, Jean; Play, Learning, and Classroom Management; Policy, Teachers, and Young Children; Social and Emotional Learning for Young Children; Spaces for Young Children; Transitions, Managing

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ECOLOGICAL APPROACHES

An ecological approach to classroom management focuses on action vectors or, more specifically, *programs of action* (e.g., recitations, seatwork, cooperative learning, transitions) that are mutually constructed and sustained by teachers and students in a classroom setting. These programs of action activate both engagement and cognition. They are what teachers manage and, when necessary, intervene to sustain activity flow and avoid the development of unwanted action vectors.

Ecological thinking in classroom management grew primarily out of ecological psychology as that framework was refined and focused on classrooms by Jacob Kounin and Paul Gump. A fundamental premise of such ecological thinking is that environments create affordances and demands for individual actions. From this perspective, classrooms are *habitats* that surround individuals and that define opportunities and constraints for their actions within these settings.

Skilled managers understand the ways classroom habitats work, establish routines for accomplishing purposes, monitor the flow of activity during lesson enactments, interpret actions within this ecological frame, and act in ways that create and sustain direction, momentum, and rhythm. The following sections describe each of these elements and how they contribute to effective classroom management.

Nature of Classrooms

A classroom is a collection of 20 to 30 children assigned to an adult in a particular space for several months to enact a curriculum. Once created, a classroom takes on several distinct features. It becomes a place where many different tasks and events occur (classrooms are *multi-dimensional*) at the same time (classroom tasks and events happen *simultaneously*) and quickly (classroom tasks and events occur at a *rapid pace*), sometimes unexpectedly (classroom tasks and events often play out in *unpredictable* ways), and typically in front of everyone in the room (classroom tasks and events occur openly, *in public*). In addition, from the first moments, a classroom and its activities elicit a shared local narrative or history that encapsulates how things get done and that shapes how tasks and events play out in the future. All of these features defining the nature of classrooms also define the texture and nature of teachers' experience. Some events and programs of action can increase the intensity of a feature (e.g., the use of small groups often increases the unpredictability of how tasks and events play out), but all of these features are present to some degree, all the time.

Furthermore, as events and programs of action unfold, these classroom features usually remain in the background. Therefore, when we watch teachers and students going about their work, what we see is not only solely a product of individual dispositions or intentions but also the product of an accommodation to the demands of classroom features, making for a very complex setting.

These features defining the nature of classrooms provide a milieu for the structures and processes that are jointly fashioned over time by the common actions of the teacher and students. Classroom life is experienced in segments—bell work, explanations, discussions, seatwork, groups working together, and so on—each of which is a distinct habitat defined by a location, an arrangement of participants, props, focal content, rules and procedures, and so on. Different segments place different demands, both mentally and physically, on a teacher—compare a presentation to a discussion, for example—and thus require different types of monitoring and intervention skills.

Programs of Action

A central component of the classroom habitat is a *program of action*, which refers to the shape and direction (i.e., the trajectory) of action in situations. The program of action refers to the implicit script that defines appropriate action sequences in a particular segment and serves as a vector to pull participants along the flow of the event.

When you enter a restaurant or attend a concert, there are expected patterns of action that move you from the entrance to your seat. In a crowded cafeteria, there are scripts for sitting—you can take a seat at an open table but not usually an open seat at an already occupied table.

Programs of action, which are embedded in the activities a teacher enacts, define the very nature of order by providing slots and sequences for students' actions and by creating direction, momentum, and energy for lessons, as well as by pulling students along and through the teacher-managed event or activity. For example, a teacher might announce *bell work* and initiate a complex vector of student actions involving taking out notebooks and pens, attending to words or sentences written on a whiteboard, writing sentences, and so on. In this sense, programs of action provide signals (information) to participants for both immediate action requirements and the sequence of actions that propels students to complete an event in an orderly way.

Classroom activities differ in terms of the complexity and clarity of the programs of actions embedded in them. Whole-group activities with a single, consistent source of information (e.g., teacher presentations) have

a simple action program for participants. In contrast, small-group activities, especially those in which students share materials and supplies, have a more diffuse and intertwined program of action with many junctures for action to diverge along different paths in different sectors of the room. The more complex the program of action on the floor, the more unpredictable the activity trajectory and thus the more challenging it is for a teacher to sustain a working classroom system.

In many respects, classroom management is about managing these local programs of action that define order and hold it in place. By establishing and maintaining these programs of action, teachers shift the burden of order from themselves to the action vectors of the classroom. As these vectors become familiar and routinized in a classroom, their holding power increases to provide a foundation for order. A teacher can then work for longer periods of time with individuals or small groups of students and introduce variations in activity structures to achieve a multiplicity of purposes.

Academic Tasks and Programs of Action

The academic tasks students are asked to accomplish are a less visible but still a fundamental aspect of programs of action. Academic tasks consist of specifications for the products students are required to generate, the conditions under which they are to be produced, and the value they have in the accountability system of a class. Students can be asked to (1) search and match, that is, find information in texts to answer questions, (2) verify their recognition of or reproduce information they have already seen, (3) apply reliable formulas (e.g., addition or subtraction algorithms) to produce answers, or (4) invent solutions to novel (for them) problems. Academic tasks vary in cognitive demand, depending on whether students are required to remember the definition of a metaphor, identify a metaphor in a poem, or write an original and effective metaphor. Importantly, different types of academic tasks have different consequences for the flow of classroom events.

Academic work intersects with the action system of a classroom around the dimensions of ambiguity and risk. Ambiguity in this context refers not only to the quality of a teacher's explanations but also to the *product specifications* for work samples that are generated by students. Learning a list of vocabulary words is low in ambiguity—students know in advance what information they will have to produce on the quiz.

To construct a novel solution to a problem or compose an original analysis or story, students must go beyond the information given. In these cases, the teacher can specify what features a novel solution or a good description might have but must leave the actual

product unspecified to leave room for student invention. A teacher might say, "Good descriptions are vivid and compelling, and here are some examples of vivid and compelling descriptions, so now write a vivid and compelling description of your best friend."

Risk and Programs of Action

Risk connects work to the accountability system of a class—the exchange of performance for grades—and also refers to how likely students will be able to produce an acceptable product. Knowing five vocabulary words for the quiz on Friday is low not only in ambiguity ("I know what words I have to study") but also in risk ("I can probably learn them with a little investment of time"). In contrast, inventing a vivid and compelling description is higher in ambiguity ("I have never seen my vivid and compelling description before")—and, if students are actually held accountable, higher in risk because in a student's previous writing, description may not actually be vivid and compelling.

Novel academic tasks—work in which students are to generate products through their own understanding and invention—often slip away in classrooms because the action systems are more open and bumpy, and students push back against risk and ambiguity. What is introduced as an authentic problem-solving task can easily become ritualized and formulaic as teachers navigate to sustain classroom action trajectories.

Managing Classroom Events

From an ecological perspective, then, a teacher's central task is to establish and sustain working classroom events in the sense that there is consistent student cooperation in programs of action appropriate for engaging with particular curriculum tasks.

How does this get done? There are two major dimensions to answering this question. First, there is a design element: teachers must visualize activity segments from the perspective of how the embedded action vectors might hold order in place. As teachers gain experience in classrooms, they are able to draw upon a larger store of potential scripts for capturing engagement and for anticipating what might happen and what can be done to sustain the action flow. Second, they must enact these activities by monitoring and supporting them as they play themselves out in real time.

Jacob Kounin's work has been particularly influential in helping to conceptualize how teachers can establish and maintain activities. After a series of inconclusive studies on the ripple effects of various kinds of desists (actions teachers take to stop inappropriate behavior that has already begun), Kounin tried to identify what

better teachers do to generate high work involvement from students. He concluded that these teachers were high on the dimensions of (1) *withitness*—they knew what was going on in the classroom and communicated this awareness to students; (2) *overlap*—they successfully divided their attention across different tracks of action during an event (e.g., noticing raised hands while working with an individual student); (3) *group focus*—they always remembered that they needed to monitor and, wherever possible, involve everyone during classroom events; and (4) *momentum*—they kept the pace and flow moving along.

At one level, these dimensions that help explain good teaching and good classroom management describe what a teacher does before inappropriate behavior takes place. In addition, they help paint a picture of a teacher monitoring and sustaining a moving system—that is, the core action vector or program of action. In other words, successful classroom managers *see* classrooms in terms of their programs of action. They watch individual student actions in terms of their potential impact on a core vector. In other words, for successful managers, activity structures provide the frame for identifying and interpreting classroom action, and teacher attention is oriented toward incidents that potentially divert students from the core vector or create an alternative vector that competes with the intended flow.

Interventions

As dynamic events in real time, classroom action systems do not always flow smoothly and, on such occasions, teachers need to actively intervene. The challenge is to understand *when* to intervene and *how* to intervene effectively.

From an ecological perspective, interventions are occasioned by a student's actions that, when left unattended, are likely to create an alternative vector that competes with the main program of action. In other words, it is the *consequences* of a student's action, rather than the act itself, that determine whether a teacher needs to intervene. If no one in the room is paying attention to what a student is doing, then it is not an alternative vector and does not require an intervention. If an action requires an intervention, a teacher needs to intervene (1) *early* before the action escalates and the effect spreads and (2) unobtrusively to avoid increasing visibility such that the intervention itself becomes an alternative vector.

This perspective implies that skillful managers know what is going on in the room (*withitness*) and thus are able to see potential vectors early so that they can react quickly in discreet ways—such as walking toward the student, making eye contact, signaling, speaking briefly—while continuing the flow of the lesson.

This is why classroom management often seems invisible in a well-managed classroom. Teachers who are not aware of what is happening in the room or who do not know how to interpret what is going on often react too late and are forced into quite public and disruptive conflicts with students. In such circumstances, the main program of action is vulnerable.

When faced with disruptive classes, beginning teachers often seek to import a solution from the outside—new rules to cover perceived problems or a new and better system of consequences to stop inappropriate behavior. An ecological perspective directs attention internally to an analysis of the activity and task systems already in place. Perhaps a transition from seatwork to group work, a transition that can be inherently bumpy, needs to be streamlined or monitored more closely. Perhaps a task that requires imagination or invention, which can often be resisted by students, needs different scaffolding. Perhaps opening class after recess or lunch with a familiar activity and work will help settle students into routines. Teachers need to examine how the structures of order can be used as allies in solving classroom issues of order.

Learning to Manage Classrooms

Classroom ecologies differ across buildings, grade levels, student populations, lessons, times of the year, and so on. But the essential features outlined above are present everywhere and always. So, learning to see and understand the activity and task systems in classrooms and the rhythm and flow of classroom life is basic to becoming a successful and effective teacher.

The particular challenge in this learning has to do with the fact that ecological understanding comes primarily from repeated experience as a classroom teacher. Adopting an ecological lens can certainly speed up the learning process, by directing attention to the features defining classroom habitats and by framing efforts to make sense of experiences. However, there is no substitute for continually engaging with everyday workplace demands to develop understanding and reasoning skills needed to manage classrooms.

Unfortunately, many of the features and dimensions highlighted in an ecological approach to classroom management are invisible to students; so preservice and beginning teachers' many years as students are not especially helpful to their developing skills at classroom management. Moreover, popular notions of classroom management typically focus on rules, strictness, and reprimands, which can misdirect beginning teachers away from the essential ingredients of classroom order. So, becoming a successful classroom manager often requires a recalibration of what one sees in classrooms

and a reconstruction of how one understands the management process.

Walter Doyle

See also Curriculum and Classroom Management; Kounin, Jacob; Managing Classroom Discussions; Managing Groupwork; Organization of Classrooms: Space; Organization of Classrooms: Time; Reminders; Transitions, Managing

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EDUCATIONAL REFORM AND TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS

Teachers make up the single largest group in the primary and secondary education workforce, and they account for one of the largest expenditures of education dollars. Consequently, most national reform movements of the modern educational era have centered, at least in part, on improving teacher effectiveness.

A teacher's effectiveness includes her or his impact not only on a student's year-to-year academic growth but also on other less direct but still measurable student outcomes (such as graduation and postsecondary matriculation rates), as well as on less concrete, harder-to-measure outcomes (such as support for student self-efficacy and persistence in school attendance, as well as effective classroom management). Teacher effectiveness also extends beyond the classroom door to a teacher's contributions to school, district, state, and even national leadership in such areas as curriculum, professional development, and school policy.

By contrast, most of the educational reforms associated with teacher effectiveness have focused predominantly on only the first of these outcomes—student academic achievement. Arguably, one side effect of the

attention given to this component of effectiveness has been to *reduce* recognition of other critical components—such as classroom management—as important for overall teacher effectiveness. Beginning with a description of twentieth-century reforms in teacher preparation, the entry continues with a review of the federal government's role in education reform and a discussion of recent efforts to quantify teacher effectiveness, noting in conclusion the need for a thorough ongoing exploration of all the elements that together constitute effective teaching.

Reforms in Teacher Preparation

Formal teacher preparation in the United States began in the nineteenth century with the establishment of normal schools and their twentieth-century heirs, the university-based schools of education. By the early 1900s, many of these preparation programs recognized the importance of including instruction in the basic components of modern classroom management—understandings of child psychology and effective pedagogical strategies—as part of their training to ensure teacher effectiveness.

The first major reforms in teacher preparation—the advent in 1939 by the American Council on Education of a national teacher examination and the organization of national accreditation agencies (such as the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education [NCATE, in 1954] and, more recently, the Teacher Education Accreditation Council [TEAC, in 1997])—all were part of a broad effort to promote basic national standards for teacher preparation. None of these reforms significantly elevated the status of classroom management as a component of teacher effectiveness; instead, they endorsed only high-level goals for promoting the importance of “facilitating learning for all students” (NCATE) and “teach[ing] effectively in a caring way” (TEAC).

The establishment of a National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) in 1987 shifted the focus from shared national standards against which to measure the vast array of preparation programs to the viability of developing a uniform national credential. Included as part of this reform effort was a more clearly defined focus on what comprises teacher effectiveness, as well as the role of classroom management as part of that effectiveness. NBPTS recast classroom management as a component of the process of managing and monitoring all aspects of student learning by positing that teachers who manage and monitor student learning do so by “mov[ing] fluently through a range of instructional techniques, keeping students motivated, engaged and focused” and by “engag[ing] students to ensure a disciplined learning environment”

(National Board of Professional Teaching Standards, <http://www.nbpts.org>).

Recent education reforms related to teacher preparation and effectiveness have sought to reverse the trend toward nationalization by reducing or eliminating the standardization of teacher preparation. Most prominent among these has been the push to open the teaching profession to candidates with little or no formal preparation. Usually referred to as lateral entry or alternative licensure teachers, these candidates typically are hired based on criteria associated with effective teaching but not necessarily with formal teacher preparation—most often content area expertise—and are provided with less pedagogically focused formal training.

In some states, the initial move toward greater acceptance of lateral entry teachers reflected a shift in mood about the role colleges of education should play in teacher preparation, but in other states, the reform had more pragmatic roots: Without the option to expand their recruitment pools beyond traditionally prepared teachers, some hard-to-staff schools were unable to fill vacancies. This reform movement spawned a host of local-level and national programs designed to bring alternatively prepared teachers into classrooms, including the Mississippi Teacher Corps (1989), Teach for America (1990), the Inner City Teacher Corps (1991), Troops to Teachers (1994), and Teach Kentucky (2001).

Defenders of traditional licensure programs have argued that traditionally prepared teachers produce stronger student achievement gains than do alternatively prepared teachers, but proponents of alternative licensure and lateral entry point to counterevidence that traditional credentialing is unrelated to student outcomes and may even be negatively related to effective classroom management.

Reform at the Federal Level

A second major area of reform related to teacher effectiveness resulting from a rise in the federal government's involvement in education. Passage of the Johnson-era Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA, 1965)—a Great Society program that almost single-handedly transformed the federal role in education by providing funding to support the education of economically disadvantaged students—was a turning point in federal involvement in education reform, as was the establishment of the U.S. Department of Education in 1979.

However, it was not until the reauthorization of ESEA as the Improving America's Schools Act (IASA) in 1994 that teacher effectiveness fully entered the federal reform lexicon. Building on the Clinton administration's Goals 2000 plan for education (itself a direct

descendent of ideas introduced at a National Governors Association meeting in 1989, and subsequently in the George H. W. Bush administration's American 2000 plan), IASA acknowledged the importance of teacher preparation in education reform and promoted the idea of standards-based school evaluation—two concepts that, taken together, helped sow the seeds for later reforms associated with quantitatively measuring teacher effectiveness.

The 2002 reauthorization of ESEA—commonly referred to as *No Child Left Behind* (NCLB)—was built around a reimagined set of core principles: stronger accountability for results, increased flexibility and local control, expanded options for parents and students, and dependence on proven teaching methods. The first and fourth of these principles highlighted the increased importance of teacher effectiveness in national conversation about education reform.

In particular, NCLB required all of a state's teachers to meet minimum requirements in order for that state to be eligible to receive the federal education aid (including Title I funding) provided by the Act, but unlike the performance-based standards promoted by organizations such as NCATE and NBPTS, NCLB's requirements focused almost exclusively on inputs such as degrees earned.

With this focus on teacher qualifications over teacher quality, NCLB fell short of a reform agenda that fully and directly tackled the issue of teacher effectiveness head-on. As with many other teacher effectiveness reforms described in this entry, NCLB is notable for the relative *absence* of attention given to non-content-related aspects of effective teaching, including classroom management.

Quantifying Teacher Effectiveness

Despite vast differences in their approaches, most of the educational reforms described above were begun with the intent of improving teacher effectiveness, but a solution to the fundamental question of how best to measure directly a concept as nebulous as teacher effectiveness (and, therefore, know whether it has indeed improved) remained elusive. Most states developed qualitative evaluation tools for assessing effectiveness, but for the most part, these tools did not generate consistent and comparable measurements.

The establishment of large education data sets at the beginning of the twenty-first century, as well as the development of means and methods to analyze them, led to renewed attempts to *quantify* teacher effectiveness; consequently, most current reform agendas related to teacher effectiveness—such as using value-added modeling and pay-for-performance incentives—draw from these attempts at quantification.

Value-Added Modeling

Early efforts to quantify teacher effectiveness were not without their detractors. For example, some critics argued that statistical models that relied on mostly aggregated data to arrive at quantitative estimates of teacher effectiveness typically failed to conceptualize and measure teacher quality in ways that could help improve individual teaching—for example, by translating the numerical results into actionable recommendations for how to help an individual teacher strengthen her or his subject matter knowledge and pedagogical skills.

Despite these concerns, several statistical experiments demonstrated that it was possible to link data from existing teacher evaluation systems to outcomes derived from various measures of student achievement. More importantly for the reforms that followed, other experiments suggested that mathematical models that used a broad set of measures could even be used to *predict* success in teaching. These results, along with the advent of more complex and complete quantitative data systems and computing power, paved the way for the development of large-scale statistical models—commonly referred to as *value-added models* (VAMs)—that attempt to estimate teacher effectiveness by assigning a numerical value to an individual teacher's contribution to student growth.

The primary argument in favor of the use of VAMs for estimating teacher impact on student growth and performance is that, because they are mathematical models that incorporate a complex array of data, they are more objective than traditional, qualitative supervisor- and peer-completed observations. Also, by focusing on student outcomes instead of on teacher inputs (such as degrees earned and other credentials), VAMs more directly associate a teacher's work with the *results* of his or her teaching, rather than with the preparation that led up to that teaching.

Arguments against the use of VAMs include the contention that, with no commonly agreed-upon universal VAM model, the measures generated by the various models are themselves no more reliable than the more subjective measures already in use. Also, there is concern that the models may inadvertently give more or less credit to teachers for their impact on students than they actually deserve, since the models tend to leave out less easily quantifiable aspects of teaching (such as classroom management). Finally, some critics have charged that the models produce inconsistent results across years, even when teachers do not change their teaching practices.

These concerns notwithstanding, many states are now in the process of incorporating VAMs into their teacher evaluation systems in a variety of ways: Teacher VAM estimates are used for both lower-stakes purposes (such as providing direction in making a professional

development plan) and high-stakes purposes (such as influencing or informing employment decisions or decisions about performance bonuses). The body of research on the validity and reliability of the use of VAMs for these latter situations is relatively thin but growing rapidly.

Pay-for-Performance Incentives

Over the past several decades, many states, school systems, and even individual schools (some with the aid of federal Teacher Incentive Fund and School Improvement Grant financing) have experimented with the use of incentives (financial or otherwise) as a means for improving teacher effectiveness. Though originally used predominantly for teacher recruitment, the use of incentives to encourage performance improvement among teachers already employed by a school or school system has been reenergized by the development of the value-added modeling techniques described above. These new incentive plans often are referred to as *pay-for-performance* plans.

Early iterations of pay-for-performance incentives actually pre-dated value-added modeling, but their earliest incarnations were in the form of schoolwide bonuses tied to improvements in schoolwide student achievement measures. There were also some early experiments with individual pay-for-performance, but they proliferated much more rapidly at the onset of the value-added modeling era. For example, the federally funded, competitive *Race to the Top* grant (2010) included, perhaps, the most direct endorsement of this idea when it favored state plans that incorporated establishment of teacher-level incentives based on evidence of a teacher's impact on student outcomes. Studies of the measurable impacts of some of these programs suggest limits in the degree to which financial incentives alone can enhance teacher capacity, and, as with many other reforms noted in this entry, teacher effectiveness incentives have been tied to outcomes associated with classroom management in very few cases.

Conclusion

More than a hundred years of active reform efforts have contributed—albeit in fits and starts—to our understanding and improvement of some aspects of teacher effectiveness, but in many ways, this work has only just begun. To date, the bulk of the work has centered on the most easily measurable outcomes associated with teacher effectiveness, namely, student achievement; the challenge going forward will be to encourage a more complete exploration of the wider array of components that collectively comprise teacher effectiveness.

Dallas T. Stallings

See also Government Policy and Classroom Management; High-Stakes Testing; No Child Left Behind Act; Policy, Teachers, and Young Children; Teacher Education and Classroom Management

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ELEMENTARY EDUCATION AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

In elementary education settings, teachers work with large groups of kindergarten through fifth- or sixth-grade children, generally in self-contained classroom settings. Across a number of research reviews, classroom management has consistently been rated critical to student learning. For this reason, an elementary teacher's skill in

structuring and enacting a productive learning environment for students is an essential component of all K to sixth-grade teacher evaluation protocols. This entry provides an overview of essential ideas related to classroom management in elementary settings, including a brief historical review documenting the importance of teacher behaviors, the physical and affective environment of the classroom, and the provision of engaging curriculum in producing effective classroom management.

For many young children, the process of learning to interact and work in a learning community within a formal school setting is a new experience and one that needs to be modeled and structured by the teacher. Classroom management in the elementary school classroom encompasses a number of variables such as (1) how the teacher uses the physical environment for work and storage space, (2) norms for group and individual behavior, (3) procedures for handling ongoing and/or periodic activities, and (4) what consequences are enacted when these procedures are not followed.

Classroom management in elementary classrooms may be conceptualized as teacher actions that are designed to either maximize productive learning and relationships in advance of problems (prevention), or stop unproductive student behaviors (intervention). For example, building strong teacher–student relationships is likely to moderate disruptive behaviors.

Common interventions that teachers use to stop disturbing or noncooperative student behaviors include warnings, separating a student from the learning community, or withholding a reward. While frequently used, these types of actions lack a research base highlighting their effectiveness. Several research studies have found behavioral interventions such as cognitive-behavioral therapy to be more effective than nonbehavioral interventions. Nonetheless, there is a consensus that learning environments will be enhanced when prevention, rather than intervention, is the predominant classroom management strategy used.

Background

Research on effective classroom management experienced a paradigm shift in the final decades of the twentieth century when the behavioral perspective of punishment and reward changed into a conceptualization of the teacher as a manager of a complex and diverse learning environment. Effective classroom managers are known for preventing problems from arising rather than for having special skills for dealing with problems once they arise. These teachers are recognized for creating fair, consistent, and engaging environments with predictable daily classroom routines to heighten student learning and lessen undesirable behaviors.

A behavior that has emerged that is associated with effective managers is called teacher *with-it-ness*. The *with-it* teacher constantly monitors the classroom, adapts lessons so students remain engaged, and is able to handle housekeeping matters while juggling instruction. Implementation studies that investigated what teachers needed to do before the beginning of the school year to be effective classroom managers found that advanced planning and preparation of seating arrangements, having supplies ready, developing routines, and being knowledgeable about subject matter helped to maximize student engagement in lessons.

Research from the school effectiveness movement of the past 25 years highlights classroom management as being characterized by strong leadership, high expectations for students, an orderly atmosphere, an emphasis on basic skills, and effective monitoring of student achievement. A consensus in the literature now confirms the role of the teacher as the most powerful factor in student learning; this influence is based on the elementary teacher's ability to design and implement a productive classroom that includes the physical space, the affective or emotional environment, including rules and procedures, and an engaging curriculum at students' developmental level.

Physical Environment

In a well-organized classroom environment, students and teachers have access to needed materials and supplies; students move around safely without fear of running into obstacles—even in heavy traffic flow areas. In such classrooms, thoughtful consideration is given to the location of the classroom library, coat racks, book bags, process charts, bulletin boards, the meeting area, the administrative area, centers, small group teaching areas, and storage of resources and materials that are not currently being used. Students know where specific items are located in order to not lose time looking for supplies. For example, labels on items allow easy access and cleanup. Clothes closets carry labels on the outside. A purpose-driven classroom environment is created to optimize students' time learning, not finding materials.

The optimal design of an elementary classroom is to facilitate traffic flow for minimal distraction and provide workspaces that match the kinds of activities students will take on in class. For example, materials used for mathematical exploration might be located in easy-to-find bins that are accessible during math time without getting in the way of peers. In a similar manner, it is easier to have books in bins that can be moved around the room rather than to have them stacked on stationary shelves. Individuals or pairs can take a book bin to their seats or another area in the classroom rather than

having many students crowding in the same spot of the library searching for books. Additionally, a specific place is designated for students to place their personal belongings. The environment is designed to help students get what they need without getting in the way of others.

Affective Environment

The affective environment relates to the feelings, beliefs, attitudes, and emotions of the teacher and students within a classroom. A positive classroom climate is developed when there are strong bonds between the teacher and students, and students work together as a classroom community in supportive ways. In such a classroom, there is evidence of a concern for the personal and social development of every student, and each person's self-esteem matters. When a positive learning environment is developed, students help each other and do not put each other down. The teacher and students show each other—with words and actions—that they value each other's contributions. In this type of classroom environment, accountability for working productively and handling classroom materials with care is not solely vested in the teacher. Each student feels a sense of ownership for classroom management and shares responsibility in the well-being and productivity of others in the community. Examples of how this is demonstrated include learning and using classmates' names, taking note of when someone is absent or hurt, helping each other on housekeeping or academic tasks, and de-emphasizing winner-take-all type of activities.

Effective teachers create an environment in which students feel free to take risks as they try out their approximations of the job at hand. These teachers arrange for classroom norms that do not allow students to laugh at or mimic each other. Instead, teachers draw attention to behavior that makes others feel bad and model more appropriate language or actions. In this way, teachers structure safe spaces for students to learn without fear of ridicule. The number one priority for an effective teacher is safety, that is, physical, intellectual, and emotional safety for all learners.

Teacher-child relationships have been reported to be influential in determining the course, or path, of a child's school career; therefore, it is a domain seen on most teacher observation protocols. Students who share a close relationship with their teacher possess a secure base from which to explore the environment; this closeness may help to facilitate children's learning and school performance. Closeness in the teacher-child relationship affords children the opportunity to openly express feelings and concerns and, therefore, elicit appropriate help and guidance in their attempts to adjust to the school environment.

Characteristics of a positive teacher–child relationship are indicated by each keeping track of the other, a student using the teacher as a secure base from which to explore, a student being reassured and comforted by the teacher, and student and teacher being attuned to each other’s facial expressions and emotions. Students who form a close relationship with teachers report that the teachers made them feel worthwhile, supported their independence, motivated them to achieve, and provided them with support to interpret and cope with environmental demands. Teacher–child interactions and relationships—social and emotional—play a meaningful role in schooling and have a beneficial effect on students throughout the elementary school period. As key adult models, teachers have a significant influence on students’ affective dispositions toward themselves and school.

Teachers’ beliefs, values, and priorities are aligned to their classroom behavior and practices. The looks, gestures, posture, and positioning in a classroom show the value system of a teacher and model for students the expectations of the classroom. The elementary teacher is viewed as an instructional leader who promotes social development in a fair environment. Learning opportunities are planned to engage students in problem solving and conflict resolution. Teachers use various forms of grouping arrangements to establish and promote positive social interactions among students and between students and the teacher. Students’ participation in decision making is encouraged, students’ leadership skills are developed, and opportunities to apply their initiative are provided.

Examples of ways that teachers set up positive classroom environments include recognizing and valuing individual differences, arranging seating for positive interactions among students, establishing clear expectations, and having a strong, supportive presence in the classroom. Exemplary teachers also show an interest in students’ lives outside of school and are eager to support students’ ideas. Importantly, teachers who support positive affective environments see the classroom as a learning community and take the time to uphold norms for constructive interactions each and every day.

Rules and Procedures

Clarity in communication has been identified as an important teacher behavior that contributes to student achievement. Providing clear guidelines for students about what is and is not acceptable behavior within the classroom and school helps to ensure a safe and productive learning environment. *Rules* are generally defined as the expectations for behavior within the school setting. Rules may emanate from a program adopted for the whole school or may be created within an individual

classroom by the teacher with or without the input of students. In general, a simple set of rules stated with positive phrasing will be most effective for elementary students. For example, “listen actively to the speaker” or “treat others with care” are two rules that may require practice and demonstration for youngsters, but these statements will keep the classroom focused on expected actions and not on negative behaviors. Simple and explicit rules support effective classroom management because (1) they increase the likelihood that all students understand behavioral expectations at school, and (2) they allow the teacher to provide feedback to students on how well they are achieving the expectations. Some educational theorists hold that when students are invited to co-construct classroom rules, there is an increased likelihood that they will remember, take ownership, and hold each other accountable for shared classroom behavioral norms. What all do agree on is the importance of clear rules for school behavior that are age-appropriate.

Procedures are used to clarify expectations for how activities take place within a classroom. For example, procedures may be set up for forming a line, walking to the cafeteria, or using the restroom. Procedures may be used to help students as they transition to the classroom at the start of the day or after breaks. When procedures are clear and students implement them and are provided with feedback, time spent on transitions or other non-productive activities in class is minimized, and valuable learning time is maximized. Both procedures and rules may be written on cards or charts and posted for student reference. Younger children profit from graphic clues that elucidate the expected behaviors.

Engaging Curriculum

A key goal in the elementary classroom is to actively engage students in learning. These students spend more time learning and practicing the content of their studies, leading to greater academic success. In addition, when students are actively participating in lessons, they will be less likely to demonstrate unproductive or disruptive behaviors that require teacher intervention.

Students who were followed for several days in school were found to be actively involved in their lessons approximately 40% of the time. Effective teachers are those who maintain student engagement at high levels. They use a number of strategies to keep students actively learning, such as providing high rates of opportunities to respond and clear instruction with feedback, helping them feel socially connected, and supporting student learning in a variety of ways. Examples of evidence-based strategies to actively engage students are described below.

In an engaging academic environment, students stay focused on the lesson objective. This happens in a number of ways: Effective teachers frequently elicit student responses verbally, in writing, or with their bodies. Teachers informally check for understanding throughout the lesson, and instruction is adjusted according to students' grasp of the lesson. Students are asked to share with a partner rather than waiting for turns in the whole group. Working with a peer tutor is another structure that gets students actively responding and participating. The use of one-to-one technology, such as computers or tablets, ensures that students are constantly called upon to contribute responses.

Delivering clear instruction with regular feedback is another way teachers foster active engagement. Effective teachers do this by presenting lessons in concrete and understandable ways. They help students make connections to their background knowledge and explain the value or purpose of the new learning. The teacher models the new content, often by demonstrating worked examples that outline the steps for solving the problem or creating the product. Teachers use metacognition, or thinking out loud, to help students understand in the moment how the work is being completed. Students may also be supported through advanced outlines, such as guided notes or graphic organizers. For example, students might fill out a concept map while the teacher outlines key information on a new topic of study.

Effective teachers use social strategies to engage students in curriculum through both teacher–student and student–student interactions. Students become more involved in schoolwork when teachers encourage them and show concern for their progress. Some students require extra guidance, and capable teachers support them in a multitude of ways, including with individualized help, simplified explanations, coaching, explaining things in more than one way, or setting a different pace. Effective teachers also help students work with peers in cooperative settings with collaborative goals. Most students find this work more engaging and feel accountable to their contribution to the learning community.

Finally, students become more engaged when they use higher-order thinking and problem solving in class. Strategies such as goal setting and monitoring, encouraging self-verbalization and self-questioning, and reflecting on their understanding are ways to involve students in evaluating and taking more ownership in their own learning.

In summary, effective elementary teachers collect evidence in the moment to affirm when students understand a lesson or when a lesson needs to be adapted. These teachers are flexible in their delivery and change the course of the lesson in order to refocus and reengage

students. Elementary teachers who have clear systems for presenting instruction have smoother, shorter transitions, more on-task behaviors, and students who know what to do when they are finished with their work. Effective teachers create, enrich, maintain, and alter instructional settings to capture and sustain the interest of students because they know an engaging curriculum is important for student achievement.

Conclusion

Classroom management is critical to the success of students and teachers in elementary education settings. Students are learning the ways of being at school, and strong teaching skills are needed to mentor this apprenticeship. Exemplary elementary teachers focus more on prevention than intervention, through thoughtful planning of the classroom space, rules and routines, and a safe and orderly affective learning environment. Student engagement is a high priority for them, and they use active responding, social connections, clear instruction and feedback, and higher-level thinking tasks to ensure students are involved.

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See also Curriculum and Classroom Management; Ecological Approaches; Kindergarten and Classroom Management; Organization of Classrooms: Space; Organization of Classrooms: Time; Reminders; Routines; Space: Elementary and Secondary Classrooms; Teacher–Student Relationships; Transitions, Managing

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EMERGENCY PROCEDURES AND STUDENTS WITH DISABILITIES

Crises in schools can include natural disasters such as tornados and fires, as well as those of human origin such as school intruders and shootings. Although the reasons for a crisis can differ greatly, the need for preparation is universal. All students and adults in a school building need to understand what they must do in order to stay safe. Because not all students or adults possess the same skill sets needed to be safe, teachers need to prepare detailed plans and give students repeated opportunities to practice these skills so that they can implement them in times of crisis.

Challenges

Because there is no national model for school-based crisis preparedness, school districts often have inadequate emergency preparedness programs, while other schools have no plan developed to support students. Emergencies and crises often require students to listen to information or recognize dangerous situations (like the smell of smoke, seeing a tornado funnel, or hearing gunshots). They also require students to move quickly and safely, assume unique positions, and/or hide and be silent, all of which can be problematic requests for students with disabilities. Some students do not have the physical mobility required or use wheelchairs or devices that hinder their ability to use steps or to maneuver around furniture or other students who are in their way. Other students are unable to follow, or do not choose to follow, single or multistep directions, which can affect their safety.

What Can We Do?

Teachers should spend time planning for the safety of students with disabilities in a variety of possible crises, including lockdowns and natural disasters. General education and special education teachers should work together with students, parents, school administrators, and first responders to develop appropriate,

individualized plans that account for the unique needs of each student and his or her disability. When considering school emergency plans, teachers must take into consideration the diverse range of intellectual, social, emotional, and physical development among children with disabilities. This can include planning for

1. physical differences (students with asthma, cerebral palsy, orthopedic disabilities, students who are blind or deaf, etc.);
2. communication differences (students who use sign language or a communication system);
3. emotional differences (students who do not comply easily, have obsessive compulsive disorder, depression, etc.); and
4. cognitive differences (students with intellectual disabilities or processing disorders that slow their ability to follow directions).

In addition, the very nature of the crisis may cause students with disabilities to lose focus and be unable to respond appropriately to stay safe. These factors include being part of a large crowd that is moving quickly, processing rapid-fire directions, having to stay quiet, seeing in low light, and processing loud noises such as alarms, sirens, and people shouting.

Schools and districts need to develop a blueprint and help students develop the required skills needed to support students with disabilities in a variety of potential crises and disasters. This multilevel approach includes the following:

Assessing Current Plans

Schools should evaluate current crisis plans at the district, building, and individual classroom levels. Plans should be evaluated for each classroom, as well as common areas such as the cafeteria, gym, and bus where the student might be—and based on each individual student's specific level of need. A list should be created of gaps in each level of plans. This assessment should include analyzing the physical spaces in the building, the emergency egress and supplies available, and other resources.

Addressing Concerns at Every Level

When looking at district and building concerns, it is important to consider issues such as evacuation. For example, if students require wheelchairs to ambulate, buses sent for evacuation must include lifts. If other students need visual supports or reinforcers to comply

with directions, those supports should be with the student at all times, with duplicates available in an alternative location in case the originals are lost or destroyed. District and local emergency personnel should also be aware of individual students who might need higher levels of support in case their adult supports are incapacitated during the original crisis. At the building level, issues such as accessibility for safety should be considered for students with alternative forms of communication and ambulation. If a student uses a wheelchair, the emergency plan should consider how to keep that student safe in a tornado or lockdown. If a student vocalizes in situations requiring silence or has a behavior that might impede his or her safety in a lockdown situation, the plan should consider options for supporting the student being quiet. For example, some students respond to edible reinforcers or a favorite puzzle and are quiet as long as they have access to that reinforcer. In this case, these items should be kept with the student at all times, as it does no good to have the items in a classroom if the crisis happens while the student is, say, in the cafeteria.

Individual student concerns should also be considered. For example, if a student is blind and uses a wheelchair to maneuver through the school, the plan needs to ensure this student's safety across all settings. If another student requires insulin for diabetes, a rescue inhaler for asthma, and/or emergency seizure medication, the plan needs to be reviewed for how this child could access his or her life-saving medication in a lockdown. In the original plan, the medication might be kept in the nurse's office only, but looking at safety in a lockdown, the revised plan might call for the teachers who are with that student to carry emergency medications at all times.

Develop an Individual Plan for Safety

Similar to the student's Individualized Education Program (IEP), teachers should develop an emergency plan that takes into account the student's strengths and unique needs and make plans to accommodate for those needs. Teachers can do this by preparing an emergency kit with medical supplies, communication/visual supports, and enticers/activities the student might need in order to comply with the requirements of the crisis.

Information should also be provided to first responders about students who might have limited English proficiency, and supports should be prepared for families to communicate crisis information.

What Should We Teach?

Students need to understand the sounds and language associated with emergencies and crises, such as the

words "fire—evacuate the building" used by administrators over the public address system. They also need to know what to do once that sound/announcement has occurred, and since many students with disabilities struggle with generalization, they need to know what to do in all potential settings, not just in their homeroom. Additionally, students with disabilities often require repeated practice to be successful, so it is important to practice more than once and repeat that practice periodically throughout the year.

School shootings have taught us the importance of students being out of sight and silent in a lockdown. Many students with disabilities have trouble maintaining silence for long periods of time, so they may require teaching this specific skill or the use of specific reinforcers that might help them stay quiet.

Being able to talk to emergency personnel and tell the difference between helpful and dangerous people (adults or fellow students) is a critical skill for students. Students need to be able to recognize emergency personnel (by their badges, uniforms, etc.). Arranging for students with disabilities to see and practice talking with emergency personnel in nonemergency situations may be helpful.

Although it is difficult to consider, teachers need to acknowledge that harm sometimes comes to the adults in a crisis situation, and so students must be prepared if the adult in charge of them is unable to help. The American Academy of Pediatrics recommends not scaring students, but instead using language such as "If an adult is hurt," or "If you are by yourself," to teach them strategies that can help keep them safe.

Conclusion: After the Crisis

The Council for Exceptional Children recommends providing monitoring and counseling after any crisis, which includes observing students, acknowledging their feelings, maintaining a positive classroom culture, and providing opportunities for students to discuss their concerns. Doing so will better ensure that the difficult emotions accompanying any crisis will be supported, enabling students and teachers to return to a focus on learning and maintaining a positive classroom climate that allows all to thrive.

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See also Safety, Policies for Ensuring

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EMOTION REGULATION

There are many pathways by which to promote effective classroom management. Emotion regulation, the ability to deliberately manage emotions of self and others to achieve a goal, is one potential pathway. This entry defines emotion regulation and considers emotion regulation strategies and programs as ways to support classroom management.

Emotion Regulation: Definition and Strategy Types

Emotion regulation is the ability to change or maintain the experience or expression of emotions to attain a goal—whether in oneself or in others. In the context of the classroom, emotion regulation occurs when students or teachers manage their own emotions, and when teachers help students to more effectively regulate their emotions in ways that improve their behavior and learning. *Coping* and *self-control* are terms sometimes used interchangeably with emotion regulation. However, coping is characteristically a response to long-term adverse events, whereas emotion regulation is a response to short-term positive and negative emotional events. Self-control is the ability to consciously inhibit an impulse, which may include emotions, but may also include management of cognition and behavior.

Emotion regulation differs by goals—such as reducing or increasing emotions—and by strategies—such as going for a walk or talking to a friend. Given the diversity of emotion regulation strategies, psychologist James J. Gross created the following classification system to simplify how they are understood: (1) *situation selection* (e.g., a teacher helps a student to select activities during free time that trigger interest rather than boredom), (2) *situation modification* (e.g., a teacher makes the rules of a classroom activity less competitive, to reduce its disappointment- or anger-provoking potential), (3) *attentional deployment* (e.g., a teacher redirects students' focus away from yesterday's math quiz toward tomorrow's field trip, to turn sadness into excitement), (4) *cognitive change* (e.g., a teacher tells a new student to view her new classmates as potential friends rather than strangers, to reduce her social anxiety), and (5) *response modulation* (e.g., after recess, a teacher asks his or her students to close their eyes and take slow, deep breaths to calm themselves down). Gross's classification system is chronological, as it specifies groups of regulation strategies that may be utilized before, during, and after an emotional experience.

Examples of Emotion Regulation in Classroom Management: Suppression and Reappraisal

The utility of any emotion regulation strategy will vary by the circumstances and the individuals involved in a given situation. Nevertheless, there is increasing agreement that across contexts and people, some emotion regulation strategies are more effective than others. Two emotion regulation strategies that illustrate this point are *suppression* and *reappraisal*. Suppression is a strategy in which people try to withhold the expression of emotions they are experiencing internally, such as when students are upset they refrain from frowning to prevent further ridicule by classmates. Reappraisal is a strategy in which people's thinking about an experience is reframed in order to alter its emotional meaning, such as when a teacher tells a student that a classmate's comment was not meant to be insulting, but rather helpful, despite how it sounded.

Although suppression may help students to save face, it heightens the internal experience of the suppressed emotion. Suppression due to flooding the brain with emotion can hamper parts of the brain that are critical for classroom learning, such as short-term memory, and parts that are needed for positive social interactions, such as perspective taking. In contrast, reappraisal does not impair cognitive functioning, and people who utilize reappraisal often enjoy close relationships. Further, the ability to select effective regulation strategies (e.g., using

reappraisal rather than suppression) is associated with less disruptive behavior and less hostility in students.

In addition to student emotion regulation, classroom management is likely to be enhanced when teachers effectively regulate their own emotions. Gross's research suggests that emotion regulation strategies can be contagious because even regulated emotions leak. For example, teachers who tend to suppress anger may turn red in class and unintentionally encourage their students to suppress their feelings. Given the relative ineffectiveness of suppression, this approach may complicate teachers' own classroom management attempts.

On the other hand, teachers who tend to acknowledge their anger and who choose to interpret their emotional triggers in a different light (reappraisal) may encourage their students to enact reappraisal to regulate their emotions. Importantly, teachers who successfully manage their emotions are not just good role models. They also enjoy greater job satisfaction and experience less burn-out, which itself may improve classroom management.

Classroom-Based Training Programs for Enhancing Students' Emotion Regulation

Given the role of emotion regulation in student behavior and teachers' psychological balance, programs that enhance students' and teachers' emotion regulation skills may help to improve classroom management. Programs from two educational movements—social and emotional learning (SEL) and contemplative education—provide instructive examples.

SEL programs feature deliberate and routine teaching of social skills (e.g., conflict resolution and empathy building) and emotion skills (e.g., emotion awareness and emotion regulation) that are integrated into traditional academic instruction. Evaluations of SEL programs indicate that the social-emotional skills of teachers and students can be improved through research-based training with positive effects on stress and *prosocial behavior*, respectively.

Take, for instance, the RULER approach to social and emotional learning. The program provides teachers and students with daily practice recognizing, understanding, labeling, expressing, and regulating their emotions (RULER). The RULER Meta-Moment is a tool that helps students and teachers to enact effective emotion regulation strategies in the heat of the moment. When an undesirable emotion is triggered, they learn to pause before automatically reacting and then to visualize their best self. Students and teachers consciously decide what response is most congruent with their best self, and then they employ an emotion management strategy. RULER has been shown to decrease conduct problems and also to improve teachers' classroom and

behavior management efforts, thereby promoting a positive classroom climate.

Contemplative education programs use various mental and physical practices to train accepting, calm, present-focused states of attention and awareness. These programs are beginning to show improvements in students' and teachers' emotion skills and psychological well-being. For example, Learning to BREATHE is an evidence-based education intervention designed to foster mindful states of attention and awareness through explicit and regular practice. The program is specifically tailored to augment emotion regulation so as to alleviate the heavy psychosocial stress that adolescents face. The classroom activities that comprise the program include concentrated physical (e.g., breathing), sensory (e.g., listening), and mental (e.g., empathy cultivation) exercises. Initial evidence suggests that Learning to BREATHE enhances adolescent students' emotion regulation skills and reduces their psychological stress.

Conclusion

Emotion regulation is the ability to modify or maintain one's own or another person's emotional experience so as to achieve a goal. The role of both the teacher and the student can be stressful and emotionally intense, which can hinder effective classroom management. Accordingly, classroom management may be improved when teachers obtain greater awareness of their own and their students' default emotion regulation strategies and deliberately teach and model effective strategies (e.g., reappraisal versus suppression) during daily (especially stressful) interactions. As students learn to manage their emotions independently of teacher guidance, they may begin to take responsibility for their own behavior and classroom climate, transforming the teacher's role in classroom management altogether. The significance of emotion regulation for classroom management is evident: It presents rich opportunities for fostering student adjustment and teacher well-being that facilitate optimal learning environments.

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See also Climate: School and Classroom; Mindfulness Practices for Teachers; Mindfulness-Based Approaches to Classroom Management; Reframing; Self-Regulation to Solve Problems; Social and Emotional Learning

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ENGAGING STUDENTS THROUGH OPPORTUNITIES TO RESPOND

Teachers are tasked with creating effective classroom environments that promote positive academic and behavioral outcomes for all students. To be successful, teachers must combine high-quality academic instruction with a continuum of proactive classroom management practices. One such practice with substantial empirical support is the practice of increasing students' opportunities to respond (OTR). Giving students OTR during instructional periods is all part of a larger emphasis on actively engaging students. This entry will describe three types of OTR, discuss the empirical support for positive student outcomes associated with offering OTR, and provide suggestions for integrating OTR into the classroom.

Three Types of OTR

Research and literature indicate that actively engaging students by providing them with multiple and varied OTRs is an empirically supported classwide classroom management practice, one that results in positive academic and behavioral outcomes for students with and without disabilities. OTRs can be grouped into three types: teacher-directed, student-directed, and computer-assisted.

Teacher-Directed OTR

Teacher-directed OTRs are those that are directly led by the teacher when the teacher presents the student with a request for a response, and then a response by the student is followed by feedback from the teacher (e.g., praise for a correct answer, or error correction).

Teacher-directed OTRs can be presented to students verbally or nonverbally (e.g., through gestures, written response, or handheld clickers such as the student response system) and in one of three ways: individually, in unison, or student to student. A brief description of each type of teacher-directed OTR follows.

Individual Response

Teacher-directed individual OTRs occur when the teacher presents a response opportunity to only one student, or to the entire class but only calls on one student to respond. For example, the teacher may ask the class, "What is the capital of Connecticut?" Many students may raise their hands, but the teacher calls on one student ("Yes, Nick, what is the capital of Connecticut?") to provide a response.

Unison Response

A unison response opportunity occurs when all students respond chorally to the teacher request. This can be accomplished through the use of visible gestures (e.g., thumbs up/down or hand raises), verbal response, or manual response (e.g., use of response cards or whiteboards). Similar to the individual response described above, most requests for response can be turned into a unison opportunity if the teacher asks the entire class to chorally respond to the same question. For example, the teacher can change the question to elicit a response from all students by asking them to produce a written response on a whiteboard (e.g., "Please write the capital of Connecticut on your whiteboards"). A teacher may also choose to use worksheets or guided notes to direct students to respond in unison.

Guided notes contain blank spaces for students to fill in answers. For example, the teacher can request that all students write the answer into their notes instead of on a whiteboard (e.g., "Please write the capital of Connecticut in your notes"). The use of guided notes to actively engage students does not necessarily have to be teacher-directed. Instead, teachers can provide students with guided notes and allow them to use these during lecture instruction or other activities where interaction may be limited.

Student-to-Student Response

Student-to-student responses occur when teachers direct students to respond to one another. Like unison responses, student-to-student responses allow all students to provide an answer. For example, the teacher could now ask the entire class to turn to a partner and

tell their answer (e.g., “Please turn and tell your partner what you think the capital of Connecticut is”).

Student-Directed OTR

In addition to teacher-directed OTRs, students can direct the opportunities through classwide peer responding that involves students teaching one another. There are several models of student-to-student peer instruction (e.g., peer-assisted learning, classwide student tutoring teams, cooperative group learning), the most common model being ClassWide Peer Tutoring (CWPT). In contrast to the teacher-occasioned response opportunities, CWPT is a carefully structured, student-driven form of cooperative learning that ensures all students are provided with equal OTRs.

The CWPT model originated over 30 years ago with the goal of improving literacy for diverse inner-city students. It has been researched extensively in both special education and general education settings, as well as across content areas, including mathematics, health, and science. CWPT blends two classwide positive behavior support strategies by providing students with increased OTRs and by providing individual and group opportunities for reinforcement contingent on academic performance and social behavior.

Although CWPT has been adapted for use across various academic content areas (e.g., spelling, mathematics), it is generally characterized by the following elements: (1) weekly competing teams; (2) highly structured reciprocal tutoring procedures; (3) daily point earning, public posting, and contingent rewards; and (4) direct practice in functional instructional activities.

Computer-Assisted Instruction

Computer-assisted instruction (CAI) is perhaps the most diverse and fastest growing form of offering response opportunities that actively engage students. CAI can be accessed through handheld devices such as clickers that allow students to enter their answer choices for display (e.g., student response system [SRS]), tablets (e.g., iPad, Google Nexus 7), laptops, interactive whiteboards (e.g., SMART Board), and computers. CAI can provide students with immediate feedback and interactive lesson content.

Although CAI is often used individually or in pairs (e.g., during center time), it can also be used as an effective classwide management strategy. For example, the SRS allows all students to respond in unison to a given question. This is done by posing a question to the entire class and then providing multiple choice answers. From the list of multiple choice answers, students select the

answer they think is correct, and then all student answers are immediately displayed at the front of the classroom.

Empirical Support for Active Engagement Practices

Research suggests that when teacher-directed OTRs are increased either by frequency (i.e., amount of times students are presented with OTRs) or by changing the response format from individual to unison (i.e., all students are able to respond at the same time), students become more engaged with learning. Specifically, studies show that increasing teacher-directed OTRs leads to increases in students’ time-on-task, active responding, learning of academic content, and academic achievement, as well as decreases in off-task and disruptive behavior. Student-directed response opportunities can take various forms, but the most common form, CWPT, has been linked to increases in academic achievement, time-on-task, social interactions of students with autism, decreases in off-task behavior, and fidgeting behavior of students with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder. CAI response formats such as SRS are associated with increases in students’ response rates.

Integration Into Practice

Several authors suggest that teachers informally self-assess by asking questions (e.g., what types of OTRs are used and how are they delivered) to determine their present OTR use within the instructional setting. Based on this reflection, teachers can modify their instruction to include more frequent and varied OTRs presented to students. Others provide a detailed outline for integrating teacher-directed OTRs into practice, including an action plan that follows a data-based decision-making model, such as a model with a four-step framework: (1) define the problem and establish judgment criteria, (2) acquire a plan, (3) track data, and (4) actively inspect data and modify instruction. In applying this model, teachers can first determine their present level of OTR performance by taking data on themselves via low-tech options (e.g., pencil-and-paper tally marks) or high-tech options (e.g., audio or video recording) during a prespecified observation period (e.g., 15 minutes during direct math instruction). These data can then be used to set a target goal for increasing the teachers’ total or average rate of OTRs presented per minute, as well as develop an accompanying action plan (i.e., intervention). Following the creation of goal creation and an action plan, the teacher implements the plan and continues to collect data. The data are then interpreted and decisions about continuing, modifying, or terminating the intervention can be made based on responses to the

intervention. Either the teacher collects, graphs, and interprets his or her own data, or an outside observer/coach works with the teacher to interpret the data.

Conclusion

Increasing opportunities for students to respond is an effective instructional practice that promotes academic achievement, supports desirable social behaviors (e.g., time-on-task and participation), and decreases undesirable behaviors (e.g., off-task and disruptive behavior). Research supports the academic and social behavioral benefits of providing students with more OTRs, and the integration of these empirically supported strategies (e.g., unison response, CWPT, SRS) can be done through informal teacher self-reflection or more rigorous data-based methods that incorporate data collection by self or outside observation. Providing students with increased OTRs is a key characteristic of high-quality instruction that also supports effective classroom management.

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See also Choral Response; Classwide Peer Tutoring; Cooperative Learning Groups; Self-Management

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ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS AND CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR

In 2009, the National Association for the Education of Young Children predicted that children with little or no proficiency in English who arrive in daycare or schools would be the fastest growing segment of the classroom population over the coming 20 years. Indeed, the United States is currently the fourth largest Spanish-speaking country in the world, and by the year 2050, demographers predict that it will be the world's largest Spanish-speaking country.

Since the late 1990s, many state educational agencies have eliminated bilingual education, replacing it with Sheltered English curricula, which provide all classroom instruction in the English language. Such English-only policies have important social and psychological implications for English language learners (ELLs), as well as pedagogical repercussions for teachers.

This entry discusses how children use language in early childhood settings and the social and behavioral risks ELLs face in classroom settings. The entry concludes with a discussion of some intervention strategies teachers can use to more fully integrate ELLs into their classrooms.

Language and the Double Bind of the ELLs

Of all the marvelous capacities of the human mind, language is the one capacity that, unequivocally, sets us apart from other animals. Language allows us both to formulate ideas and to share them with others via speech or writing. We use language to exchange information and, perhaps more importantly, to mediate our relationships with others. Language allows us to be specific about our wants, needs, and desires. Language is the gateway to starting and maintaining friendships.

Young children increasingly rely on language to mediate their relationships with others. They need language in order to regulate their relationships with their peers and with their teachers. Children use language to initiate play, to negotiate social situations, to explain the rules of a game, to share secrets, to gossip, to forge friendships, and to share their thoughts with teachers and peers.

For children who have limited or no knowledge of English, these tasks are difficult, if not impossible. Unable to use their native language, children with limited proficiency in English are at greater risk of exclusion by their peers and, as a result, social isolation. Scholars sometimes refer to such isolated, excluded children as omega children. These omega children are caught in a double bind: In order to establish and maintain meaningful social relationships with their English-speaking

peers, they must interact in English; without access to English, they cannot establish these relationships.

As a response to this double bind, many young children may go through a silent period during which they refrain from communicating with their peers and teachers. Moreover, in classroom settings, these young children may resort to hitting, yelling, and other antisocial behavior to express their thoughts and desires.

What Teachers Can Do: Intervention Strategies With ELLs

Recent scholarship on the pedagogy of ELLs emphasizes the importance of focusing on the initial development of oral proficiency in classroom settings. The development of basic interpersonal communicative skills, as it is called in the bilingualism literature, should be the focus of teaching and learning because it allows children to interact with their peers.

Teachers of ELLs must focus on helping children develop simple English words and phrases that will allow them to mediate their relationships with others, as well as allow them a range functions such as how to initiate play (e.g., *Wanna play?*) and how to ask for items (e.g., *Can I have?*). Additionally, teachers should provide ELLs with words or phrases that will allow them to express their internal states (e.g., *I'm sad*). These phrases need not be fully grammatical, but they must be easily comprehensible to a native speaker of English. Teachers should bear in mind that it is not important that the child understand the structure of these phrases; they may be learned in unanalyzed chunks.

For children with very limited English language proficiency, teachers should make use of audiovisual materials such as picture boards that will allow ELLs to communicate their feelings and desires.

Teachers should also endeavor to work with the English-speaking students to make sure they include ELLs in their social interactions. Research indicates that ELLs who have at least one English-speaking friend perform better both in the classroom and on the playground. Educators have had some success establishing classroom buddy systems where each ELL is matched with a socially competent English-speaking peer who makes sure the ELL is included in social activities.

Interventions can also take place at a schoolwide level: Activities coordinators, sports coaches, and theater directors should remember to include ELLs in extracurricular activities and, where necessary, should adjust their curriculum so that ELLs may be included.

Families are also a valuable resource. English-speaking families should be encouraged to include ELLs and their families in all birthday parties and play dates. The families of ELLs should be invited to contribute to school and classroom life by sharing their culture and language with the class.

Conclusion

Children who have little or no proficiency in English are at a severe disadvantage when it comes to full participation and integration into the classroom. They are at increased risk of social isolation and exclusion. Without access to language, they cannot adequately express their thoughts and desires to their peers and teachers. As a result, they may resort to aggression or other antisocial behaviors. Teachers and school communities should implement strategies that integrate ELLs into the classroom and provide them with rich, socially meaningful opportunities to develop their English language skills.

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See also Bilingual Education; Bilingualism and Students With Disabilities; English Learners; Language Differences; Linguistic Diversity and Classroom Behavior

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ENGLISH LEARNERS

Schools in the United States are enrolling a greater number of students, often first- or second-generation immigrants, who live in homes where a language other than English is spoken. The vast majority of these English learners come from countries in Central and South America, with Spanish being the first language spoken at home. However, English learners come from all corners of the world and speak a wide array of languages.

Often these students have not had opportunities to learn English, and as a consequence, they come to school with limited English proficiency. As English learners, they have a greater potential of becoming bilingual—fluent in both English and their home language. Yet often, teachers are underprepared to provide English learners the supports they need to simultaneously build English language fluency and develop content knowledge. This entry focuses on three strategies that help create effective learning environments for English learners, both by their leading to respect for linguistic diversity in classrooms and by their supporting English language development.

Treat Home Language as an Asset

First, research suggests that teachers treat home languages as assets. In practical terms, this means encouraging students to maintain their home language while also learning English. Efforts to help these students develop English skills need not discourage bilingualism, and speaking a first language is not, in itself, a barrier to English learners developing fluency in English. In fact, research has consistently established that learning to read in one's first language actually promotes higher levels of reading achievement in English.

This strikes many as counterintuitive. One might logically reason that the most efficient way to promote English language development would be to place English language learners in an all-English setting, ignoring their first language. Yet a broad consensus in the research on this topic has consistently found that language skills transfer. In other words, decoding skills and comprehension strategies applied in one language largely transfer to learning a second language.

In practical terms, teachers treat home languages as assets by welcoming them into the classroom. Furthermore, teachers should encourage parents to read to their children in their native language, even if this language is not English. It is most important that they develop literacy in their native language. Doing so will help them develop English literacy as well. In addition, teachers can help students make connections between concepts and vocabulary in English and their native languages. For instance, bilingual signage and labels should not be seen as providing an unnecessary crutch that slows down English language development for students who are English learners. Instead, such accommodations should be regarded as important tools that affirm multiple languages and facilitate literacy across languages.

Appreciate Basic Principles of Language Development

Second, teachers in classrooms with linguistic diversity are well served by appreciating a few basic principles of language development. A working knowledge of basic principles from the field of linguistics can help teachers understand what English learners are experiencing.

First Principle: Language Develops in Stages

One such principle is that language emerges in stages, and fluency takes many years to develop—typically between 3 and 7 years. Accordingly, teachers will help English learners experience academic success by considering that these students are at different places on

a continuum of English proficiency. The preproduction stage involves listening and repeating words in the second language. This is followed by an early production stage, where one is developing initial vocabulary, including words one understands when hearing them (receptive vocabulary) as well as words one understands well enough to speak (active vocabulary). At this point, a student's repertoire of words is about 1,000.

The next stage of language acquisition is speech emergence. This involves communicating with simple phrases and sentences with a vocabulary of approximately 3,000 words. From here one develops intermediate fluency, in which one uses more complex sentences both in speaking and writing, with an expanding vocabulary within the range of 6,000 words. Finally, one attains advanced fluency when one is proficient employing oral and written language across conversational and academic settings. Considering English learners as progressing across this continuum of stages can help teachers be patient with students and sensitive to their developmental needs.

Second Principle: Language Is a Sociocultural Process

Another principle from linguistics is that language development is a sociocultural process. This means that how we learn to speak is affected by the particular social contexts in which we find ourselves. Linguists refer to different registers of text to signify the literacy skills associated with different contexts. For example, one might think of a playground register as involving the vocabulary and speech patterns needed to successfully interact with classmates in this informal social setting. By contrast, one might think of an academic register as referring to the vocabulary and speech patterns that one needs to successfully interact within classroom settings. Even more specifically, one might consider the specific terms of numeracy, geometry, and algebra as comprising a mathematics register. By recognizing that students are developing different registers, teachers can be more deliberate in providing the supports students need to develop language skills for academic success. This leads to the third and final strategy: scaffolding English language development.

Scaffold English Language Development

Teachers in classrooms with linguistic diversity may draw upon several practical ways to scaffold language development for English learners. Providing such scaffolding is necessary because these students must devote attention to understanding language while at the same time trying to understand the content at hand. For instance, during a science lesson on photosynthesis, English learners must simultaneously work at understanding the language of

instruction while also understanding the concept of how plants use energy from the sun to split hydrogen and oxygen in water.

Verbal Scaffolding

Verbal scaffolding means using deliberate forms of questioning and speaking that help English learners develop language skills while also engaging in higher levels of thinking. For instance, teachers can ask students (English learners and native English classmates) to paraphrase directions and ideas. This provides a check on understanding and an alternative vocabulary to communicate the concepts. Teachers can use think-alouds, where they verbalize their thoughts to make the process more explicit. Another form of verbal scaffolding is elaborating and expanding on student responses. Often English learners will give abbreviated responses to questions. By accepting these responses and then elaborating on them, teachers model for the students how to use broader vocabulary. Elaborating and expanding does not discourage students by telling them that their initial (short) answer is wrong. Purposefully using synonyms and antonyms is yet another verbal scaffolding technique that helps English learners expand their vocabulary.

Procedural Scaffolding

Procedural scaffolding groups English learners in specific ways that help them build confidence and independence in using the new language. As a general guideline, teachers begin with whole-class activities such as choral responses and group writing. These whole-class activities provide a low-risk setting for students to practice using both oral and written language. Teachers can then proceed to put students into smaller groups, groups that allow English learners greater opportunities for practicing language while still having peer support. Next, teachers can allow English learners to work with one or two partners, moving them a step closer to independence. The final step in procedural scaffolding is for English learners to work independently.

Conclusion

Respecting language diversity is necessary for teachers to effectively work with English learners, who are increasingly common in both rural and urban schools across the country. By treating these students' home languages as assets, teachers establish a welcoming and invitational atmosphere. By appreciating basic principles of language development, teachers are able to more

realistically understand what students are experiencing. By scaffolding English language development, teachers are able to provide supports to accommodate students as they simultaneously learn language and content.

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See also Bilingual Education; Cultural Diversity; English Language Learners and Classroom Behavior; Language Differences; Language Disorders; Linguistic Diversity and Classroom Management; Urban Schools

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ETHICS, POWER, AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Many discussions of classroom management begin—and end—with questions of efficacy or whether certain methods work or not. However, there are fundamental issues that are rarely addressed in these discussions—issues that concern the use of power and control and the way decisions are made, all of which raise ethical concerns and questions such as the following:

- What behaviors are selected for modification, and who makes the selections?
- Whose behavior is selected as needing management or modification? Are particular populations more vulnerable?

- What strategies are used to modify behavior, and what constitutes success? Do measures of effectiveness include considerations of dignity and respect? Will the behavior management program help the targeted person learn to be a responsible, self-regulating, successful human being?

To clarify how issues around power, control, and decision making raise ethical concerns, imagine that you are overweight and know you want to lose weight to be healthier. Consider two scenarios:

Someone sending you to a doctor, who puts you on a diet of his choice, weighs you every day, and offers rewards for losing weight and fines for gaining weight.

Someone helping you learn to cook healthy meals, walking with you every evening to combine social interaction and exercise, teaching you to play racquetball, and going to the gym with you three times a week.

Although both strategies may result in weight loss, there are likely to be significant differences between the relationships you develop in the first and second scenarios, and also differences in the probability of maintaining long-term health and weight maintenance.

The same is true for dealing with challenging behaviors in the classroom. Although more than one option may appear effective in minimizing a behavior identified as challenging, there are likely to be significant differences in both the quality of relationships that are part of the intervention as well as implications for producing long-term positive effects.

What Behavior Is Chosen for Modification? Who Chooses?

Is the person whose behavior you wish to modify consulted or involved in this process, or is it a case of *power over* in which someone else makes the decision for that person? Does this person *want* to change that behavior?

Within classroom settings, power relationships are usually such that an adult (teacher, therapist, administrator) decides that certain behaviors must be changed, and often the behavior to be modified is one that is identified as problematic—to the teacher (and not necessarily to the student). The popular assertive discipline model focuses on the rights of *teachers* to determine the environmental structure, rules, and routines and to insist that students conform to their standards. The model does not, then, focus on students as co-constructors of rules who have an active voice in creating a learning

environment that works for not just the teachers but for them as well.

The focus on getting rid of undesirable behavior is critical because it tends to lead to particular forms of behavior management, many of them punitive. Although it is certainly possible to have objectives expressed as skills to be learned, it is more typical that classroom management focuses on getting students to *stop* doing various things.

Interestingly, the common behavior management strategy of time-out, in which a child who is behaving inappropriately is sent to an isolated part of the room or to a different place for a specific period of time, has little relationship to the original design of the strategy, which originated as *time out from positive reinforcement*. The theory was that removing a student from a pleasurable setting as a consequence of negative behavior would strengthen the desire of the student to be back in the action where good things were happening.

But for many students, what is happening in classrooms is *not* pleasurable or reinforcing, and, therefore, removal may actually be a form of relief from the negativity or boredom of the classroom. Instead of the *power over* approach of *sending* George to time-out, our goal could be to empower George to say “I’m feeling a little wired and upset right now—I’m going to take a few minutes to go sit in the quiet corner and breathe deeply so that I can calm down and get back to work.”

Whose Behavior?

Issues of power and privilege also arise when individuals who are members of marginalized or oppressed groups are systematically targeted for behavior management plans; typically members of dominant groups make decisions about what constitutes deviant or unacceptable behavior and set about to change the behavior.

Students whose first language is other than English have been forced to give up their home language; English-only policies were historically used to punish Native American students so that they would abandon their home culture and language, and many schools still punish Spanish-speaking children and force them to speak English. Students who identify or are identified by others as queer (lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and gender nonconforming) are sometimes forced to submit to management programs that attempt to change their sexual orientation, including the use of aversives, seclusion, and other invasive strategies. Students with disabilities have been subjected to behavior management strategies that are very abusive, often with little understanding of the nature of the child’s disability and his or her ability to control various behaviors.

APRAIS (the Alliance to Prevent Restraint, Aversive Interventions and Seclusion) details the use of hitting, electric shock, force feeding, odor therapy using ammonia or other noxious fumes, sensory deprivations such as blindfolds, visual screens or helmets that generate white noise, withholding meals, sleep, water, medication, or bathroom facilities, and verbal abuse or humiliation. TASH, an international leader in disability advocacy, issued a strong statement against the use of aversive techniques that, in their view, abuse people with disabilities—something that would not be tolerated if the same techniques were imposed on the elderly, prisoners, or even animals.

Because there is a pervasive rhetoric that these behaviors were being modified for the child's own good so that he or she could be helped to lead a more normal life and fit in better to mainstream society, those designing behavior modification programs are often not required to interrogate their own limiting cultural understandings, biases, and rigid and narrow conceptions of normality, which become manifest in their selection of target behaviors and methods.

Disability activist Mayer Shevin has educators contrast the situations in which they would be okay with someone else forcing them to do something with those in which they feel it is okay for *them* to force someone else to do things. If we accept the premise that behavior is a form of communication, then it is incumbent on *us* to understand what a person is trying to tell us rather than try to change the person's behavior.

What do we know? Punishment may suppress or extinguish undesirable behavior, but without systematic teaching and management, positive behaviors will not magically appear. Furthermore, punishment often leads to a climate of surveillance and encourages sneakiness. Yelling at John, "Don't ever let me catch you bothering Mateo again!" teaches him to find new (and less visible) ways of tormenting Mateo, rather than teaching him empathy, caring, and supportive repertoires of interacting with his classmate. The student who is expelled for homophobic bullying is unlikely to say, "I have to rethink my understandings of gender and sexuality" and is more likely to spend his time outside of school—plotting his revenge.

In a radical New Approach to Student Discipline, the developers argue that much of students' bad behavior is a result of adverse childhood experiences, including emotional, sexual, and physical abuse, and emotional and physical neglect. They argue that this toxic stress physically damages a child's developing mind. Rather than punish students, one should respond with thoughtful, careful listening and attention.

Many people who understand the problems with punishment assume that rewards are the logical, ethical

alternative to managing behavior. According to education theorist Alfie Kohn, while incentives seem to work in the short run, the strategy ultimately fails and may even do harm. In his 1993 book *Punished by Rewards*, Kohn argues that enticing children with money, grades, and other incentives actually promotes inferior work and can never produce more than temporary obedience. Paradoxically, the use of artificial inducements to motivate people may actually teach them that what they do is not of intrinsic value or worth and may decrease their motivation to engage in those behaviors. ("If they give me stickers for reading, then I will only read when I am given stickers.")

From this perspective, the good behavior game and other variations of programs that use extrinsic rewards and punishments (often competitively) trivialize learning acceptable behavior ("it's just a game") and may promote negative interpersonal behavior through competition as well as lead to the potential targeting of specific students as the ones who *made us lose*.

Respectful Strategies

If our goals as educators are to teach people to be self-regulating humans who have both internalized norms of appropriate behavior and polished social and life skills, then we must employ ways of modifying behavior that are consistent with this goal.

The following strategies are recommended for engendering caring interactions and maintaining student dignity. Though more empirical research is needed, compared to strategies designed simply to end challenging classroom behaviors in the short term, these recommended strategies appear to have a higher probability of being generalized to nonschool and non-adult-controlled settings, thus broadening their utility immensely. Generalizability and maintenance are important criteria for evaluating our strategies; ideally, we want to teach a child to calm himself or herself down outside of adult supervision and in settings beyond the classroom.

Meditation

Teaching children to meditate can help them relax their bodies and focus better during school. Meditation can also be taught as a way to handle stress and anger, and children can learn to control their own bodies and behavior—a self-awareness that can help them avoid anger, confrontation, and frustration. In short, meditation has become an accepted practice in a growing number of schools; despite some objections, such strategies are not inherently connected to religious connotations and have the potential to teach children to release stress,

as well as allow children to physically calm down and focus so that they are less reactive and more open to learning and maintaining positive relationships.

Yoga

Lidia Flisek has provided evidence that teaching children simple yoga postures and breathing techniques can help them to calm down, reduce discipline problems, decrease anger and panic attacks, enhance imagination and concentration, and lead to improvements in academic performance.

Positive Time-Out/Self-Time-Out

Responsive classroom, a research- and evidence-based approach to elementary education, describes positive time-out as a chance to calm down and regain self-control, not a punishment. Time-out is not a punishment but is about regaining control, and that the child will be welcomed back into the group. To further reconceptualize this approach, one may call it time to *take a break, rest and return, or take a vacation*, and the ultimate goal is to teach children to self-manage their time-outs. Some teachers set up calming stations in their classrooms where students can decompress and refocus.

Teaching Positive Social Skills

A focus on teaching prosocial skills is much more likely to result in positive peer interactions. Specific instruction can be provided in how to resolve conflicts; negotiate turn-taking; work cooperatively; offer and receive compliments and feedback; ask for, offer, receive, and reject help kindly; offer support; negotiate physical boundaries; and respect personal space.

Conclusion: Community Building, Pedagogy, and Curriculum

When students are meaningfully engaged in work they value within a caring, responsive classroom community, behavioral problems are minimized. When students are forced to engage in meaningless tasks, exposed to regimes of standardized curriculum and relentless testing, with little attention to their own interests and needs, behavioral problems abound. To prevent these from happening, teachers can establish a positive community, engage in pedagogical and curricular practices that are responsive to individual students, and examine their own behavior. They can refrain from engaging in classroom management practices that are likely to lead to negative student behavior. Forcing students to

compete for attention, success, and prizes often leads to negative interpersonal behavior as do systems of behavior management that employ public humiliation and shaming (checkmarks on the board, green/red light systems that clearly label a specific child as the problem and invite negative peer pressure). Any behavior management program that involves the use of force or power (physical, emotional, or psychological) raises significant ethical issues and should be carefully interrogated and then replaced with practices that are respectful, collaborative, and positive.

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See also Caring Approaches; Democratic Practices in Classrooms and Schools; Kohlberg, Lawrence; Mindfulness Practices for Teachers; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; Responsive Classroom Approach

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Aces Too High: <http://acestoohigh.com>

EVERTSON, CAROLYN

Over the course of her career, Carolyn M. Evertson (1935–) has been one of the leading social scientists studying classroom management. She has also been instrumental in developing effective ways to promote professional development among teachers. Her career, then, has been a model for the effective integration of research and practice.

Early Years

In 1970, Evertson's career in educational research began as a graduate student at the University of Texas, Austin. There, she worked with Jere Brophy and Tom Good,

who were making significant contributions to the field of education and classroom management. As a graduate student, Evertson worked at the Research and Development Center for Teacher Education—on research projects on teacher behaviors that communicated high (and low) expectations to students. She also worked on research at the early stages of a series of studies collectively called Teachers' Expectations of Student Achievement. Her collaborations with Jere Brophy and Tom Good, and her work at the Research and Development Center for Teacher Education was critical in starting her career. She received her doctorate from the University of Texas in 1972.

In the early years, being a woman, Evertson experienced some difficulty being accepted as a researcher in higher education. At times, her research was greeted with surprise and rejection. Nevertheless, she persevered and, until the early 1980s, served as project coordinator and then program director at the Research and Development Center.

Research on Establishing Productive Classrooms

As a parent of elementary school-age children and with a bachelor's degree in Elementary Education, Evertson was interested in the ways teachers establish productive classrooms for students, particularly at the beginning of a school year. Her main research question was: "What do teachers have to know and do to establish productive learning environments at the beginning of the school year?"

While at the Research and Development Center, Evertson led a large-scale study to explore in detail ways teachers establish their classrooms at the beginning of a school year. Receiving a grant for the project from the National Institute of Education, she and other researchers and graduate students observed 30 third-grade classrooms in elementary schools across the district. In these classrooms, observers wrote narrative descriptions of events they saw in each classroom and rated student engagement at timed intervals. At the time, Evertson was criticized heavily for writing stories by collecting descriptive data; later, the field would define and value this type of study as qualitative research.

In its second year, Edmund Emmer, Professor of Education at the University of Texas, joined the project. Later on, Evertson continued to publish with Jere Brophy (then at Michigan State University). Her work on classroom management was often co-authored with Emmer.

Emmer developed quantitative measures of effective teaching practices used with narrative observations. Findings using these quantitative measures were significant and pioneering. Teachers who demonstrated

effective teaching practice (e.g., high clarity in instruction, developing rules and procedures) from the first days of school had students whose reading and mathematics achievement scores were significantly higher.

In subsequent years, Evertson's research with colleagues led to the development and testing of a training program to help teachers develop effective practices for managing classrooms from the beginning of the year. Findings from these and earlier studies demonstrated increased effectiveness for both elementary and secondary students. Following these results, she developed a program for teaching teachers the research-based principles emerging from the studies. The subsequent outcomes demonstrated the value of a model for training trainers, and in 1986, publication of the results in the *Journal of Educational Research* won Evertson the Award for Meritorious Contribution to Educational Practice through Research.

Research, Teaching, and Service

As Professor of Education at Peabody College at Vanderbilt University, Evertson began the next phase in her career. She brought together three areas of importance in academia: research, teaching, and service. At Vanderbilt, she formalized her research-based training program in classroom management—*Classroom Organization and Management Program: Creating Conditions for Learning*—now in its eighth edition. She remains the director of the program and has through applied research over the years demonstrated the program's significance and effectiveness for helping K–12 teachers, in both regular and special education, produce positive change in student behavior and learning.

In addition, she has worked with Margaret Smithey to develop and test Project MENTOR, a program for developing effective teaching through the mentor-protégé relationship. The MENTOR program is for helping protégé teachers recognize, develop, and implement effective classroom management systems.

Together with Judith Greene (University of California, Santa Barbara), Evertson co-authored a chapter on classroom observation for the *Handbook of Research on Teaching* (third edition). Her work was well cited in the chapter on classroom management in the same publication. Continuing to publish with Edmund Emmer and peers, she co-authored two classroom management textbooks for elementary and secondary teachers, now in their ninth editions. As an active member of the American Educational Research Association, she has given more than 100 conference presentations and served as a reviewer, moderator, and organizer.

In teaching, Evertson heeded her mentor Jere Brophy's initial advice, which was to be invested in what she taught

to students. She designed a graduate course, Analysis of Teaching, that is still an integral part of the graduate curriculum at Peabody College. She was heralded by graduate students for her Capstone class that helped students make connections with seminal and contemporary researchers in their fields of interest and that helped students refine their own research questions. She was awarded the Harvie Branscomb Distinguished Professor Award in 1992. Evidence of her mentorship as a professor includes a large number of publications and presentations she co-authored with students during and following their time at Peabody (e.g., Alene Harris, Bradley Hough, Kristin Neal, Inge Poole, Catherine Randolph, Deborah Schussler, Margaret Smithy, Tracy Whitlock).

As one among the three female, full professors on the faculty at Peabody in 1983, Evertson has chaired and served on more than 70 committees during her tenure there. For 6 years, she chaired the Department of Teaching and Learning and also served as assistant to the Provost at Vanderbilt and as Associate Dean of Peabody College.

As Professor of Education Emerita and after retiring in 2003, Evertson continued to make significant contributions to the field of research in classroom management. She co-edited, with Carol Weinstein of Rutgers University, the *Handbook of Classroom Management* (2006). The handbook was the first compendium on research on classroom management from various educational perspectives. It highlighted central themes in the field as well as provided future directions. It lent support to the publication of the *Handbook of Classroom Management* (second edition, in press).

To this day, Evertson remains active as a mentor to all who are invested in developing the field of classroom management. She remains a model for those striving to integrate research and practice.

Inge R. Poole

See also Classroom Organization and Management Program; Elementary Education and Classroom Management; Inservice Teacher Education; Middle School and Classroom Management; Teacher Education and Classroom Management

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EVIDENCE-BASED CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Classroom management can be defined as the way a teacher designs the academic and social components of instruction in order to encourage and maintain

students' appropriate behavior. Classroom management is not synonymous with classroom discipline; rather, it is a proactive, systematic approach to supporting students' behavioral needs, whereas classroom discipline is the application of consequences for rule-violating behavior. In order for classroom management to be evidence-based, the teacher must employ practices that are supported by empirical research; that is, researchers have been able to demonstrate the effectiveness of those practices through investigation and replication with a population similar to the teacher's own students. Outlining the importance of evidence-based classroom management practices is relevant in the context of this encyclopedia, as teachers need to be certain that the practices they choose to support students' appropriate behavior are supported by the research and, therefore, more likely to result in success in the classroom. This entry (1) provides an overview of what constitutes evidence in terms of classroom management, (2) reviews some of the evidence-based classroom management practices supported by the literature, and (3) discusses how teachers can become fluent with the selection and implementation of evidence-based practices (EBPs) in their classrooms.

Significance and Nature of Evidence-Based Classroom Management

Effective classroom management is critical to teacher retention and student achievement. Teachers often cite classroom management (or mismanagement) as a primary reason for job dissatisfaction and leaving the field. Fortunately, educational research has provided schools with EBPs to improve student behavior. Educational researchers would argue that teaching is, in fact, a science rather than an art; teachers *can* be taught to implement classroom management practices to increase appropriate social and academic behavior. Although researchers have identified effective practices for managing student behavior, these practices are often not implemented in the classroom. Teachers who implement EBPs in their classrooms have improved behavioral and academic outcomes. Closing the gap between research and practice requires that teachers become savvy consumers of research and that researchers disseminate their findings in ways that are accessible and practical for educators.

Teachers must be able to understand what is meant by EBP if they are to be successful at identifying, selecting, implementing, and evaluating the effectiveness of EBPs in their classrooms. In addition, teachers must be able to choose EBPs that are a good contextual fit for their students and schools; just because a practice has a strong evidence base, it does not mean it an appropriate choice for every classroom. To assist teachers, the What Works

Clearinghouse, created in 2002 by the U.S. Department of Education's Institute for Educational Sciences, uses a thorough and systematic screening process based on study design, effect size, and number of supporting studies for a given practice (see their website for details). Unfortunately, there remains a gap in teachers' accessibility to and implementation of research-based strategies related to classroom management across settings and grades.

The good news, though, is that over 30 years of research has shown that high-ability teachers use more rewards, less punishment, involve students in their own behavior change, and use a carefully designed instructional plan. Determining whether a practice is evidence-based requires examining and evaluating the experimental design and methodology used to investigate the practice as well as the demonstrations of the practice's effectiveness as documented through studies. There are several classroom management practices that researchers, using the above criteria, would consider to be evidence-based, most of which fall under five broader categories: (1) maximizing structure, (2) teaching classroom expectations, (3) actively engaging students in instruction, (4) acknowledging appropriate behavior, and (5) discouraging inappropriate behavior. All five categories and supporting EBPs are discussed below briefly.

Maximizing structure refers to both the physical structure of the classroom (e.g., the furniture and its placement, the walls, the décor) and the embedded structure, including routines and adult-directed activity. The physical and embedded structures of the classroom should minimize crowding and distraction. EBPs to maximize structure include minimizing distractions, ensuring that students and staff can move easily through the classroom, and arranging the room so the teacher can see all of his or her students at all times.

Teaching classroom expectations refers to expectations being posted, taught, reviewed, prompted, and evaluated. As for EBPs in this category, teachers should identify three to five positively stated expectations for their classrooms (e.g., *Be Respectful*, *Be Responsible*, *Be Safe*) and post them where they can easily be seen by the students. Teachers can then define these expectations in the context of classroom routines (e.g., "What does it look like to 'Be Responsible' during arrival and dismissal?"). These expectations should be taught systematically and explicitly, as one would teach an academic skill. Once taught, the expectations must be reviewed frequently and reinforced (again, as one would review and reinforce an academic skill).

The next category of EBPs is the *active engagement of students in observable, measurable ways*. One practice that is efficient for teachers to implement is providing students with ample opportunities to respond, through either solicitation of student responses or

use of a classwide strategy such as choral responding or response cards. There are many EBPs that actively engage learners, including direct instruction, classwide peer tutoring, computer-assisted instruction, and guided notes. Other instructional strategies associated with students' active engagement include varying task dimensions, precorrecting in situations where problem behavior has occurred previously, and using prompts and pacing instruction appropriately.

Each teacher should have a continuum of EBPs to *acknowledge appropriate behavior*. At a minimum, teachers should be responding to expectation-following behavior with specific, contingent praise statements (i.e., statements that are delivered directly as a result of the behavior and that mention the specific behavior being praised; e.g., "Teddy, the way you raised your hand to answer my question was a great example of being respectful"). Teachers should also consider the use of more overt reinforcement strategies, including group contingencies (i.e., when all members of a group can earn a common positive outcome based on all or on a few students' behavior, or when each member can earn the outcome individually) or behavior contracts. In addition, token economies have extensive evidence favoring their effectiveness at supporting students' appropriate behavior. In a token economy, a teacher gives a token (e.g., sticker, point, ticket) contingently on a student's expectation-following behavior; the token can be exchanged for a variety of backup reinforcers (e.g., activities, tangible items the students enjoy, privileges).

Even with the previously mentioned classroom management practices in place, teachers still need to be prepared for any student behavior that does not meet expectations. When this occurs, teachers employ a continuum of EBPs to *discourage inappropriate behavior*. There is a strong evidence base supporting the following strategies: (1) contingent error correction that is calm (i.e., neutral tone using low voice volume), specific, and brief; (2) sharing performance feedback data with students; (3) differential reinforcement of lower rates of inappropriate behaviors, absence of inappropriate behaviors, or behaviors that are an alternative to or incompatible with the inappropriate behavior; (4) planned ignoring of the inappropriate behavior; (5) using response cost procedure where tokens are removed contingently on inappropriate behavior; and (6) time-out from reinforcement.

Developing a continuum of strategies to respond to inappropriate behavior should not be done separately or prior to developing proactive classroom management systems and supports; teachers should be focusing on giving more attention to (i.e., teaching and reinforcing) behaviors they would like to see repeated (i.e., appropriate behaviors).

Supporting Teachers' Use of Evidence-Based Classroom Management

Because researchers have identified classroom management practices that can increase teachers' effectiveness and students' academic and behavioral performance, preservice teacher education programs and those responsible for planning inservice professional development should include these practices in all training for teachers. Most professional standards issued by states' departments of education address classroom climate in some way, but some teacher preparation programs do not require classroom management coursework for their students. Therefore, administrators and other school leaders must be prepared to support teachers' implementation of EBP in classroom management.

Recent research has investigated using a multitier framework to support teachers as they implement EBPs in the classroom, such as the use of specific praise. Using a multitier preventive framework provides teachers with increased feedback and targeted skill development, which could increase the likelihood of implementing EBPs with fidelity in their classrooms. If teachers can implement EBPs successfully, and there is a resultant increase in students' appropriate behaviors, the EBP should become reinforcing for the teachers, increasing the likelihood that they will continue to engage in that behavior and enhancing their maintenance and generalization of classroom management skills.

Conclusion

The identification, selection, implementation, and sustained use of EBPs in the classroom can be critical to a teacher's success and willingness to stay in the profession. In order to facilitate the use of EBPs in the classroom, (1) researchers must ensure that their work is disseminated in a way that is accessible and palatable to educators; (2) educators must be willing and savvy consumers of the available research; and (3) schools must provide continued support for teachers in the area of EBPs, including training and feedback.

Diane Myers and Brandi Simonsen

See also Behavioral Approaches, Foundations of; Climate: School and Classroom; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; Praise and Encouragement

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EXECUTIVE FUNCTION AND BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS

Executive function (EF) refers to the higher-order cognitive processes involved in the planning, initiation, and self-regulation (SR) of goal-directed behavior. EF

provides the building blocks necessary for student learning, social interaction, and modulating behavior. Recent findings illustrate a link between deficits in executive functioning and deficits in self-regulatory skills, deficits associated with behavior problems in school-age children and youth. The intent of this entry is to describe the theoretical understanding of this connection and provide practical classroom management strategies that foster student executive functioning and related SR and, in turn, reduce the incidence of problem behavior in classrooms.

EF and Its Effects on Behavior

EF can be thought of as the brain's railroad operator in a system of complex tracks, providing the connections between knowing and doing. As such, EF provides the building blocks of healthy student development. Taking place in the brain's prefrontal cortex, EF affects an individual's ability to pay attention, control impulses, remember and use information, and have flexibility in thoughts and actions through the dimensions of working memory, inhibitory control, and cognitive flexibility. Thus, EF serves as the foundation for abilities in cognition, social interactions, and behavior modulation.

Proficiency in executive functioning allows people to set goals, formulate plans, follow through with actions, and, as a result, engage in SR. When individuals self-regulate by managing their emotions, motivation, and behaviors, they are, in fact, tapping underlying EF skills by delaying gratification, thinking before acting, inhibiting automatic responses, and using effortful and sustained attention. Therefore, EF and associated SR serve as the foundation for academic achievement, social competencies, and behavior management skills.

As more is known about EF, it appears that people are not born with functioning EF. Rather, EF develops throughout childhood and adolescence through individuals' interactions with their environment and repeated use.

EF, Self-Regulation, and School Success

School success is associated largely with strength in EF and related self-regulatory skills. Students with strong inhibitory control, working memory, and cognitive flexibility are better able to self-regulate by controlling their impulses and emotions, being attentive and organized, following directions, and solving problems. In fact, researchers have found that students with strong EF and SR abilities tend to perform better academically than their peers with weaker skills and demonstrate heightened ability in social interactions and positive behavior—skills that have been linked with school achievement.

Link Between EF and Behavior Problems

Children and youth with compromised EF and associated compromised SR skills may display behaviors that can be highly disruptive and challenging to manage in the classroom. Researchers have found that severe deficits in EF and underdeveloped self-regulatory abilities have been associated with childhood disorders, including anxiety, depression, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, autism, and aggression.

In the classroom, deficits in impulse control and cognitive flexibility have been linked with aggressive and socially oppositional behavior in students. Deficits in attention and working memory have been associated with students who have difficulty following directions, learning new skills, and accurately reading social cues. In essence, students who display the inability to self-regulate their cognition, emotions, and behavior may, in fact, be drawing from a limited EF foundation. Therefore, those students with underdeveloped EF are at a disadvantage because of potential challenges in meeting academic expectations, navigating social situations, and modulating emotions, each of which can lead to frustration and externalizing behaviors.

Impact of Stress on EF

Environment and social relationships play an important role in the development of EF. Researchers have found that life experiences and toxic levels of stress adversely impact its development. Additionally, stress resulting from negative environments and adversarial social interactions has been cited as a risk factor for the development of problem behaviors. In school settings, sources of stress may include adverse teacher–student relationships and ineffective classroom management that results in chaotic environments.

When faced with stressful life situations, students with EF deficits tend to demonstrate greater difficulty regulating stress, resulting in both internalizing and externalizing behaviors. Thus, students with behavior problems who are in highly stressful social environments may be at continued risk for failure due to persistent weakening of their EF skills. Fortunately, healthy teacher–student relationships, orderly and effective management of the classroom, and students’ gradual acquisition of self-regulatory skills through teacher guidance can play a positive role in EF development.

Managing Problem Behaviors by Fostering EF and SR

Teachers can play an influential role in fostering student EF and associated SR development by creating positive

classroom environments through healthy teacher–student relationships, effective classroom management, and explicit teaching and modeling of self-regulatory skills. By teaching students how to control their impulses, remember and use information, and plan and revise actions in the areas of goal setting, emotion regulation, and social problem solving, teachers are not only honing students’ important SR skills; they are also tapping the core EF skills of inhibitory control, working memory, and cognitive flexibility.

Positive Classroom Environment

Adverse student relationships and chaotic and mismanaged classrooms may serve as a source of toxic stress for many students, which can potentially have a negative impact on EF development and associated SR. It is essential, then, that teachers not only build healthy relationships with and between students but also create nurturing classroom environments through the use of clear rules and expectations.

Healthy Relationships

The quality of teacher–student relationships is widely recognized as an important variable in preventing behavior problems and reducing stress. A low degree of conflict, an appropriate degree of dependency, and a high degree of closeness can increase positive student relationships with teachers. Therefore, investing in healthy teacher–student relationships is a vital intervention to address behavior in the classroom. In fact, if teachers develop a meaningful and positive interpersonal bond with students who have behavior problems, it is likely to increase the likelihood that pedagogical efforts and other behavioral interventions will be effective.

Classroom Management

Creating a nurturing classroom environment through clear expectations and rules is a pivotal part of reducing student stress, fostering EF development, and addressing problem behaviors. An effective management approach can include establishing positively stated rules that clearly define the social contract for how students and teachers will conduct themselves. The social contract should have a clear system for acknowledging students for following the rules and consequences for rule violation. Importantly, increasing choice making and praising student behavior more than reprimanding are key. In essence, focusing on teacher–student relationships and positive classroom environments is essential in reducing stress and fostering student EF and associated

SR development, which will equip students with the tools to manage their own behavior.

Self-Regulatory Skill Development

Promoting the self-regulatory skills of goal setting, emotion regulation, and problem solving can be effective strategies to address student problematic behavior. When students engage in these activities, they recruit underlying EF, which in turn helps them to self-regulate behavior and, potentially, increase their overall social and emotional learning. While it is essential that teachers model and instruct students in these areas, it is also important that they scaffold skill development toward independence.

Goal Setting

Students who exhibit problematic behavior tend to lack proficiency in setting goals that can guide successful learning. Establishing goals based on values is a fundamental component of goal setting, along with identifying resources and barriers that help or hinder goal attainment, creating plans to accomplish goals, and using strategies to stay committed to goals. For instance, students may value academic achievement and their goal is to make good grades, yet a barrier may be that they forget constantly to write down their homework assignments. A plan to accomplish their goal would be to meet with their teacher for 10 minutes at the end of the day to ensure that they have written down their homework assignments correctly. If the teacher cannot meet immediately after school, the student may need to modify the plan by finding an alternative time. When teaching goal-setting skills, it is essential that students learn through the use of real-life scenarios and have opportunities to practice skills through role plays.

Emotion Regulation

Students with behavior problems tend to have difficulty controlling strong emotions and have a limited capacity to accurately recognize what they are feeling. Teachers can teach students how to identify their feelings, describe their emotions, determine their emotional triggers, and understand emotion intensity. For instance, by helping students understand that emotions have different levels of intensity (e.g., frustration, anger, rage), teachers are better able to identify and regulate before students' emotions build to uncontrollable levels.

Once students are equipped with these foundational skills, teachers can instruct them in emotional control strategies. Typical techniques include situation, thinking,

focusing, and action strategies. With situation and thinking strategies, students discover how to select or modify their current situation or change their interpretation of a situation. For example, a student who is being teased by a peer in class might modify the situation by changing seats, or if he is upset about not making the soccer team, he could see it not as negative but an indication that he must work harder. With focusing strategies, students learn how to use distraction or concentration to reduce the intensity of an emotion. For example, while feeling nervous about presenting in front of the class, students may distract themselves from their emotions by asking a friend about a party. Students can also learn action strategies, where they use mindfulness and relaxation skills to help them avoid responding to intense emotions in a problematic way. As with goal setting, it is important for students to practice their new skills through role plays and activities.

Problem Solving

Having a limited repertoire to solve problems is typical of students with problem behaviors. Teachers can help students learn problem-solving steps by teaching them how to (1) determine if a problem exists, (2) name the problem and goal, (3) come up with possible solutions, (4) pick the best solution to solve the problem, and (5) develop an action plan and evaluate how well it worked. Many times, students with problem behaviors have difficulty coming up with different ways to solve a problem and may automatically resort to aggression.

Teachers can teach students strategies to generate multiple solutions through brainstorming, thinking of what has worked in the past, and what someone else would do in the same situation. For instance, a student may be upset with a friend who is spreading rumors about her. As a way to come up with solutions to solve her problem, she may think about how she handled a similar solution in the past that worked.

Once students have generated solutions, they discover how to evaluate them and choose the best one to reach their goal and use it to solve their problem. Lastly, students determine how well their plan worked and think about their next steps. For students to be able to become expert problem-solvers, they will need to hone their skills through scenarios, role plays, and practice outside the school setting.

When students engage in goal setting, emotion regulation, and problem solving, they are learning how to control their impulses, remember and use information, and have flexibility in their thoughts and actions by accessing the EF dimensions of working memory, inhibitory control, and cognitive flexibility. When students have strong EF skills, they are better able to modulate

their behavior and improve their potential to be successful in school.

Conclusion

Executive functioning provides the foundation for all learning, social interactions, and behavior modulation. Therefore, student success in schools and later life is based upon strength in EF skills, while deficits are associated with behavior problems and negative long-term outcomes. Importantly, EF skill development is adversely affected by toxic stress associated with unhealthy social relationships and negative environments. Executive functioning can be fostered through nurturing environments, healthy adult–child relationships, and explicit teaching and scaffolding of self-regulatory skills that tap underlying EF skills. Teachers can play an active part in helping their students modulate their behavior and be successful in school by cultivating executive functioning in their classrooms. By incorporating EF development into their curriculum, teachers are not only addressing behavior problems but also improving students' short-term and long-term success.

Stephen W. Smith and Michelle M. Cumming

See also Emotion Regulation; Locus of Control; Self-Management; Self-Regulated Learning; Self-Regulation to Solve Problems; Social and Emotional Learning

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EXEMPLARY TEACHERS

Exemplary teachers cannot be determined by age, years of service, or number of degrees. There are teachers with 30 years of experience who may have taught the same way, each year, for 30 years. There are also teachers, both young and old, with advanced degrees who cannot teach well. What follows is a discussion of the characteristics of exemplary teachers regardless of age, experience, and degrees.

First and foremost, exemplary teachers believe that *all* children can learn and that each child's learning is a result of what teachers do with their instructional time. Second, exemplary teachers have been prepared in both content and pedagogy. Third, they are professionals in the way they meet the forever-changing instructional challenges.

In addition, exemplary teachers adopt the following five habits of mind and practice:

- Willingly attend and often present at local, state, and national conferences in their field
- Regularly read their professional journals
- Engage in meaningful professional dialogue with other exemplary colleagues
- Associate with other happy and exemplary teachers in order to have a support system
- Pay attention to what is going on in the world—changing demographics, technological advancements, school reform—and fearlessly try new methods to engage their students

Exemplary teachers do not come to pedagogical and content knowledge by accident. Rather, they develop that knowledge by reading about, reflecting on, and practicing strategies and techniques as described and refined by scholars and other practitioners in their particular field. In sum, they regularly practice the five professional habits of mind to stay a happy and exemplary teacher.

Even though exemplary teachers believe that *all* children can learn, they also know that students have different learning styles, perceive some activities as engaging but others as boring, and come to school with various advantages and disadvantages. In short, exemplary teachers teach each child as a unique child. Exemplary teachers also teach with the knowledge of what children have in common. For example, exemplary teachers vary their instructional approaches to keep tasks fun, meaningful, and enjoyable because they know that, by doing so, all students are more likely to excel.

Exemplary teachers know that the amount of time students spend actively working on tasks is key to helping them develop and grow. Teachers familiar

with time-on-task research are likely to not only know their students well but also utilize effective classroom management techniques, such as strategically arranging their rooms to facilitate student-teacher eye contact and unobstructed movement within the classroom. Their classrooms are more likely to have established rules, routines, and procedures. Finally, exemplary teachers are more likely to have planned their lessons and activities well in advance so that they can be fully present during the instructional day. As a result of their good classroom management, exemplary teachers manage to get *all* students engaged as often as possible.

Obviously, teachers must know the subjects they teach, but they also must know how to present the material in ways that are appropriate for the maturity level of their population of students. Exemplary teachers know that an individual's stage of development significantly influences the ways that he or she learns. Accordingly, they continually seek alternative methods for presenting content to students and in ways that match students' varying stages of development. To illustrate, here is a list of children's literature arranged in a developmental sequence that exemplary teachers would well understand and follow:

- Nursery rhymes
- Scratch-n-sniff books; picture books like *A Is for Apple*, *Good Night Moon*, and so on
- Early readers like *Are You My Mother*, *The Very Hungry Caterpillar*, *Go, Dog. Go!* and *Love You Forever*
- Children's literature or beginning chapter books such as *Beezus and Ramona*, *Charlotte's Web*, and *Charlie and the Chocolate Factory*, written by such authors as Beverly Cleary, E. B. White, and Roald Dahl
- Tween literature such as *Goosebumps*, *Sweet Valley High*, *Joey Pigza*, and the *Weenie* series books, written by such authors as R. L. Stine, Francine Pascal, Jack Gantos, and David Lubar
- Young adult literature with complicated themes such as *The Outsiders*, *I Know What You Did Last Summer*, *Speak*, and *The Perks of Being a Wallflower*, written by such authors as S. E. Hinton, Lois Duncan, Laurie Halse Anderson, and Stephen Chbosky

Conclusion

Children deserve exemplary teachers as defined by the characteristics described above. They deserve teachers with a deep sense of the importance and joy of teaching, a passionate belief in students' ability to succeed, a recognition of the teacher's role in helping students succeed, and a commitment to life-long learning for themselves. Finally, exemplary teachers love and appreciate each of

their students as unique individuals, knowing that their genuine care is the most important life lesson they can give their students.

Joan F. Kaywell

See also Assessment of Teacher-Student Relationships; Beginning Teachers and Classroom Management; Classroom Organization and Management Program; Developmentally Appropriate Practice; Promoting Purpose and Learning Environments; Teacher Knowledge, Beliefs, Attitudes; Teaching as Researching

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EXPECTATIONS: TEACHERS' EXPECTATIONS OF STUDENTS

The main purpose of this entry is to describe how teachers' expectations of their students form and how these expectations may influence student development in academic and social domains. Evidence gathered over the last half-century suggests that teachers may

unconsciously create and communicate differing expectations for their students based on subjective, irrelevant, or misleading characteristics of the students, which then may be internalized and exhibited by students. While these expectations appear in both positive and negative messages, negative or low expectations are prevalent and have lasting consequences, especially for minority youth. Teachers who pay special attention to their own perceptual biases in an attempt to provide all students with positive expectations, regardless of their gender, ethnicity, or socioeconomic status, may help reduce the achievement gap at all levels of education.

Theoretical Foundations and Definitions

Teachers' academic and behavioral expectations for students have been studied primarily under a social constructivist framework. Social constructivist theory states that people within a society construct (i.e., create) reality. Teachers appear to act as agents of society who construct students' reality of achievement; thus, a student's performance may be viewed as created by what the teacher expects of him or her. However, the social construction of a teacher's expectations may be flawed if based on subjective and irrelevant or misleading characteristics of students, such as social class, instead of on objective and relevant characteristics, such as standardized test scores, academic achievements, and observed processes of thought (e.g., puzzling out loud) and action (appropriately seeking help, engagement in cooperative learning with peers). Self-fulfilling prophecies occur when expectations are internalized by the student and consequently enacted in their academic and social behaviors.

Formation of Expectations

Teachers' expectations form in response to both relevant and irrelevant/misleading student characteristics. Consideration of objective measures such as IQ and standardized test scores is encouraged when teachers construct expectations for students, as expectations that are derived from these measures are associated with actual ability. Conversely, subjective measures appear to result in erroneous judgments and inappropriate expectations. Social stereotypes are a powerful source of inappropriate and false expectations. For example, stereotypes that boys are more able than girls at math may lead math teachers to have lower expectations for female students. Similarly, the stereotype that African American males do poorly in school may lower a teacher's expectations for the African American males in his or her class.

In addition, teachers often perceive students as less academically able if they are from families of low

socioeconomic status, are members of a minority group, speak in a way that is different from the rest of the class, and if they have behavior problems or poor conduct. Moreover, teachers often make judgments based on prior interactions with siblings of the students they teach. If a good student enters a class with a teacher who taught his or her unruly sibling in the past, the teacher may have negative preconceptions about the current student. Comparable judgments are made when information about a student is received from a fellow teacher. Colleagues often share experiences and provide warnings about students whom they identified as problem students, either academically or socially.

Another misleading measure of competence is appearance. A student's appearance may trigger perceptual biases from the teacher in a number of ways. If a teacher perceives a student as attractive, the teacher may bestow high expectations upon that student, believing the student will have high academic achievement based on his or her physical appearance. Evidence suggests that attractiveness is associated with popularity and that a student will actively participate and not cause behavioral problems in the classroom in an attempt to sustain his or her popularity. Even though a teacher has not had any experience with the attractive child's academic achievement, he or she may still hold high educational expectations for the attractive child based solely on the way the child looks. In contrast, a child's unkempt or odd appearance may also lead teachers to construct low expectations. Dirty and torn clothing, along with odors indicative of a lack of bathing or washing, may lead teachers to believe these students are not capable of high academic performance.

Each of the aforementioned characteristics is given meaning by the teacher based on his or her own beliefs about what is an ideal student. This picture of the ideal student is often reflective of the teacher's background and group memberships. Perceptions may be unconscious, as the ideal is generally drawn from what has been the norm in the teacher's own life.

Communication of Expectations

Many of the irrelevant or misleading characteristics that teachers observe are used to assign expectations to students. Once these expectations have been formed, the teacher either overtly or unconsciously communicates these expectations to the class. Overt expressions of expectations include direct statements, such as "I expect you to do a good job on this assignment," as well as conduct-related concessions, such as "I won't make you finish the entire worksheet if you sit quietly." In these examples, the teacher clearly conveys a message of high or low expectations.

Teachers frequently communicate their expectations of students without intending to do so. Common examples relate to instruction time and teachers' nonverbal communication. Teachers tend to spend more time teaching material to students for whom they have high expectations, and less time with students for whom they have low expectations. Additionally, the difficulty of the material is usually increased for the former students and decreased for the latter. Students for whom the teacher has low expectations often receive fewer detailed explanations, fewer opportunities for participation, and fewer rewards and praise. The teacher's own nonverbal communication in the classroom may also illustrate how he or she feels through tone of voice, facial expressions, and proximity to students.

Accumulation and Timing of Expectations

It seems logical that students who repeatedly receive messages of expectations may experience an accumulation effect. *Concurrent accumulation* describes a context in which the student receives similar expectancy messages from multiple teachers during the same school term. *Accumulation over time* refers to expectations that are expressed year after year as the student progresses through school. Although no definitive conclusions can be drawn, current research suggests that accumulation effects are likely short term and dissipate after 2 years. However, smaller units of long-lasting consequences are observed as late as 10 years beyond the communication of initial expectations.

Importantly, timing may be more influential than accumulation. A classic study conducted by Ray Rist suggested that expectations that are created early on in the teacher's experience with the student are likely to be inaccurate. In his study, the teacher made conclusions about students' academic ability after only 8 days in the classroom. Adding to the shortcoming of a lack of experience with the students, the teacher constructed expectations in kindergarten. This is problematic because previous academic performance of the student could not be reviewed. Longitudinal studies indicate that such early constructions of expectations remain stable as the child advances in school. At the student level, ability beliefs may become ingrained based on the first teacher's inaccurate judgments, and at the teacher level, academic records are passed on that report student memberships in high- or low-ability groups. Future teachers may adopt similar groupings, and the expectations students receive may remain consistent, whether high or low.

Assigning expectations to students later in the school year does not seem as detrimental. Research provides evidence showing that teachers who construct their expectations after they are able to fully interact

with students and observe their academic functioning tend to have more accurate expectations and judgments about their students' abilities.

Possible Effects of Expectations

Investigating teachers' expectations of students is especially important to the educational advancement of society, as research suggests that teachers' low expectations for students are associated with students' low achievement. Three hypotheses related to this phenomenon have emerged:

1. Teachers' expectations of students lead to self-fulfilling prophecies, where students internalize and conform to expectations.
2. Teachers' perceptual biases toward the student result in evaluations that are congruent with biased expectations.
3. Teachers' expectations are accurate, meaning the outcomes they predict occur without influence from personal biases.

Research Findings and Concerns

Robert Rosenthal and Lenore Jacobson pioneered teacher expectation research with their study in 1968 that provided information to teachers on expected intellectual gains for students. Although the students were assigned to groups labeled as *high expectations* or *low expectations* at random, results indicated that students' actual performance corresponded to the label they were assigned, regardless of pretest measures of ability. The students in the high-expectations group not only did well academically, but the teacher also rated them as more socially adept and as having good personalities. The idea that performance increases as expectations increase is referred to as the *Pygmalion effect*.

Subsequent research on teacher expectations has been conducted in naturalistic and laboratory settings, as well as among multiple subjects of academics and physical performance (e.g., sports). Researchers consistently report that individuals for whom instructors have high expectations demonstrate high academic achievement and social competence, whereas the opposite is true for students for whom instructors have low expectations. Research also indicates that teachers' expectations may shape peer beliefs and peers' ensuing treatment of low-expectancy youth.

Despite the overwhelmingly supportive findings of the Pygmalion effect over the past 4 decades, critics have described multiple issues within this realm of research. Early studies that support hypothesis one (the

self-fulfilling prophecy) do not appear to be methodologically sound in many instances. Researchers sometimes failed to take into account unexamined variables that likely influence outcomes and may have used inappropriate statistical measures and values for calculating effects. Additionally, few studies have been truly experimental, meaning causality could not be determined. Even though there is a general conclusion that an association exists, the self-fulfilling prophecy does not appear to be the primary mechanism responsible for the Pygmalion effect.

Expectations of Special Populations

The information presented thus far applies to a typical student population. International researchers in the Netherlands, France, and New Zealand have conducted comparable studies whose findings were consistent with each of the above elements of teacher expectations. However, some groups of students may experience consistently low teacher expectations. The first group includes students with some form(s) of learning disability. These students are expected to fail more, but such failure is mostly attributed to their disability, not to gender, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, or other similar subjective student characteristics.

Another group that deserves special attention is minorities. Research on expectations of minority students reveals three trends. First, teachers report lower expectations for minority students. This finding is sustained even after accounting for perceptual biases derived from students' socioeconomic status. Second, expectations appear to be more strongly associated with minority students' actual success than the actual success of White and Asian students. Third, teachers tend to attribute low academic achievement of minority students to contexts outside of school, such as the home or neighborhood; teachers do not often attribute their minority students' failure to ineffective instruction. These differences among populations underscore the complexity of teachers' expectations and their association with students' performance.

Tracking

One final consideration involves tracking, or the division of students into learning groups on the basis of ability or readiness. Tracking can occur within classrooms or within schools and increases differential treatment. The initial determination of group membership can occur early in schooling and persists almost indefinitely; mobility between tracks is exceedingly rare. Tracking of students is problematic because it may actually increase the achievement gap. Students in

high-ability groups learn more material than is in the average school curriculum, and students in low-ability groups receive instruction on less material. Membership in low-ability groups is especially detrimental to individuals who are capable of higher achievement, as they are restricted in the amount of material to which they have access. Additional research and reform measures are necessary to ameliorate the disadvantages of low expectations for students who are tracked.

Conclusion

The entry described how teachers form and communicate their expectations of their students and how those expectations may be associated with student outcomes. Although there is strong evidence for an association between expectations and achievement, this link is minimally associated with the notion of self-fulfilling prophecies. Instead, teachers seem to be fairly accurate in perceiving their students' abilities and, therefore, hold appropriate expectations. However, there is reason to believe that certain students, especially students from cultures different from that of their teacher, may not be appropriately assessed by teachers for their abilities; as a result, these students may suffer from their teacher's low expectations. One noteworthy solution is for teachers to adopt techniques for observing that lead to better assessments. Teachers should be aware of their own biases and use caution when dividing their class into groups based on ability. Understanding the ways in which personal beliefs may limit expectations for student success will help teachers construct suitable expectations and maintain productive classrooms.

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See also Ability Grouping; Constructivist Approaches; Management of Student Grouping; Reframing; Teaching as Researching

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EXTINCTION

Extinction, or more specifically operant extinction, refers to the gradual decrease or elimination of a behavior, directly resulting from withholding reinforcement that previously maintained the occurrence of the behavior. Advantages of extinction procedures are (1) effective reduction or elimination of behavior, (2) long-lasting behavioral change, and (3) avoiding the use of aversive interventions. Extinction procedures are an essential element in any behavior change intervention.

Extinction Procedures

Extinction procedures occur when the reinforcer previously maintaining the behavior is withheld. Behavior is positively reinforced, negatively reinforced, or both.

Extinction for Behaviors Maintained by Positive Reinforcement

Behaviors maintained by positive reinforcement are those reinforced by the acquisition of attention, preferred activity or task, or sensory stimulation. Therefore, an extinction procedure for a positively reinforced behavior requires one to withhold reinforcement (e.g., teacher attention) when the behavior one wishes to change occurs.

Maria, a student in kindergarten, screamed and cried when directed to put on her coat and get in line to go outside for recess. Initially, when Maria displayed this behavior, she acquired individualized attention from the teacher. The function of Maria's behavior was positive reinforcement (teacher attention). Effectively instituting an extinction procedure, the teacher ignored Maria's crying and screaming. With consistent use of this extinction procedure, Maria's behavior quickly diminished because the behavior no longer resulted in positive reinforcement (adult attention).

Extinction is not the only procedure that could have been used. Maria could also have been provided with positive reinforcement (adult attention) for displaying a more appropriate behavior.

Extinction for Behaviors Maintained by Negative Reinforcement

Behaviors maintained by negative reinforcement are those resulting in avoidance of what a student may consider aversive (e.g., participation in a specific academic task). Extinction procedures for negatively reinforced behaviors (also known as escape extinction) require one to withhold reinforcement when a behavior occurs, thereby preventing the student from avoiding what the student perceives as aversive. For example, Jordan displays verbally aggressive behaviors when directed to complete algebra worksheets. In the past, this behavior has resulted in the teacher removing the worksheet and telling Jordan he would need to complete it later. Jordan's behavior had been negatively reinforced by avoidance of working on algebra worksheets. To effectively institute extinction procedures, it is essential that the teacher requires Jordan to work on his worksheet, rather than continuing to reinforce (i.e., removing the worksheet) and allowing him to avoid the task (negative reinforcement).

When applying escape extinction procedures, teachers are often concerned about an escalation of the behavior—as in Jordan's case when there was an escalation of verbal aggression. It is often easier to continue reinforcing the unwanted behavior, especially when considering the needs of all students in the classroom. Teachers must, then, continually remind themselves or be reminded that these procedures are necessary in changing behavior and they must be applied with consistency. Allowing the behavior to continue, while resulting in fewer or less intense disruptions, also results in fewer opportunities for a student to practice needed skills.

Factors Affecting Extinction Effects

When consistently implemented, extinction procedures result in the decrease or elimination of a behavior; however, there are times when a behavior continues to occur, even when extinction procedures are implemented with consistency. This continued display of the behavior is known as *resistance to extinction*. Several factors affect a behavior's degree of resistance to extinction. A brief description and examples of each follow.

Reinforcement History

Behaviors with a longer history of reinforcement demonstrate a gradual and variable decrease with the application of extinction procedures. In comparison, extinction procedures tend to have a more immediate effect on behaviors with a brief history of reinforcement. For example, if Nathaniel were reinforced when he called

out answers during large group discussion throughout the entire fourth-grade year, his behavior would be more resistant to extinction than the same reinforcement provided for 1 week. A longer reinforcement history results in increased resistance to extinction procedures.

Schedules of Reinforcement

Another factor affecting a behavior's resistance to extinction is the schedule of reinforcement. Schedules of reinforcement determine the timing and frequency with which reinforcement follows a behavior. A continuous schedule of reinforcement (CRF) occurs when the reinforcer *always* follows the behavior. When Tyriek, a sophomore in high school, called his friend Macrina, she reinforced him by always returning his calls (i.e., CRF). When Macrina stopped returning Tyriek's calls, she effectively instituted an extinction procedure and he quickly stopped calling her. Since she had always returned calls in the past, he knew immediately that her behavior had changed. Behaviors on a schedule of CRF respond readily to extinction procedures.

In contrast to CRF, within schedules of intermittent reinforcement (IRF), the delivery of reinforcement occurs *occasionally*. When Tyriek called his friend Cyril, Cyril would occasionally return the calls, thereby providing intermittent reinforcement when Tyriek's calling behavior occurred. If Cyril effectively instituted an extinction procedure and stopped returning Tyriek's calls altogether, Tyriek would continue calling because he would never be sure when, or if, Cyril would return the call. Behaviors reinforced using IRF are much more resistant to extinction than behaviors receiving CRF.

Possible Side Effects of Extinction

As with any behavioral change strategy, there are possible side effects one must keep in mind and for which one must be prepared. One such effect is the *extinction burst*. The extinction burst is an initial and temporary increase in the behavior before observing a gradual decrease in the behavior. The extinction burst typically occurs when the extinction procedure is first implemented.

Another possible side effect may be a resurgence of the behavior after it has decreased or been eliminated. This resurgence of the behavior, also called *spontaneous recovery*, is usually short-lived. Continued use of extinction procedures will ensure spontaneous recovery is short-lived.

A third side effect that may occur in the early stages of implementation of extinction is known as *extinction-induced aggression*. Extinction-induced aggression differs from extinction burst. Extinction burst reflects a temporary increase in the behavior for which procedures

have been implemented. Extinction-induced aggression is an aggressive behavior that occurred infrequently prior to extinction and is a behavior other than the original behavior for which extinction procedures were implemented. For example, Sorrel frequently displayed verbally aggressive behaviors, for which extinction procedures were developed and implemented. Upon implementation of the extinction procedures, Sorrel began to hit her peers, a behavior she rarely displayed in the past. The physically aggressive behavior of hitting peers is an example of extinction-induced aggression.

Developing a plan prior to implementing extinction procedures will alleviate concerns about this effect. Decisions on how to manage possible extinction-induced aggression must be made by those who work with the student and include decisions about forms of aggression that will and will not be addressed, when to intervene, and specific intervention elements.

Ethical Considerations

The optimal outcome of any intervention is immediate and significant change; however, this is often an unrealistic expectation. Many behaviors develop over time. One needs to recognize that changing those behaviors will also take time. While this is acceptable for many behaviors in classroom settings, it poses an ethical concern in relation to physically aggressive or self-injurious behaviors.

When implementing extinction procedures, one must ensure that there is an absolute absence of reinforcement of the behavior, especially in relation to the preferred reinforcer of the behavior identified before developing and implementing an intervention. Unintentional use of intermittent reinforcement will only strengthen the behavior.

Another potential effect of extinction is the unintentional extinction of appropriate behaviors. It is common for adults to focus more time and effort on behaviors requiring intervention. This increases the likelihood that those same adults will overlook providing reinforcement to students demonstrating appropriate behaviors. This absence of reinforcement for appropriate behaviors may result in extinction of those behaviors. Mrs. Salt teaches students with autism spectrum disorders in a self-contained classroom. In the room, there are seven students with one-on-one personal assistants, and Mr. Pat, an instructional assistant. For several weeks, Matt, a new student, removes his trousers and rolls on the floor during structured lessons. While Mrs. Salt and Mr. Pat address Matt's behavior, the personal assistants watch Mrs. Salt, Mr. Pat, and Matt, rather than watch their students, thereby resulting in an absence of reinforcement being provided to students displaying appropriate

behaviors. Within 2 weeks, two students began displaying increased levels of inappropriate behaviors. Mrs. Salt noted the behaviors and suspected that with the personal assistants paying more attention to Matt's behaviors, the two students' appropriate behaviors inadvertently had been placed on extinction. Mrs. Salt met with the personal assistants and told them that they needed to ignore what was occurring with Matt and to reinforce their students for displaying appropriate behaviors. The two students quickly returned to displaying the appropriate behaviors, even when Mrs. Salt was working with Matt's disruptive behaviors.

Conclusion

The ultimate goal of any classroom management strategy is to reduce the occurrence of challenging behaviors and increase the occurrence of behaviors conducive to effective learning and instruction. Extinction, as a component of any intervention, is crucial to effecting behavioral change. For extinction to be effective, one must apply extinction procedures consistently, monitor to ensure extinction procedures are implemented correctly and are effective in changing behavior, and quickly and effectively address possible side effects. Extinction is most effective when combined with other intervention methods (see the entry on Functional Behavior Assessment). While there are factors to consider and keep in mind when determining the best elements for any intervention, one must always remember that every intervention should be individualized to the needs of the student.

Donna M. Janney

See also Applied Behavior Analysis; Behavioral Approaches, Foundations of; Behavior Support Plans; Functional Behavioral Assessment; Punishment; Reinforcement

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F

FACILITATED SOCIAL LEARNING GROUPS

Most teachers agree that small group learning is an effective method for instruction regardless of the age of the students. Small groups offer the benefits of differentiated instruction in a social and cooperative atmosphere. Students brainstorm, share, research, and explore topics together. The majority of young students thrive as a result of implementing this teaching method. However, some youngsters lack the social skills and love working in traditional, small, peer-driven work/study groups. For them, a facilitated group model works much better.

The facilitator in such groups is a trained adult, a teacher, or school counselor who can explicitly teach the social skills needed for group work. Unlike social skill groups, which typically take place outside of the classroom, facilitated social learning groups focus on teaching social skills required for working *within* the classroom so that students are better able to become effective members of their classroom and school community.

All students can benefit from facilitated work groups. However, students with difficulties in the areas of social development not only benefit but also need such groups if they are to develop as good students and good members of the classroom community. These are students who need to be explicitly taught strategies for working with other students.

Intervention: The Tasks of the Facilitator

The first step for any group facilitator is to understand the nature of an *identified student's* (iS) difficulties in working in groups. Some students become anxious and withdraw when working with others. Some become so

excited with their own ideas that they have difficulty listening to and working with the ideas of others. Some have difficulty taking turns, and some become dismissive of the contributions of others.

Before beginning facilitated social group learning, the facilitator should have two or three objectives in mind to guide students in their learning groups. Those objectives will be the focus of the intervention by the facilitator. They often have to do with fostering the following skills: turn taking, negotiating, and listening to peers.

Facilitated social learning groups tend to work best when students are working on a group project that takes several weeks or sessions to complete. Along the way, there are steps to be taken. The first is to assign the iS to a group with students who will maximize the opportunities for success (both social and academic). The other members of the group should work well together and be tolerant of each other's different learning and work styles.

The second step is for an adult to be present as the group facilitator. The adult needs to be part of the group consistently for the first few group sessions, in order to help the iS with social processes associated with the start of a project. This may include negotiating a topic for the group and procedures or guidelines for working together.

It works well for the facilitator or teacher in charge of the classroom to assign a role to every member of the group. For example, one student might be the scribe, another a discussion leader, and a third may be in charge of project design and layout (if it is a poster or some other visual). Students who have difficulty learning as part of a group typically do much better when they have a clearly defined role with specific expectations for how to conduct themselves as part of the group and for the project outcome.

The third step occurs when students are given specific tasks and responsibilities for completing the project. Work on the project may be done independently, but then the facilitator must help the group members come together and pull their separate work pieces into a coherent whole. During this third step, the facilitator should help the iS be very clear on what responsibilities she or he has to contribute to the group *and* what other students will contribute. The facilitator may need to help the iS understand that everyone in the group will contribute valuable information and that all ideas need to be respected and appreciated.

Visuals and diagrams are often helpful for students who have difficulty with social group learning. For example, the facilitator might use easel paper to map out ideas using Venn diagrams or other thinking maps to help shape and organize ideas. Furthermore, the iS may be encouraged to write out or draw the thinking map in order to provide increased structure during the group-learning process. In addition, the facilitator can encourage and support the iS to look at how others in the group interact and connect and to use others as models to imitate.

In general, students with group learning difficulties do best when there is a specific plan and a specific order of events and tasks. The iS should work with the facilitator to make such a plan and then the facilitator can help the iS practice the plan, reflect on the plan (e.g., how did it go, what would you change in the plan, what would you keep), revise the plan, practice the revised plan, and reflect on the changes in the plan. Students learn a great deal from this process of reflection. For some students, this process needs to be highly structured (e.g., the student answers specific questions on a worksheet). For others, it can take the form of an interactive discussion.

Over the course of a few group sessions, the facilitator may be able to spend less time sitting with the group by checking in and monitoring intermittently until the entire task or project is completed. However, the facilitator may need to be an ongoing resource for the iS to help if he or she becomes anxious, frustrated, or overwhelmed. Furthermore, if the group process becomes overwhelming, the iS may do better by taking breaks in the group work, breaks that could have the child still engaged in work on the project, albeit independent work—which the iS can share later on with the group.

The facilitator will spend most of the time talking with group members about what steps they want to take to achieve their goal. However, with the iS, a student with undeveloped social skills, the facilitator will likely have to explicitly teach the skills needed to work with others to achieve goals.

The following is a case example of a facilitator doing just that—helping an iS by explicitly teaching skills needed to contribute as a member of a working small group.

Case Example

Andrew is a 12-year-old boy in the sixth grade of a private school. He has been diagnosed with high-functioning autism and Asperger syndrome. He is extremely bright but very anxious and limited in his ability to work and play with peers. In the classroom, he is shy and often retreats to books or drawings when he feels overwhelmed. Most relevant, he requires explicit instruction in group work in order to be an effective member.

Before engaging in the intervention, several meetings were held with his parents and teachers. Those meetings mapped out the issues and obstacles for Andrew and identified a specific project that would be the focus of the intervention. Everyone in the class was expected to participate in the National History Day competition and would be assigned a group of peers to work with on this long-term project. The task was to research a topic chosen by the group and create an exhibit with photos, quotes, maps, and other required information.

From the beginning, this was a daunting task for Andrew. His teacher assigned him to a group she believed would be well suited to working with Andrew. The children in this group were bright students, very patient, and a mixture of boys and girls.

A special education teacher was then assigned to work with this group. The teacher's support focused on several specific areas. First, she helped the group determine what role each student would play and what specific contributions everyone would make to the project. Second, she participated in discussions within the group while they were brainstorming topics. By participating in the group work, she was able to assist Andrew in the process of negotiating the parameters of the project. She helped him listen to the ideas of others without his being disparaging, and she helped him contribute thoughts without dominating the discussions and without compromising the nature and scope of the topic. All this was extremely difficult for Andrew because ordinarily he was inclined to dominate conversations without allowing for give and take.

Once the group determined what the topic would be, the teacher wrote down the topic and assisted the group in assigning roles for the project. It was decided that Andrew would be in charge of organizing an exhibit. The teacher wrote down each student's role and gave each a copy of the topic and the list of student members by name and role. The teacher went on to define what each role would entail and how students would interact with one another.

For example, Andrew was put in charge of the design and organization of the exhibit. Andrew was also told that the group would have a final review of the exhibit and that, with the guidance of the teachers, the group could decide on changes to the exhibit. Andrew agreed to all the expectations, as well as to the choice of topic. Then the group divided up to begin their tasks.

By having the role of exhibit designer, Andrew was able to participate in the group project while also working independently. He learned skills of negotiating and listening while also learning to appreciate the ideas and contributions of others. He increased his ability to be flexible in the design of the project. Andrew was able to learn to ask group members for feedback on the exhibit by drawing designs and talking with peers about fonts, colors, positioning of photos, and other aspects of design.

The group met during the history class to work on their projects twice a week over 10 weeks. The special education teacher met with the group during one of the group work sessions each week, and the classroom teacher checked in with the group during the other group work sessions to make sure there were no significant difficulties. The group created a successful project and Andrew participated in the group presentation to classmates and parents.

Andrew commented to his mother that he was very worried at the beginning of the project but happy with the outcome. The teachers learned a successful approach to facilitating the group work experience for Andrew, and they plan to implement facilitated social learning groups next year for all of the students working on the history project.

Conclusion

Regardless of the academic outcome, students with group learning difficulties will learn and practice many of the skills necessary for working cooperatively and getting along well with peers. The social implications for further class participation for these students are tremendous. Direct instruction in the social and interactive aspects of group work is immensely helpful for many students who have social difficulties. As adults, we often take it for granted that students can work effectively as a group. Yet, for many, working effectively as part of a group can only be achieved by a teacher facilitating effective working. But once it happens, skills developed during the facilitated learning can last a lifetime, making facilitated group learning in work groups well worth the investment of a school's time and resources.

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See also Cooperation and Competition; Cooperative Learning Groups; Managing Groupwork

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FEMINIST PERSPECTIVES ON CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

A feminist perspective on classroom management calls attention to the conundrum of how to simultaneously talk about feminist pedagogy and theory, which defy definition, and classroom *management*, which often tends toward application and outline. These are not mutually exclusive concepts or sets of principles, but rather the challenge in putting them into conversation highlights an important tension in praxis. It is to the point of this tension that this entry turns, conceiving of classrooms as gendered sites of social reproduction and resistance. In this context, the entry explores feminist perspectives on classroom management that theorize *feminist authority*.

Specifically, for this entry, feminist pedagogical perspectives are understood as those that seek to locate and substantiate the feminine in educational practice. The current dilemma for feminist educators is one of how to make sense of *feminist authority* outside the presently entrenched binary of patriarchal–capitalist control on the one hand or mothering on the other. This dilemma is captured in the reproduction of patriarchal domination through an essentializing narrative of teaching as a natural outgrowth of motherhood and classroom management as control in the classroom. This binary has resulted in a stifling either/or positioning of those who take up feminist praxis. In order to challenge this binary, scholars and teachers have theorized a feminist praxis that shifts from management to authority. Feminist authority displaces the capitalist–state function of patriarchy that is embedded in management. *Feminist authority* thus considers questions of gendered power, equity, and transformative classroom practice.

Conceptualizing the Female in Education

Conventional patriarchal constructions of femininities and masculinities always operate within the practice of classroom authority, particularly on male and female. Hegemonic masculinity is associated with dominance and physicality, and as such is vested with societal

power, while hegemonic femininity is polarized as docility and nurturance, rendering it and female-identified bodies subordinate. These constructions have served as frameworks for both historical and contemporary understandings of the work of teachers, particularly women who teach.

The deep connection between women and the history of public education within the United States necessitates our grounding of portions of this entry specifically within a conversation about women educators, as feminist praxis has been coupled with female-bodied teachers. Thus, the ideas informing feminist authority come from that material starting point, but should not be understood as essentializing or limiting the possibility for broader incorporation. Many feminist scholars recognize the embodied, material specificity of gendered experience shared unevenly by women in the larger context of global patriarchy. In this vein, this entry resists essentializing women but does position them through a focus on their lived experiences. This attention to experience maintains a powerful reference to the material reality of structural subordination. Such subordination is felt differently across time, location, race, sexuality, and other vectors of power and identity. (The female body can exist outside of these heterosexist frameworks and yet still be read as participating in them or being subject to them.)

Feminist scholars have elaborated in detail the various means by which feminist work must attend to the sociocultural and historical particularities of disparate communities of women so as not to reproduce *woman* as a monolithic and oppressive identity. This framework of shared experience, particularly the shared experience of the classroom in a gendered context, is of course relevant both to female subjects and to the practices of femininity writ large.

Femininities and masculinities also function as deeply institutional cultural constructs, thereby reproducing powerfully entrenched understandings of what constitutes the masculine and the feminine. When pundits, commentators, and some scholars lament the feminization of education, they reference not just the disproportionate presence of female subjects or women in the public school teaching force but also the cultural devaluation of learning as relevant more to domesticity and middle class White womanhood than to national, state power and economic strength. This is a cultural, ideological, and material lament. As feminist scholar Nancy Fraser explains, the state, as patriarchal, is developed and maintained through male collective control over economies and political spheres, and through its separation from domestic reproductive labor that is relegated exclusively to the domain of women. Therefore, women's presence in education is deemed a simultaneous violation and necessity of that which is considered vital to the development of this patriarchal nation.

Management as a Patriarchal Construct

Management, meaning to manage, to control, and to organize or direct, is a framework endowed with patriarchal authority and domination. This is particularly evident in its reflection of corporate capitalist ideology as it is organized through hierarchy and bureaucracy. The success of this model of management is measured through the submission of those being managed. As noted feminist author bell hooks explains, patriarchy normalizes control and domination. The project of management, then, runs fundamentally counter to feminist practice, which seeks to challenge patriarchal hierarchy and domination. Feminist pedagogy has centered the resistance of such practice in the classroom, understanding praxis as central to equity and justice. However, such resistance has in some instances resulted in a reactionary opposite: the linking of the feminist with the actual female/feminine, linking the female/feminine with the reductive, stereotypical mother, and linking the mother with teacher. Attempts to substantiate the connection between mothering and teaching seem aimed at rejecting patriarchal domination, but only in a condition of absolute patriarchal binaries. As we argue, feminist classroom *authority* is resistant but not oppositional and so offers a complex possibility for praxis.

Mothering as an Enactment of Feminism

Historical analyses of women in teaching in the United States suggest that women have had to justify not only their own educations but also their role as educators. The practices of *mothering* and *othermothering* through education have been taken up as a means of affirming the strength of mothers in the work of teaching. Othermothering, as a central framework for African American women who teach, signifies the work of the collective raising of children as part of an ethics of community care and resistance to racist, patriarchal domination. This framework of women who teach remains a rich, potent, and culturally relevant site of praxis and inquiry. It is the straight-line theory of women–mothers–teachers that feminist authority challenges.

Mothering as a Patriarchal Construct

As a salient framework of feminist praxis in education, this understanding of women-as-mothers-as-teachers ultimately does not disrupt patriarchy or promote feminist authority. A discourse of motherhood within education has served to place women in the service of patriarchal masculinity and patriarchal institutions as it legitimizes women teachers only in their ability and, more importantly, *desire* to reproduce. It displaces female authority in favor of a practice of *love* or *care*. Some

scholars have articulated a *natural* role of mothering for female educators. However, from the perspective of feminist authority, women are not *natural* beings but social constructs, as is the hyperheteronormative biological family or mother. Women can and do have multiple caregivers in their own socially constructed childhoods, can have a range of self-determined family relations, and can exert traction on their experience as women (as above) with no consideration of or relation to children or mothers. Teaching youth does not change that dynamic.

Some feminist scholars have posited that feminist work should not be tied to childbearing or childrearing. Specifically, if women are linked primarily to children and reproduction, the feminine is validated solely in the exclusively White act of reproduction for the nation. Mothering becomes expected of women and ultimately diminishes their work as sociopolitical beings. Feminist authority in patriarchal state contexts such as the school, then, is not only diminished by this linkage with reproduction and nurturing but also made impossible. The White motherhood that is proliferated within education thus becomes a tool of nation building for capitalist, patriarchal interests. By refusing to collapse the interactions between children and women who teach within this mothering narrative, the other ways in which women relate to children—in a political dynamic, for example—become recognizable and substantiated. Thus, we argue that a decoupling of female power from reproduction is critical for a transformative feminist praxis of equity in classrooms; in other words, feminist authority.

Feminist Authority as Disrupting the Binary

Feminist authority is the claiming of the power of the feminine. Feminist authority does not rely on what has been defined *for* women but instead validates the knowledge *of* women. Such a reimagining of power interrupts the (re)production of gendered bodies and practices in the classroom. Feminist authority offers a new praxis outside the binary, one that validates the experience and knowledge of women in the classroom. Both a managing discourse and a mothering discourse locate practice in either the control or care of other bodies in the classroom and neglect the intellectual and political projects of equity that are at the heart of feminism. Such intellectual, political praxis relies neither on an essentialized script nor on coercive control for the practice of teaching. Feminist authority in the classroom thus includes, but is not limited to, the following features:

- disrupting binaries;
- drawing on personal experience as gendered;
- challenging patriarchal discourses in language and conduct;

- promoting guidance that is driven by the practice of equity in organization and language;
- locating critical praxis in female-identified bodies;
- engaging in critical intellectual and theoretical understandings driven by information that is experiential rather than instinctive.

Implications of Feminist Authority for Classroom Practice

The promise of feminist authority is in transforming classrooms into sites of struggle in which there is productive, radical engagement. Feminist authority can be understood as neither managing nor mothering, neither coercing nor loving, but as rupturing the supposed naturalness of these categories. The resistance to these discourses is the very material enactment of such a rupture. The feminist teacher, engaged in her own authority, marks the classroom as a site of political and intellectual transformation. Feminist authority then becomes the radical enactment of the authority of the feminine/femininities for the promotion of equity.

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FIELD TRIPS

Thoughtfully planned and well-managed field trips can engage students and help set the stage for great learning experiences. Field trips provide students of all ages the opportunity to observe, explore, and learn about the world around them. They can also support a variety of student learning styles and preferences. In doing so, they can become memorable experiences that help build skills, knowledge, and positive attitudes. However, if field trips are to accomplish all this and perhaps more, they require careful planning and thoughtful management. This entry explains what effective planning and management should mean.

Field trips bring classroom management outside, and to a certain extent, the same principles that apply to managing classrooms apply to managing field trips too. However, field trips also offer unique challenges—such as keeping 30 or more students safe and reasonably orderly in an unfamiliar location. On field trips, students may become excited to the point of causing teachers concern. For field trips, planning and good management emphasize keeping children safe even as they are supported in learning and having fun.

Step One: Identifying Goals

The first step to planning a successful field trip is deciding on the learning goals. The goals may include one or more of the following: acquiring new skills, gaining knowledge, and adopting a new attitude. It is difficult to try to accomplish all three in one field trip, and so for any given trip, one of these may be enough. For example, the goal might be to acquire skills such as careful observation and documentation, or to gain knowledge of a specific subject such as how humans affect the ocean's ecology, or to adopt an attitude of respect for the natural world. Once the goals are clear, the questions of where to go and which activities to complete prior to and following the field trip will be much easier to answer.

Clearly stated goals will not only help plan a field trip, they will also help link the trip to educational objectives, objectives often needed before getting a trip approved by the school administration. Goals with an emphasis on cross-curricular connections can help get other teachers involved and collaborating. This not only gives more justification for the trip, it can also be a great way to create an integrated curriculum. For example, a trip to an aquarium need not be limited to scientific learning goals. Art, English, and math can also be easily incorporated. Making connections to what students learn in class as well as to other subjects will solidify learning and create the whole picture. An integrated curriculum is a perfect way to make real-life connections more evident for students.

Step Two: Planning Logistics

To ensure meaningful learning on field trips, teachers and other supervisors need to attend to logistics, and the details will vary depending on the location and type of field trip. However, the following general guidelines apply for most excursions outside the classroom.

Plan Early

No matter what the destination, planning takes time. From designing the overall experience and making curriculum connections to requesting permission

and securing a budget, it is best to begin planning early. Furthermore, many institutions require reservations well in advance of the visit. Certain days, such as year-end days and Fridays, tend to be the busiest for class field trips. Planning ahead can help to avoid those large crowds that could detract from the overall experience.

Assess Available Funds

Field trips can be expensive. From transportation expenses to admission price, the total cost can rise quickly. A good strategy is to consider what resources are available before deciding on a location. Some schools have a set field trip budget, while others rely solely on student contributions. This may or may not be a problem, depending on the finances of the students' families. Where funds are not easily accessible, parent groups and outside grants can often provide financial support. Fundraising events, such as bake sales, are another way to raise money. Many institutions have programs that offer free admission to schools that qualify for financial assistance or offer discounts for trips booked outside of peak season, often between September and January. While it may take extra work and creativity, there are a lot of resources available to help finance field trips.

Select a Location

With learning goals and budget set, the next step is to decide on a location and the length of the field trip. Educational institutions such as museums, aquariums, and zoos are some of the most common choices for field trips. Many offer guided tours and staff-led classes and activities. Less traditional locations, such as a nature center or a local natural site, also offer excellent opportunities for outdoor learning.

If transportation or time is an obstacle, consider options for nearby field trips. Students can create a neighborhood map on a walk to a local park. Or, they can practice landscape drawings in the schoolyard. The possibilities for exploration and learning outside of the classroom are endless.

The length of the trip will vary depending on location and activities planned to meet the trip's goals. Consider school departure and arrival times, travel time, and time needed at the location. For example, a field trip to a museum generally requires 2–3 hours on site (depending on whether lunch is eaten on site or at school), apart from the time needed for transportation to and from the institution.

Visit Location in Advance

Whether visiting an institution or a natural site, previewing the site is always a good idea. In fact, many

institutions offer free admission for a teacher who has booked a trip to come for a previsit. Visiting in advance will help generate a sense of how the day will go and will also help to highlight potential problems. It is especially important to examine the location for potential problems that might get in the way of meeting students' physical and emotional needs as well as the trip's learning goals. On a previsit, a teacher should note availability of restrooms, lunch accommodations, and whether there is shelter in case of inclement weather.

Manage the Novelty Factor

Field trips take students to new and exciting places. They foster wonder and curiosity, but the novelty of the experience can overwhelm and overstimulate—to the point of undermining students' abilities to manage themselves. In an unfamiliar location, students can face an experience that falls outside of classroom routine. New images and information permeate their surroundings. The experience can lead to greater levels of anxiety that undermine students' ability to learn. Preparing for this *novelty factor*, then, becomes a top priority for teachers.

One of the best ways to alleviate the stress associated with the novelty factor is to preview the day as much as possible with students. Sharing the schedule and reviewing a map are simple ways to prepare. So too are the orientation videos that some institutions provide for viewing with students beforehand. Lastly, completing a mock trial of the planned field trip activity will help students better understand the assignment and equip them with the skills necessary to carry out the assignment more effectively when they are out *in the field*.

Stick to a Schedule

Creating a detailed schedule will help to ensure that the day will run smoothly and the time will be used effectively. Moreover, as previously mentioned, a schedule serves to alleviate some of the stress of visiting a new place. Recommended items in your schedule include the following: lunch, a facilitated activity, a focused independent activity, and free exploration.

Clarify Behavior and Safety Policies

Clear behavioral expectations support a positive learning environment. The same holds true during field trips. Behavior and safety policies must be clear to students, chaperones, and teachers ahead of time. To maintain continuity and consistency, regular classroom rules should be expected. It is also important to verify whether

the site has specific conduct policies. To make expectations clear, teachers can draft a behavior contract to encourage accountability on the part of students.

Plan for the Unexpected

Bus delays and weather issues are two of the potential surprises that may arise on a field trip. Teachers need to be prepared to deal with the unexpected. Understanding cancellation policies and keeping contact information on hand are two important ways to ease communication with the institution or site. Furthermore, it is always a good idea to be prepared with a *bag of tricks* when the unexpected, such as late transportation or untimely bad weather, arises. With good preparation, unexpected surprises can be mitigated and sometimes turned into learning moments.

Prepare Chaperones

Chaperones can and should be allies for a successful trip. They are most likely to be teachers, parents, or other volunteers from the school. If the trip requires small groups, chaperones are essential to the trip as acting group leaders. The key to having effective chaperones is to communicate responsibilities clearly and prepare chaperones well in advance.

Choosing the right number of chaperones for the trip is important. The first step is to figure out how many are needed based on the policy of the site and the school. Institutional policies often vary depending on the age level and on the children's special needs. A general rule for most sites is that there be 1 chaperone for every 10 students. Usually chaperones are admitted free of charge. Field trip sites are also usually willing to add additional chaperones as needed.

Preparing chaperones begins with recruitment. To be most effective, the request for chaperones should include a clear set of expectations. Once chaperones are selected, they need to be informed days or weeks in advance of the schedule and plans for the day. If applicable, chaperones can be encouraged to visit the site's website as well as familiarize themselves with the site's layout. For those chaperones who have visited the site in the past, they need to be provided with any new information or changes to the site. Some sites have short videos or a downloadable chaperone guide that can be used to prepare for the trip.

Step Three: Learning Before, During, and After

Successful field trips have meaningful activities before, during, and after the trip. Coming up with such activities is not always easy. Fortunately, a wealth of

resources is available to teachers. Institution websites generally list educational materials, and many have an education department or a person available to help plan the trip. They might have materials (books, kits, posters, DVDs, etc.) to borrow, as well as downloadable activities and lessons. They might also have an orientation video for the class to watch in advance or offer specialized field trip preparation workshops for teachers.

When planning activities, learning styles are important to consider. In general, field trips captivate student interest and naturally support a variety of learning styles and preferences, thus naturally accommodating visual, auditory, and tactile learners. Choosing an appropriate activity or set of activities can have these three types of styles in mind (see Table 1).

Learning Before the Trip

One way to help students overcome the overstimulation or novelty factor is to prepare them well. This might include going over the schedule of the day, providing maps of the building or site, sharing behavior policies, and creating group assignments. One of the most important ways of ensuring an effective field trip is to give students the opportunity to practice the planned field trip activity in the classroom beforehand. This can be done using pictures, videos, or other artifacts. In addition, students can research the site and generate their own questions ahead of time, thus getting them invested and interested in their own learning. These pretrip activities serve to not only stimulate excitement among students but also decrease anxiety by making roles and assignments clear.

Table 1 Examples of Field Trip Goals and Activities

| <i>Learning Goal</i> | <i>Pre-Trip Activity</i> | <i>During-Trip Activity</i> | <i>After-Trip Activity</i> | <i>Connections to Disciplines</i> |
|---|---|---|---|-----------------------------------|
| Content: Learn about the external anatomy of fish | Read a book or watch a video about fish. Practice activity that will be completed on trip using pictures or video. | Observe several different types of fish. Draw and write about a fish using a worksheet. | Write a story or research project about a fish observed during the trip. | Science, Literacy, Art |
| Content: Learn about the physical characteristics and behaviors of animals at a zoo | Read a book or watch a video about animal behaviors. Pick one animal to focus on at zoo and practice observing the animal using video. | Observe and record data about animal behaviors using a worksheet. | Chart or graph the behaviors in the classroom. Compare data to real-life animal behavior data. | Science, Math, Literacy |
| Skill: Observation | Review different media, materials, and techniques used to create art. Practice observing several types of artwork. | Observe and draw specific types of artwork at the museum. | Develop a classroom museum that displays students' work observed on the field trip. | Art, Science, Literacy |
| Attitude: Appreciation of nature | Brainstorm and define nature. Study maps of the area that will be visited. Practice activity that will be used on the trip. | Observe, take notes, and use senses to explore the school yard. | Brainstorm questions that emerged from the trip. Have students write a story about their connection to the school yard. | Literacy, Geography, Science |

Learning During the Trip

While part of the day will be dedicated to presentations and structured activities, free exploration time should be encouraged. It is during this time that students have the opportunity to follow their personal interests and make their own discoveries. However, free time does not mean a free-for-all. During this time, teachers and chaperones need to be models of inquiry—observing, questioning, and documenting—and also guides for students to inquire on their own.

Learning After the Trip

Once back in the classroom, it is important to wrap up and discuss the trip. Students need time to reflect on their experience, to research unanswered questions, and to analyze, summarize, and share their field observations and data. Research papers, posters, or other evaluation options help deepen the lessons and help teachers assess student learning. But follow-up learning can and should continue throughout the year, with the field trip continuing to provide real-world examples for classroom studies and topics to learn.

Conclusion

Field trips have traditionally been viewed as a chance to get out of the classroom to have some fun and to experience something new. But they are not always considered to have valuable educational content. However, field trips can also be very effective teaching tools. Therefore, planning for field trips should be treated with the same enthusiasm as one would plan for a lesson taught in the classroom. They may take more time to plan, but the meaningful lessons and the long-lasting memories make them well worth the time and effort.

The more students, chaperones, administrators, and teachers begin to understand the true meaning of a field trip, the greater is the chance for field trips both to become important learning experiences and to bring a concept or subject alive for students. Designed and carried out with care and intelligence, field trips can become not time away from learning, but rich opportunities for learning.

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See also Field Trips, Legal Requirements for

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FIELD TRIPS, LEGAL REQUIREMENTS FOR

Field trips can and should be an exciting time for students to go beyond the traditional classroom to have experiences that deepen their understanding of various topics and the world. At the same time, ensuring the safety of students during these exceptional learning experiences is of paramount importance and is the primary legal responsibility of teachers and principals. A thorough understanding of the principles of safety, combined with knowledge of associated legal requirements, will not only help keep children safe from harm in the course of field trips but also protect educators from legal action and claims of negligence or lack of supervision. This entry focuses on the central ways to ensure safety and avoid unwanted legal action.

Guidelines to Ensure Safe Field Trips

One of the primary responsibilities of teachers and principals is to ensure that students are provided field trips that further their education, as opposed to activities such as end-of-the-year celebrations, which may have minimal educational value. Of great importance is that field trips also follow the directions and guidelines established by the local school district and school. Unless the policies of the district and school dictate that all field trips are a *right* for all students, there are times when discipline problems can justify excluding a student from going on a field trip. Obviously, excluding a student from having a meaningful and motivating learning experience is not something that should be done lightly or for every field trip, but the option should be there to ensure the safety of all.

Educators should recognize some essential rules that guide us in looking at field trips. Two leading principles are that the younger the age of the child, mentally or chronologically, the greater the safety concerns of the educator/district. In other words, there

must be more careful consideration concerning safety on a field trip with first graders than with high school seniors, given that younger children might not understand the consequences of their actions. Furthermore, if first and fifth graders go on a field trip together, the rules should clearly be defined for students and that they apply to all.

The second principle is that the greater the risk of harm, the greater is the standard of care. Going to potentially dangerous areas, such as swimming facilities, entertainment parks, and other areas where children can easily get lost, calls for more supervision, protection, and education than moving outside for an insect hunt or for visiting a museum.

Safety and Phases of a Field Trip

Three basic steps should be considered by all schools when planning field trips: (1) preparing for the field trip, (2) the field trip itself, and (3) period after the field trip.

Preparing for the Field Trip

When preparing for a field trip, the initial step is to ensure that the field trip form is consistent with district and school policy. It is also very important to communicate with the key contact person at the site to be visited and check on potential liability concerns and other necessary requirements, including number of supervisors, site expectations, and so on. Further, permission from the principal must be secured before any steps toward the field trip take place. The field trip form and an attachment should clearly share the intent of the trip, its educational importance, the place to be visited, safeguards taken, types of clothing to be worn, phone numbers the parents can call to check on things, and the time and place for parents to pick up their children from the journey. The expectation should be clear that parents and guardians will be at the pick-up site no less than 15–30 minutes before expected arrival. It is important, if possible, to have both parents sign the form.

In addition, if the site to be visited is unfamiliar and/or has the potential of danger, it should be visited before any field trip occurs to ensure that the experience does not present harm to any students visiting. Not knowing those dangers and any failure to plan appropriately have the potential to result in an injury to a child and could lead to liability for the teacher, principal, and district.

Chaperones should be assigned to no more than 10 students each and should have the full information about the trip and their responsibilities clearly articulated and explained, in person. When there is a greater possibility of harm, the ratio should include more

chaperones, resulting in perhaps five or fewer children assigned to each.

During the Field Trip

Considering the critical need for planning for what to do if things go wrong, some suggestions that may prove helpful are presented herein. It is necessary to understand and ensure that the field trip is moving according to plan as the trip occurs. The lead teacher should be aware of the responsibility to provide oversight of all activities at the field trip site. This includes sharing a list of key numbers to call in case of emergency and to confirm that all students who are on the field trip are in fact supposed to be there. Some would suggest that self-identifying T-shirts or the like be part of any significant trip and that what constitutes appropriate and inappropriate behavior of the students be discussed anew. Chaperones need to have their expectations for their conduct clarified, including that specific chaperones are to be present at a given missing/lost site throughout the trip.

Students need to have certain specific items shared once more, including where to go if they get lost or separated from their group (i.e., where a chaperone will be), at what time to report back to the buses, and places where they are not to go during the trip. Depending on the age and venue or nature of the trip, students can be allowed to tour the site in small groups without a chaperone, provided they have specific check-in times/locations. Arranging for groups of three helps ensure that if a child is hurt, a second could stay with him or her while the third seeks help. A final and critical step is to ensure that all students are on board the bus(es) before leaving the site. This means not just asking students to say *here* but a visual identification of the student. The failure to return all children safe and secure holds dramatic risk for both the lead teacher and the school.

After the Field Trip

When the group returns to the school site, the lead teacher still has responsibilities, which include making sure that students leave in an orderly and safe fashion, checking with and providing support to children whose parents might not have arrived, and ensuring that children leave with their parent/guardian. The next school day, the lead teacher should submit any required paperwork to an administrator/supervisor responsible for field trips with specific insights and specific incidents as part of that report.

*Steve Permut, Scott Richman,
and Paula Richman*

See also Field Trips; Law and Classroom Management

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FOSTERING CLASSROOM ENGAGEMENT

Defining classroom engagement is complex, and there is disagreement over what constitutes its components. Here, classroom engagement will be treated as a multidimensional construct encompassing three interconnected but qualitatively distinct types of engagement, namely, *behavioral engagement*, *cognitive engagement*, and *relational engagement*.

Traditional classroom management practices tend to focus on promoting students' *behavioral engagement* in the classroom. Behavioral engagement reflects what we observe students *doing* (i.e., speaking, sitting and watching, answering questions, reading, etc.). Behavioral engagement also refers to observable effort, persistence, participation, and compliance having to do with school activities and classroom projects, curricula, and routines. Typically, school-level reforms focus on modifying students' behavioral engagement via incentives for participation and negative consequences for nonparticipation.

In addition to behavioral engagement, there is *cognitive engagement*, a construct referring to the quality of students' engagement with academic tasks. A student can, after all, go through the motions of listening to a lecture but not be entirely engaged in thinking about what is being said. Therefore, cognitive engagement encompasses students' internal motivation, interests, sense of ownership, and strategic learning behaviors. In other words, cognitive engagement reminds us that just because students appear to be participating in the activities we design, it does not necessarily mean they are learning at their optimal level.

Keeping cognitive engagement in mind reminds us that we need to think about the quality of students' interactions with classroom tasks. Pushing ourselves to consider students' cognitive engagement forces us to consider whether students' efforts are aimed at simply completing work they find threatening or dull or whether their efforts are focused on understanding and mastering underlying concepts.

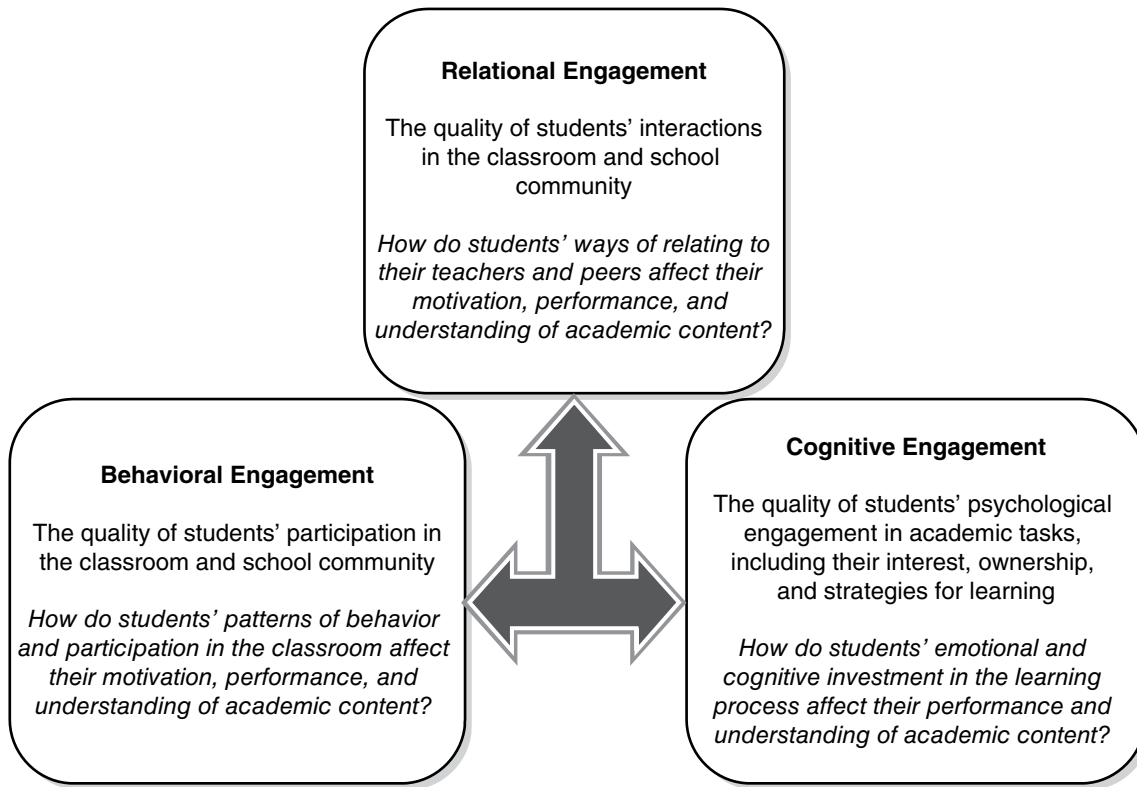
Students who are cognitively and behaviorally engaged will attend to the task at hand and simultaneously manage their learning (e.g., thinking about similar tasks they have done, realizing when they need to ask for help, using problem-solving strategies). Thus, developmental researchers argue that central to any classroom management plan is evaluating curriculum and classroom management systems to ensure that the plan addresses the need to support both behavioral as well as cognitive engagement.

Finally, *relational engagement* refers to the quality of students' interactions with others within the classroom and in the school community and also with the curriculum, projects, and school-sponsored programs. It encompasses students' relationships with their teacher and peers as well as their sense of social responsibility toward the school and community (whether they experience themselves as active citizens or not). Decades of research and close observation have documented the profound impact that fostering supportive classroom relationships can have on students becoming actively engaged. In general, students who care for each other and perceive they are in a caring environment tend to report higher behavioral and cognitive engagement.

As Figure 1 depicts, these three types of engagement—behavioral, cognitive, and relational—can work in synchrony or can undermine each other—as when students withdraw (disengage) when feeling alienated from their teacher, their peers, or their school. Similarly, when students perceive that they have little control over their schoolwork or find it uninteresting or irrelevant, they are likely to redirect their attention toward activities they find intrinsically appealing—even if these activities constitute *off-task behavior* by the teacher's definition.

Promoting Engagement Through Co-Regulation and Self-Regulation

Classroom engagement can come about through promoting both co-regulation and self-regulation of learning behaviors. These two processes are often viewed as distinct when, in fact, they complement one another. With co-regulations, students and teachers work together to create a set of negotiated norms (e.g., classroom rules) and to establish learning goals for the year.

Figure 1 Three Interconnected Dimensions: Behavioral Engagement, Cognitive Engagement, and Relational Engagement

Source: Davis et al. (2012, p. 22). Copyright © 2012 by Corwin Press. Reproduced by permission.

In doing so, teachers create opportunities for students to develop ways to self-regulate by developing a set of internal behavioral standards and learning goals that reflect their interests. Furthermore, teachers may assist students in reflecting on the work they produce and involve them in providing feedback. In so doing, teachers create opportunities for students to develop a set of internal standards regarding the quality of work to be produced, thus enabling them to develop an internal voice that can describe how they think and feel about the work.

In classrooms where co-regulation and self-regulation work together, teachers serve as conduits for assisting students in being actively engaged by understanding how they learn. They enable students to monitor their own learning and development. Students become involved in establishing goals for their learning and in finding ways to talk themselves through problems, as well as finding ways to frame failures in terms of the planning and/or strategies they employ. Both co-regulation and self-regulation, then, lead to students who can continue to remain engaged in the classroom because they have found ways to regulate themselves.

Conflict and failure also play their part in being engaged. Conflict, whether it is a conflict of interest or a conflict of beliefs, can, if supported by teachers, stimulate engagement by the energy it generates to find resolutions to conflict. Failure, too, can stimulate engagement—but only if students have been supported in becoming adaptive learners, learners who know how to manage the emotional stress of not immediately understanding a problem or failing the first time they attempt to solve a problem or when it is clear that they need to change their plan of action.

Fostering Engagement Through Good Classroom Management

To a large extent, student engagement can be thought of as the primary measure of good classroom management—because virtually all the main methods and issues pertaining to creating good learning environments (i.e., good classroom management) have to do with keeping students *on track*, participating and contributing positively—in short, being actively engaged in learning tasks. In the following sections, a few examples

are provided to point out how each component of *good* classroom management should be directed toward fostering the three types of student engagement.

Classroom Routines

Classroom routines are the behavioral scripts that enable students to maintain a focus on doing things that promote learning. Routines provide predictability so that certain moments in the school day do not make students go *off track* and disengaged. Prime examples are transitions between classrooms or activities, when routines can help keep students focused on learning objectives. For example, in one high school classroom, a teacher experienced a good deal of disengagement at the beginning of her classes (students continuing to have personal conversations with one another and students otherwise being clearly focused on something other than getting down to work)—until she instituted the routine of students coming into the room, sitting in their seats, and right away, doing an assigned reading or assigned written work.

Similarly, all of the many routines that foster cooperation in classrooms (e.g., in a first-grade classroom and at class meetings, passing around a play microphone for the person speaking—to indicate visually who is the speaker and who, by default, are the listeners) and that foster ability to sustain long periods of working alone (e.g., routines for getting help from the teacher when seatwork becomes too puzzling or difficult to do alone) are essential for students to remain engaged.

Organizing Space

Organizing classroom space can refer to a variety of things, depending on age. Space is especially prominent in the thinking of early childhood centers where creating activity corners, storage spaces, and pathways can mean either children remaining engaged in meaningful play and learning, or the opposite. In elementary classrooms, organizing space can mean preventing bottlenecks at areas where students must occasionally gather (sharpening pencils, etc.) and arranging seating so that teachers can monitor and students can feel the good effects of a teacher's proximity. Even in middle and high schools, organizing space can influence whether students remain engaged or not—whether there are easy ways to alternate between small and large group discussions and easy ways to carry out meaningful projects.

Speaking in a Way That Promotes Classroom Engagement

The feel, or climate, of classrooms is affected not only by the managerial and instructional decisions

teachers make but also by the patterns of public and private communication teachers have with students. Classrooms are inherently communicative environments in which teachers need to monitor the content, patterns, and tone of communication with students. Moreover, communication with students is largely asymmetrical and imbued with authority, that is, teachers often speak to children in ways that *exert* teachers' power. Thus, it is critically important for teachers to think about the extent to which they wield or share power and classroom authority with students. The following represent just a few of the ways in which teachers can foster ongoing engagement through the way they speak to students:

- speaking that develops students' sense of responsibility for learning;
- speaking that makes clear how to be successful;
- speaking that makes clear that everyone belongs and can be successful;
- speaking that communicates the value of reconciliation when there is a conflict.

It is critical that teachers monitor, identify, and reflect on the underlying discourses because these discourses reflect the overarching ethos of any classroom. Monitoring can be as simple as using a modern digital recorder to listen periodically and to listen to interactions between teacher and class or with a specific student/group of students. In particular, teachers can ask themselves: "Do I speak to my students in ways that promote my students' behavioral, cognitive, and relational engagement?"

Conclusion

Obviously, fostering student engagement is central to teaching. What is not so obvious is what student engagement should mean and how best to go about fostering student engagement. Here, the suggested meaning includes behavioral, cognitive, and relational engagement. The answer as to how to foster student engagement is that virtually every aspect of good classroom management ties into fostering student engagement. There is no reason, then, to treat fostering student engagement as being tied to one or a limited few methods. If the classroom provides a good learning environment, students will be engaged.

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See also Choral Response; Inequities and Class Discussions; Managing Groupwork; Motivating Students; Off-Task Behavior; Organization of Classrooms: Space; Reminders; Routines; Student Interest, Stimulating and Maintaining

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determine consequences that are maintaining challenging behavior. A challenging behavior that is disrupting a class and preventing learning can have a variety of functions—including gaining a teacher's attention, avoiding work that is experienced as too difficult or boring, gaining the approval of classmates, and other functions as well. The purpose of determining which function is actually the one maintaining a challenging behavior is to place the teacher (or some other professional) in a better position to design an intervention that will succeed in stemming unwanted behavior and promoting behavior that leads to a student's cooperating and learning. Components of the FBA include indirect methods (e.g., interviews), descriptive analyses (e.g., direct observations), and functional analysis. Functional analysis (FA), conducted as a component of FBA or alone, is specifically used to identify the function of challenging behavior via a systematic experiment. The main purpose of this entry is to describe the history of FA and its methodology, as well as to discuss its application in school settings.

The term *functional analysis* refers to any empirical demonstration of a causal relation. Although FA procedures can differ, all variations share the common trait of observing behavior under specific test versus control conditions. The *test condition* contains the variable of interest, whereas the *control condition* is used to rule out the possibility that challenging behavior observed under the test condition would have occurred regardless of what the condition contained.

Another key component of FA is antecedent events. *Antecedent events* are those in effect prior to the occurrence of challenging behavior and serve as potential *establishing operations* (EOs). For example, in the test condition for attention, attention is withheld or is delivered to someone other than the targeted student, either of which may increase the *value* of attention as a reinforcer.

Role of Motivation in FA

Motivation has been defined as a *drive*, or a change in response level as a result of satiation or deprivation. An EO is an environmental stimulus that affects an individual by temporarily altering the reinforcing effectiveness of other stimuli and the occurrence of the part of an individual's behavior relevant to those stimuli as consequences. The term establishing operation should be used only when referring to a change in the environment that meets the above requirements and that *increases* the behavior. For example, attention can function as a consequent stimulus to increase behavior, but the effectiveness of attention as a consequence is dependent on other factors such as attention deprivation. In

FUNCTIONAL ANALYSIS

Functional behavioral assessment (FBA) is the name of the method/process used to help school professionals

this example, attention would more likely increase behavior *if* the student has not obtained attention for a long period of time, therefore making attention more reinforcing. On the other hand, an abolishing operation (AO) refers to any stimulus that decreases the effectiveness of a consequence. Using the previous example, if the student has obtained attention over a long period of time and has become satiated, attention may no longer serve as an effective reinforcer (at that moment).

Both EOs and AOs play important roles in assessing behavior. Significant advances in the field of applied behavior analysis have led to improved behavioral assessments for students with disabilities. In FA research, the role of a particular consequence that maintains the challenging behavior is assessed during test conditions that either (1) withhold the potential reinforcer and deliver it contingent upon occurrence of the targeted challenging behavior or (2) present an aversive stimulus and remove it contingent upon occurrence of the targeted challenging behavior. In addition to providing information on the function of the target behavior, an FA may also suggest (1) antecedent stimuli that serve as EOs, (2) sources of reinforcement, and (3) intervention strategies that should be used or avoided. Understanding the role of EOs to determine possible stimuli that maintain the targeted behavior can strengthen school professionals' ability to assess challenging behavior.

History of FA

Before the early 1980s, challenging behaviors were usually measured using indirect assessment (e.g., interviews, rating scales) and descriptive analyses (e.g., A-B-C analysis, scatterplot). The introduction of FA was a major advancement in empirically understanding what variables maintained challenging behavior. First introduced in a study by Brian Iwata and colleagues, FA offered a systematic method of evaluating variables that maintain an individual's challenging behavior. This study led to many experiments using FA to determine the function of behavior with varying populations and settings. Additionally, this study also indicated that intervention selection could be both individualized and targeted for maximum efficacy by identifying the function(s) of behavior for each individual.

FA Methodology

FA has been shown to be extremely accurate in identifying the function of challenging behavior demonstrated by students with disabilities. The process of FA includes presenting and withdrawing different stimuli (e.g., discriminative stimulus, reinforcer) during brief (i.e., 5–15 minutes) test conditions to observe how they affect an

individual's behavior. The experiment also involves evoking and reinforcing the challenging behavior by creating an establishing operation (e.g., attention deprivation), with the presentation of a possible reinforcer (e.g., teacher attention). Consistent increases of a target behavior during an FA (compared with a control condition) are typically thought of as sufficient evidence to determine what is triggering and maintaining the challenging behavior. For example, if presenting a difficult task to the student and then removing it when the challenging behavior is exhibited consistently evokes the challenging behavior, then it can be determined that presenting the task triggers the behavior and removing the task reinforces the behavior.

Use of FA in School Settings

FA has been successfully used to assess a variety of challenging behaviors, including self-injury, aggression, tantrums, stereotypy, vocalizations, and noncompliance. In addition, FA has been used successfully to assess a variety of behavioral functions including attention from others (e.g., teacher or peer attention); access to tangible items (e.g., food) or a preferred activity (e.g., computer); escape from instructional demands (e.g., independent seatwork), social interaction (e.g., recess), or aversive noise (e.g., fire alarm); and automatic/sensory reinforcement (e.g., finger flicking).

The settings in which FA has been conducted vary from highly contrived (i.e., analogue) settings, such as unoccupied rooms in schools (e.g., resource rooms or cafeterias), to somewhat uncontrolled settings, such as classrooms with other children present. Although FA has been conducted successfully in each of these settings, there remain questions regarding the best settings in which these behavioral assessments can be completed accurately. Analogue settings are usually preferred because they provide strong control over variables that may affect the integrity of the analysis. This includes control over (1) the behavior being measured, (2) application of the analysis, and (3) potential sources of confounding variables. However, there are some limitations in conducting FA in these settings. It has been established that the ability of the analysis to accurately depict behavior in analogue settings is compromised by the artificial conditions of the setting. For example, it may be difficult to evoke the challenging behavior if the setting is different from the classroom where the challenging behavior typically occurs. If the classroom setting is itself a discriminative stimulus (S^D) that signals the availability of reinforcement (e.g., peer attention), an analysis conducted in an analogue setting may not produce accurate results.

On the other hand, the natural situation refers to settings where the challenging behavior actually occurs

(e.g., the student's classroom rather than an unoccupied classroom). FA conducted in classroom settings raises concerns about threats to control due to various potential variables that can influence the setup of test and control conditions. For example, control over all possible providers of reinforcement may be compromised by the presence of other students or stimuli in the classroom setting. In this case, the presence of other students and stimuli makes such control questionable. Another potential limitation of FA conducted in the classroom is that teachers are understandably reluctant to allow FA in their classrooms due to potentially aggressive behavior being evoked. As a result, variations to the standard FA have been designed in order to strengthen the design of FA conducted in school settings.

Variations of FA

Most common criticisms of FA in the classroom focus on time and training issues (i.e., too specialized) and setting constraints (i.e., inability to exert tight control over environmental conditions). Specifically, it has been noted that many researchers have described FA as too time consuming or too complex to train teachers to perform. To address these limitations, variations to FA procedures have been designed.

Variations Addressing Time Constraints

To address the issue of time, researchers have made many variations to FA procedures that have resulted in reduced assessment time (e.g., brief functional analysis or BFA). The BFA consists of a single exposure to 5-minute test and control conditions, conducted with replication of a key test condition followed by a treatment probe to determine the function of challenging behavior for students. The BFA can be a practical substitute when a more comprehensive analysis cannot be done, as it effectively addresses the issue of time constraints. However, a limitation of the BFA is that the design may not be appropriate for low rates of challenging behavior.

Another variation of the standard FA that addresses time constraints is the single-function test. This variation tests for a single hypothesized function. When observations strongly suggest a specific source of maintenance, the single-function test can be used. The single-function test consists of a single test condition versus a control condition. If the challenging behavior occurs at a high rate, the student immediately goes to intervention. This variation may be helpful when the target behavior is potentially dangerous (e.g., self-injurious behavior, aggression).

Variations Addressing Setting Constraints

To address the issue of setting constraints, the trial-based functional analysis (TBFA) was designed. Specifically, the TBFA was designed to address the issue of limited environmental control via embedded assessment in ongoing activities. The TBFA is similar to the standard FA by using the same conditions, but standard FA conditions are conducted in repeated 10-minute sessions. Instead, during TBFA, each trial can include a 1- to 4-minute test segment, and a 1- to 4-minute control segment for each condition of tangible, attention, escape, and automatic reinforcement. Thus, 10–20 discrete trials under each condition can be conducted over a few days and can be embedded into the classroom routine. An advantage that has been noted in the research is that the time of exposure to contingencies, which may strengthen challenging behavior, is reduced with a TBFA and the test can be conducted on the fly.

Teacher Training in FA

Owing to the complexity of FA procedures, teachers may lack the appropriate skills to accurately implement FA in classroom settings. There have been a handful of studies that have involved training teachers to conduct an FA. These studies on training school staff to conduct FAs have demonstrated that teachers can be trained to very high levels of accuracy in very little time. This is important in the field of education because teachers are the ones delivering instruction to students. Therefore, teachers (and not researchers) should be conducting behavioral assessments with their students.

The most popular format for training has included a face-to-face arrangement that uses modeling, role playing, and performance feedback to enhance instruction. In addition to face-to-face training formats, teachers have also been taught FA procedures via telemedicine. Telemedicine is a general term referring to providing mental health care from a distance. For example, a microphone clip can be attached to a table in the middle of the room so that the trainer can listen and guide the teacher through the steps of implementation, in addition to providing feedback.

Susan D. Flynn

See also Applied Behavior Analysis; Assessment of Students; Behavioral Approaches, Foundations of; Functional Behavioral Assessment

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FUNCTIONAL BEHAVIORAL ASSESSMENT

The Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (IDEIA) includes a provision requiring school personnel to use functional behavioral assessment (FBA) to develop and implement a function-based intervention if a student with a disability is going to experience an educational placement change due to severely challenging behaviors. Functional assessment-based interventions can also be conducted with typically developing students who are struggling behaviorally.

FBA is a research-based practice used to identify environmental conditions (e.g., task difficulty, nonpreferred activity) that trigger an undesirable behavior (e.g., off-task or disruptive behavior) and the consequences that maintain the behavior (function). FBA data are used to develop an intervention targeting the function of the challenging behavior rather than addressing the behavior's form. In other words, instances of hitting may look very similar (form) but could serve a number of different functions depending on the student. Instead of using one intervention to address the hitting behavior of every student, interventions are individualized to address why a student's hitting occurs (function). Behaviors can occur to gain access or to avoid, attention, tangibles, activities, and/or sensory stimulation. The following sections include a description of FBA procedures and explain how data collected during the FBA are used to develop effective functional assessment-based interventions.

FBA Components

FBA procedures include a combination of indirect and direct measures to collect general information about the student and detailed information about the behavior(s)

of concern. It should be noted that whether a behavioral consultant or a behavior support team conducts the FBA, it is important that the major stakeholders (i.e., student, teachers, and parent/guardian) are involved in the FBA process.

Indirect Measures

Indirect measures include checklists; behavior rating scales; record reviews; and teacher, parent, and student interviews. During the initial steps of the FBA, the behavior support team may use any one or a combination of indirect measures to gather general information about the student's academic and behavioral history, student strengths and academic concerns, general health, and student preference (motivators). Information is also collected about the problem behavior, what is likely to trigger it, why it may occur, and what typically occurs following the behavior.

Interviews are the most common form of indirect measures used in FBAs. If possible, it is important to interview the student, the personnel who work closely with the student, and the student's parents/guardians. Interview information may alert the behavior team to similar problem behaviors occurring in the home or to other important factors affecting the student and his or her behavior.

Following informal observations, the first interview typically takes place with the teacher. During the beginning of the interview, the behavior support team identifies and operationally defines the behavior(s) targeted for intervention (target behavior) using measurable and observable terms. For example, *Kyle is disruptive* is vague and difficult to measure compared with *Kyle's behavior is disruptive and includes yelling and throwing materials*. A well-developed operational definition is important for accurate data collection.

Direct Measures

Unlike indirect measures that are collected from secondary sources, direct measures include direct observation of the student's behavior during naturally occurring or contrived activities. An observer records information, commonly called A–B–C data, during activities when the target behavior is most likely to occur. A–B–C data are collected on the event occurring immediately before the target behavior (antecedent), the target behavior(s) (behavior), and the event occurring immediately following the target behavior (consequence). Other direct measures include scatterplot and functional analysis. There should be a clear pattern in the direct observation data before moving ahead with FBA procedures. Data collection should continue if the behavior team is not able to

identify events that consistently trigger and reinforce the target behavior.

Hypothesis Statement

Following data collection, the behavior team reviews indirect and direct data to identify the hypothesized function of the target behavior. John Umbreit and colleagues suggest using the Function Matrix to organize the data. The matrix is a six-celled table, each cell representing a possible function (e.g., access to or avoidance of, attention, tangible/activity, or sensory). FBA data are organized by entering data into the corresponding cell, for example, interviews and A–B–C observations including information about Kyle being sent to the office to talk to the vice principal when disruptive behaviors occur. These data are entered into the corresponding cells, *access to attention* and *avoid tangible/activity*. The cell(s) with the most supporting data indicate the function of the target behavior. Once the team identifies the function(s) of the target behavior, team members develop a hypothesis statement. The hypothesis statement includes (1) when the target behavior occurs, (2) the target behavior, and (3) the function(s) of the target behavior. For example, during independent math seatwork, Kyle yells and throws materials in order to escape the activity and gain adult attention.

Designing a Functional Assessment-Based Intervention

After the hypothesis statement is developed, the next step is to design an intervention to teach the student a functionally equivalent replacement behavior. In other words, the goal is to design an intervention based on the function of the target behavior to teach the student a new, more desirable behavior that will allow the student to access (positive reinforcement) and/or avoid (negative reinforcement) attention, activities/tangibles, or sensory experiences the student previously accessed or avoided by demonstrating the target behavior (the undesirable behavior). For example, if a student was previously able to escape a too difficult task and access adult attention by being disruptive and then being sent to the office to see the vice principal, now the student would only leave the classroom (escape) and see the vice principal (adult attention) by being engaged or completing assigned tasks. The student would now be allowed to go to the office to share a completed assignment with the vice principal, allowing the student a brief break as well as access to adult attention from the vice principal contingent upon work completion.

Therefore, for the intervention to be effective, it needs to be linked to the function of the target behavior and allow the student a new, more reliable, and more efficient way of getting his or her needs met. Moreover, the replacement behavior (which needs to be operationally defined in the same manner as the target behavior, including examples and nonexamples) needs to work *better* for the student than the target behavior.

Although there are many different methods for designing interventions linked to the function of the target behavior, we focus on a systematic approach developed by Umbreit, Jonenea Ferro, Carl J. Liaupsin, and Kathleen L. Lane that has met with demonstrated success in supporting a range of students (typically developing and those with special needs) exhibiting a range of behavior problems (e.g., noncompliant, poor social interactions) in a variety of contexts (inclusive classrooms, self-contained classrooms, and self-contained schools). They developed a tool, the function-based intervention decision model, to guide intervention planning with the help of two questions: (1) Can the student perform the replacement behavior? (2) Does the classroom environment represent effective practices for this study? These questions are answered by team members to determine which of three intervention methods are most appropriate for guiding intervention efforts.

Method 1: Teach the Replacement Behavior

Method 1 is used when (1) the student cannot perform the replacement behavior (e.g., *can't do* an assigned seatwork) or does not perform the replacement fluently (e.g., *has trouble doing* an assigned seatwork) and (2) the classroom environment reflects effective practices. In this case, the intervention is designed to teach the student the new, functionally equivalent behavior because the student cannot do what is expected. The problem is not a motivational issue (e.g., *won't do* an assigned seatwork); instruction is required. For example, if the student is highly disruptive and noncompliant during reading instruction, it may be that the student is acting out to get out of reading instruction because he does not have the requisite skills to participate in reading instruction. If this is the case, part of the functional assessment-based intervention will involve an instructional component to differentiate instruction so the student can participate in instruction while at the same time building the student's reading skills.

Method 2: Improve the Environment

Method 2 is used when (1) the student is able to perform the replacement behavior and the problem is more of a motivational issue (*won't do*) and (2) the

antecedent conditions in the classroom may need to be adjusted or improved to increase the likelihood of the student engaging in the replacement behavior rather than the target behavior. The main focus of this intervention is improving the classroom environment by supporting more desirable behaviors. For example, routines and procedures for supporting engagement may need to be defined more clearly, such as incorporating simple, independent starter activities for students to complete while transitioning into the classroom at the beginning of a period. Or, it may be that the manner in which instructions are delivered needs improvement by incorporating simple checks for understanding to make certain students know what is expected before they begin an independent task. Or, it may be that the physical room arrangement needs adjusting to allow for better participation during small group instruction. There are also instances when the intervention will need to be a combination of methods 1 and 2, which involves teaching the student new behavior and improving the environment.

Method 3: Adjust the Contingencies

Method 3 is used when (1) the student is capable of performing the replacement behavior and (2) when the antecedent conditions in the classroom do represent effective practices. In this case, the main focus of the intervention is on adjusting rates of reinforcement to ensure the student is getting higher rates of reinforcement for the replacement behavior than when the student exhibited the target behavior. Ideally, the target behavior would no longer receive any reinforcement. However, the goal is to ensure the replacement behavior is more effective for the student in getting the student's needs met—with needs being defined by the results of the functional assessment.

After an appropriate intervention is selected, the behavior intervention team and the student's teacher plan tactics or methods to address the three components of an intervention referred to by Lane, Oakes, and Cox as A–R–E components: Antecedent adjustments, Reinforcement adjustments, and Extinction. The antecedent adjustments include teaching the replacement behavior or modifying conditions in the classroom to set the stage for the new behavior to occur. The reinforcement adjustments include providing appropriate contingent reinforcement for the replacement behavior to increase the future probability that the replacement behavior will occur. The extinction component involves steps for withholding reinforcement when the student exhibits the target behavior—to decrease the

probability that the target behavior will occur in the future.

It is important to obtain feedback both before beginning and after concluding this intervention (social validity data) to make certain the stakeholders (e.g., teachers and students) view the intervention goals as socially significant, procedures as socially acceptable, and outcomes (potential, pre; and actual, post) as socially important. Furthermore, it is also necessary to collect information on the reliability of the student behavior being measured (interobserver agreement of the dependent variable) as well as the extent to which the intervention was put in place as planned (treatment integrity) so that accurate conclusions can be drawn as to how well an intervention actually worked. For example, if the intervention does not yield the desired outcomes and it is discovered that the intervention was not implemented with a high degree of integrity, then we can make adjustments to improve intervention implementation and then evaluate student outcomes.

Conclusion

Functional behavioral assessment is, thus, a method for determining the cause (function) or causes (functions) of a target behavior, a behavior needing to be changed. This systematic approach requires collaborative efforts to conduct the functional assessment, generate a hypothesis as to what is the factor that maintains the undesirable behavior, and design an intervention using A–R–E components to teach the student a functionally equivalent replacement behavior.

*Brenna K. Wood and
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See also Applied Behavior Analysis; Behavior Support Plans; Behavioral Approaches, Foundations of; Extinction; Functional Analysis; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; Reinforcement; Target Behaviors

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GENDER AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Understanding the role that gender plays in classrooms is vital—for educators, administrators, policymakers, and parents. Without such understanding, gender bias may negatively affect students and reduce their opportunities for growth. Understanding gender bias is made more difficult because many gender-biased behaviors occur unconsciously in classrooms. They are indulged in by both male and female teachers alike. Furthermore, teachers, administrators, and teacher education programs frequently overlook research directed toward gender equity and the ways in which girls especially have been negatively affected by gender bias. This entry explores gender bias and gender differences as they pertain to classroom and school environments.

Definitions

Gender goes beyond differences based on biology. Gender also refers to mental and behavioral characteristics differentiating masculinity and femininity—characteristics that may be influenced by biology but that also have their causes in ways in which children are socialized.

Gender also refers to values and attitudes associated with the different genders. Gender stereotypes are widely held beliefs about characteristics deemed appropriate for males and females. These stereotypes are reflected in daily human behaviors and interactions. They are often referred to as gender roles.

Gender identity is the private face of gender. Gender identity has to do with a person's perceptions of himself or herself with regard to characteristics defining

masculinity or femininity—and how the person feels about those characteristics (positive, negative, or ambivalent). Contributing to gender identity is the fact that each of us has a self-constructed body of beliefs about the traits and behaviors of males and females. Self-socialization is the tendency to integrate our personal observations and others' input into self-constructed standards for behavior and to choose actions consistent with those standards.

A Brief History of Gender Research and Gender Policy

In 1988, Gerald D. Bailey summarized 3 decades of research on gender interaction patterns in classroom supervision. His summary showed that boys have tended to dominate classroom communities, with girls receiving less praise for correct answers and less precise feedback from their teachers. The summary also indicated that teachers have tended to give girls more negative feedback on the intellectual quality of their work. For example, some studies reported that girls received *twice* the amount of criticism for lack of knowledge or skill. Bailey's summary also indicated that boys receive more direct questions than girls, and that boys' ideas have been used more often in classroom discussions than girls' ideas. During this era, the research results show that teachers were more likely to seek out boys to check their work and give them help and that in teachers' interactions with students, boys showed greater involvement than girls. By contrast, girls were found to speak out less and be less disruptive than boys while boys received more disciplinary actions. Overall, the summary indicates that in the latter half of the twentieth century, teachers in U.S. schools were more likely to give boys more attention and feedback—both positive and negative. When these gender interaction patterns in

the classroom were illuminated, many educators reflected on their own teaching practice and the ways in which biased gender beliefs may have been affecting their classroom management and their interactions with their own students.

As for gender policy, in 1972, Title IX of the Educational Amendments (Public Law no. 92-318, 86 Stat. 235) banned sex discrimination in U.S. schools. It states as follows: “No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any educational program or activity receiving federal financial assistance.”

As a result of Title IX, the enrollment of women in athletics programs and professional schools increased dramatically. The law also provoked educators to be more accountable for their interactions with girls and for their gender biases.

Negative Gender Bias and Educating Girls: An Example

Negative gender bias affects both girls and boys, but with regard to schooling, long-standing negative biases toward girls have been the greater issue. The following case (name changed) is offered as illustration.

In the early 1990s, Jena was a fairly poised middle school student. She enjoyed learning and being active in school. She was a class officer, a member of the junior varsity soccer team, and a soloist in chorus. She was passionate about extracurricular activities but loved learning more. She thrived on the challenge of trying new things and had a good deal of confidence in herself. However, something happened in middle school that completely changed everything for her.

While in middle school, she had been struggling with a particular concept both during math class and at home. So, she sought help from her math teacher, Mr. Fallaco. When she sat down with Mr. Fallaco and brought out the math problem she had been struggling with, Mr. Fallaco proceeded to complete the problem and explain his work. He looked at her and said, “Did that help?” with a concerned look. She smiled and shrugged, “Maybe one more?” With sympathetic eyes, he looked at Jena through wire-rimmed glasses and said words she would never forget: “Jena, it’s OK. Girls are just not good in math. It’s just the way it is, and I think you are also prone to math anxiety, so you are

always going to struggle.” Jena was floored. She felt like crying, and said softly. “Oh. I didn’t know that.” “It’s OK. I’ll work with you, and you’ll get through it,” he said confidently.

Jena walked out of Mr. Fallaco’s classroom in a daze asking herself why didn’t her mother or father ever tell her this? Her perception of herself as a student, her position as a member of the female sex, and her possibilities for what she could accomplish in the future all came into question. At that moment, being female felt like a curse.

Gender Stereotypes and Gender Differences

Gender stereotypes have been part of our society since the dawn of recorded history. Aristotle spoke of women being more compassionate and nurturing and men being more courageous. For centuries, such stereotypes and gender biases have been viewed and accepted as facts defining gender differences, and the following discussion makes clear that what is fact and what is bias has not been easy to distinguish. That said, there are research-based gender-related distinctions that have implications for classroom management. For example, in his recent book, medical physician and psychologist Leonard Sax argued that teachers must understand the *hardwired* sex differences between girls and boys. Sax explained from his research that women teach and speak in a tone of voice that appears right to them. However, there is a difference in how males and females hear. Females typically have better hearing than males, so the softer tones that work for the girls may not work for boys.

Sax also points to significant differences between girls and boys in work patterns and study patterns. Girls are more likely to do their homework even if the particular assignment does not interest them. Girls care what the teacher thinks, and they want the teacher to think well of them. By contrast, boys tend to be less motivated to study unless they find the material interesting. Also, in contrast to girls, only as a last resort will boys typically ask for help.

Psychologist Eva Pomerantz has also contributed to the discussion on gender differences and classroom management. Her findings show that girls are at greater risk than boys of being harmed by negative assessments because they are more likely to take specific instances of failure as measures of self-worth that can be generalized across situations.

Teachers, then, need to be aware of these gender differences and accommodate accordingly—for example, by being careful with negative feedback toward girls and careful to reach out when boys need help but are not asking for help.

Friendships and Relationships

Studies of girls' and boys' friendships have revealed important differences in the ways girls and boys express their friendships. Friendships between girls are about being together. Girls develop friendships with each other by spending time together, by going places together, and by talking together. Conversely, boys develop friendships with each other around shared interests and through shared activities such as games. In his book on gender differences, Sax characterized the differences as girls' friendships being *face-to-face* and boys' friendships being *shoulder-to-shoulder*. Sax stated that friendships between girls typically express themselves in small groups, for example, two or three girls talking to one another—while friendships between boys usually express themselves in larger groups engaged in some activity that comprises a common interest, for example, playing sports.

This information can be relevant for teaching. For example, a female teacher working with a male student might do best to stand beside him or bend down beside him and look at the challenge as one of working together. A male teacher working with a female student might do best to position his body so as to face her and use eye contact and a sympathetic facial expression to talk the problem out.

There are undoubtedly sex-based differences in the way we learn. And there are gender differences that are imposed by our society. Regardless of where differences come from, they must be taken into account when teaching students and managing classrooms.

The Gender Gap in Education and the Rise of Girls and Women

Several decades ago, women trailed behind men in the highest education level they achieved in school. However, currently, in the United States and in most countries around the world, women have not only reached educational equality with men, they now are surpassing men in many areas. Girls have been outperforming boys in school grades since the turn of the twenty-first century, and in schools today, they earn higher average grades than boys at all levels of education. Consider these statistics: in 1970, 58% of college students were men, but by 2010, 57% of all college students were women. Women are also more likely than men to earn college degrees and enroll in graduate school. According to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, women now outnumber their male counterparts in college and earn more bachelor's degrees by a 30%–22% margin.

Author Christina Hoff Sommers also argues that the large body of female teachers marginalizes boys in schools. Many educators in America believe that they

have a firm grasp of what is happening in schools across the nation. They are certain that we are continuing to favor boys in the classroom as girls are continually ignored in the corner quietly. However, by virtually every measure, girls are thriving in school; it is boys who are the *second sex*, in Simone de Beauvoir's phrase. Although boys still are more likely to be referred for gifted education, they also are more likely to receive referrals for special education and behavior referrals for disciplinary action. In our contemporary society, then, we must be thoughtful and updated about gender differences that affect our practices in classrooms. Understanding the current state of the gender gap should drive classroom management practices and academic instruction.

Should Classrooms Be Gender Neutral?

The idea of gender-neutral classrooms has become common in today's discussions of gender and classroom management. *Gender neutrality* refers to policies, language, and other social institutions that prevent distinguishing roles according to an individual's sex or gender. For example, it is a common classroom practice to line boys and girls up separately and address students as boys and girls. This evokes the idea in children that boys and girls are fundamentally different from one another. However, on closer examination, this common practice may be unwarranted—as it is comparable to lining up students based on other kinds of differences. No teacher would line up black students and white students separately before heading to lunch; for one thing, this would be contrary to federal law. It is this kind of analogizing that has given pause to the ways that teachers have historically emphasized differences between girls and boys. It is important also to consider that this outdated practice may also cause discomfort and possibly confusion for transgender students and those who are questioning their own gender identity.

Gender and Heteronormativity

Heteronormativity is an idea resting on the assumption or expectation that everyone is heterosexual—or should be. The corollary idea is that it is normal to be heterosexual and not normal to be anything else. This is making the assumption that all students are straight and that all behaviors should be managed in the same way. Heteronormativity is widespread in schools. This presents a serious problem as it operates to marginalize lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer (LGBTQ) students. Any thoughtful effort to minimize the harmful effects of gender bias and gender stereotyping will, then, include efforts to replace heteronormativity with a more inclusive view of sexuality and gender.

Conclusion

It is important to acknowledge that when allowing stereotypes and biases to play a role in classroom management, educators may be harming both boys and girls. On the one hand, we want to recognize that gender and sexuality are important for each child's identity. On the other hand, we need to recognize that the hard work of coming to a gender identity involves multiple pathways in which children will be observing, questioning, and experimenting—making it important that educators provide them with the supports needed to accomplish this complex task of forming a positive gender identity.

To provide needed supports, educators must take a critically conscious look at their own personal assumptions and at the messages found in society about gender. Doing so can lead educators to empower students to develop a gender identity that fits them.

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See also Anti-Bias Education; Sexual Orientation and Classroom Management

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GIFTED STUDENTS AND EFFECTIVE CLASSROOM PRACTICES

Gifted students learn at a faster pace than the average learner, need fewer repetitions to learn new information, grasp difficult concepts more quickly, and make accurate higher-level connections within and across disciplines. They also process information differently, pursue topics of interest with more intensity, and show greater interest than their same-age peers in topics that are more complex or sophisticated. The research on effective practices in gifted education is based on the fact that gifted students differ in these important ways such that teachers need to modify curriculum, adapt instructional techniques, and incorporate specific instructional management strategies in order to help students maximize potential and enjoy daily challenge.

There is a large body of knowledge in gifted education outlining effective practices in curriculum, instruction, and instructional management. The seminal work of Karen Rogers, who conducted meta-analyses on effective practices, serves as the basis for the strategies discussed in this entry.

Effective Classroom Instructional Strategies

Instructional practices are the approaches or processes that teachers use to accommodate individual student learning needs, including how a student learns particular information and at what rate. The most effective instructional strategies for a gifted learner are *flexible pacing*, *concept-based instruction*, and *allowing time for individual exploration in an area of interest*.

Whole-to-Part, Concept-Based Learning

Gifted students are conceptual, abstract thinkers who may resist rote or isolated tasks if these tasks are not linked to abstract concepts. They show increased performance when taught major concepts, issues, or key principles as opposed to isolated facts or skills. This learning approach is opposite to the part-to-whole pedagogy that is taught in many schools. Teachers can support this whole-to-part, concept-based learning by introducing key ideas and concepts at the beginning of a unit instead of at the end, ensuring that facts are linked to abstract concepts, and providing opportunities for students to explore major issues or problems as a way to learn new information.

Pacing

Gifted students need fewer repetitions to master complex content. Several studies demonstrate that gifted students are able to successfully complete a year's worth of work in a semester or even a few weeks. In addition, they are more likely to retain information when the pacing is faster and less repetitious. As the learning slows, gifted students are likely to disengage. Talent search organizations across the United States encourage gifted students to take the SAT or ACT college entrance exams as middle school students. The average SAT/ACT score of a middle school gifted student is well beyond that of a typical graduating senior, suggesting that gifted students know and can handle more sophisticated or abstract material earlier and learn it at a faster pace.

Faster pacing not only supports how gifted students learn best but can allow students the time to pursue more complex content when they are ready for it instead of when it may be typically offered in school. When gifted students are asked to review known material, especially rote or skill-based activities, they are less likely to engage in the learning environment and more likely to make careless errors. When the pace is increased and students are able to show their knowledge at a rate commensurate with their learning speed, they may use the extra time studying topics of interest in depth.

Pursuit of Passion

Many gifted students report a preference for working independently—especially on a topic of passion or interest. Independent studies work best when gifted students are supported by a media specialist, content expert, or teacher and are permitted to pursue a topic of interest *in place of* instead of *in addition to* other class work. Independent pursuits and flexible pacing can work well together. Gifted students can move through the curriculum at a faster pace or test out of certain topics or review sessions and use the time saved to conduct an independent study in an area of passion.

Independent study for a gifted learner requires more than relaying facts or looking up basic information and recording it. Depending on the age of the child and the level of interest and exposure to the topic of interest, independent studies should include real-world data collection or investigations, examining issues within a field, or analyzing and evaluating differing ideas. Gifted students who participate in appropriate independent study pursuits show positive gains in motivation and the development of thinking skills.

Effective Instructional Management Strategies

Instructional management strategies help teachers *organize students and their learning environment*. The literature is very clear about the positive academic effects of two key instructional management strategies for gifted learners: ability grouping (or grouping with like-ability peers) and acceleration. Both of the strategies require careful placement of students based on predetermined criteria as well as equitable access to the intervention.

Grouping With Like-Ability Peers

Grouping with like-ability peers is an efficient and effective way to manage the delivery of key services to gifted individuals. Grouping minimizes the range of student abilities within a class or small group so that teachers can provide greater focus on a challenging concept. Like-ability groups of gifted learners may vary in duration, design, and purpose. Depending on the purpose of the group, placement may be determined informally through student performance measures or more formally through ability or achievement measures. Positive academic and social-emotional effects are found when students participate in like-ability grouping even if no other adaptations are made. When adaptations to the curriculum also occur, the effects are even stronger.

There are several types of grouping arrangements effective for gifted learners, including self-contained classrooms (e.g., placing all identified students in one class), special schools for the gifted, pullout classes (e.g., either weekly or daily for enrichment or subject replacement), cluster grouping (i.e., placing six to eight identified gifted students in the same class that is otherwise heterogeneous), within-class groupings (e.g., reading groups), multigrade groupings (e.g., based on skills or concepts needed to master or already mastered), and special classes. Proper identification and placement are paramount and groupings should be deliberate and based on a variety of data sources.

While there are many effective forms of grouping for gifted learners, all include grouping with other like-ability peers. No positive effects are found when gifted students work in mixed-ability groups or are asked to peer tutor in mixed-ability dyads.

Acceleration

Acceleration is another instructional management strategy that is highly effective for gifted learners. Acceleration is not just for the highly gifted. Many gifted students can benefit from some form of acceleration. The intensity of the accelerated experience depends

upon many factors including, but not limited to, the student's ability level, student interest, school district support, parent support, the student's overall health, and student motivation.

Many types of acceleration are found to be effective, including grade skipping, subject area acceleration, early entrance to college, telescoping the curriculum so that a student completes 3 years' work in 2 years, early entrance to school, and curriculum compacting (i.e., allowing students to pretest out of a unit or content area to work on more appropriately challenging material in the same subject area). Advanced placement classes, mentoring, testing out of courses, and specialized competitions can also be forms of acceleration. Academic effects of acceleration vary based on the specific approach, with positive effects ranging from gain of an additional third of a year to over 2 years of growth.

There is some concern about the effects of acceleration on a gifted student's social and emotional development. This concern is not empirically validated. Studies focused on the social and emotional consequences of acceleration, although not as plentiful as those focused on academic effects, consistently show no negative social or emotional effects in students who have engaged in accelerated opportunities whether during the accelerated experience or when they reflect upon their accelerated school experience when in adulthood. Instead, students who are accelerated in some way show positive social and emotional effects or have similar or higher adjustment scores on scales that measure social, emotional, and maturity issues.

Curriculum Modifications

Modifying the curriculum, or what is taught, is another effective strategy to accommodate gifted learner needs. Several curriculum modification models have been created specifically for gifted learners. All of these models have common features such as an emphasis on depth, complexity, and the teaching of abstract concepts within and across disciplines. When adjusting curriculum for gifted learners, all facets of the curriculum should be differentiated, including the resources or materials the student uses, the product or task a student completes, and the complexity of content that is taught.

One example of how this may be presented in language arts is as follows. A teacher would adjust the reading level of the provided book or short story. The students would then discuss higher-level questions about the story and create a product that engages them in examining and justifying how literary devices contribute to the theme of the text or the context of the day. Of course, the level at which the tasks and questions are created is accelerated and dependent upon the age and ability of the student.

Sometimes teachers have a difficult time determining what is appropriate for all children versus a gifted child. Harry Passow's *Would, Should, Could* test is a good litmus to begin contemplating next steps. When evaluating the material created for gifted learners ask the following questions: (1) *Would* all students want to engage in this activity at this given point in time? (2) *Could* all students do this activity at this given point in time? (3) *Should* all students participate in this activity at this given point in time? If the answer is *yes* to any of these questions, it is realistic to assume that the curriculum is appropriate for all learners, not just the gifted. If however, the content is complex enough that only a few students would be interested, only a few students would be able to complete the task due to its complexity, and only a few students should even think about spending time completing the task, then it is more likely an appropriate task for gifted learners.

It is important that gifted students have access to rigorous curriculum content and task demands matched to their level of advanced functioning on a daily basis. Adjusting outcomes through acceleration or depth and complexity, while also including more advanced resources and product requirements, will strengthen the curriculum and aid in providing this daily challenge. These curriculum modifications are to be *in place of* other content and activities instead of *in addition to* all of the requirements demanded of other students. When curriculum is modified to meet gifted learner needs, studies show significant increases in students' academic achievement and application of thinking skills.

Other Considerations

In most schools, gifted students spend the majority of their day with a general education teacher who is responsible for a wide range of student abilities, including those who are gifted. Therefore, schoolwide professional development is critical. The strategies discussed in this entry are most effective when teachers have ongoing district support, training, a deep understanding of their content area, and the necessary resources to carry out the specific strategy.

Student selection and access are also important when determining who will most benefit from the listed strategies. Careful placement is important and includes more than classroom performance or a single test score. Consistent and equitable measures for placement and delivery are a necessity for student success as well as access. Student potential and ability, cultural implications, prior experiences, socioeconomic status, and classroom performance are key considerations for identifying which students would best benefit from these strategies. Sometimes gifted students do not perform

well in the classroom until they are provided more rigorous activities, so gate-keeping methods may not be effective for some learners. Twice-exceptionalities (e.g., gifted and learning disabled), ethnicity and race, poverty, and intrapersonal skills such as motivation and interest also play a role in a child's performance even if the ability or potential is there. Gifted students differ as much as they are alike. Though the strategies included in this entry are found to be effective based on meta-analyses, educators and leaders must take into account individual student needs while considering school context, fidelity of implementation, and the school culture.

Systemwide policies and accountability structures are also necessary for success. Policies are most effective when they incorporate clearly articulated procedures for how effective strategies will be delivered, including equitable access by all students, specific qualification measures, professional development requirements, and systems for reporting student progress and documenting implementation effects. Documented growth is desired for all students, including the gifted child. Assessments that measure and support pre- and post-learning growth instead of knowledge at a given point in time are important factors when determining the effectiveness of the implemented strategy and the growth gains of students who may know quite a bit of the material covered in a particular grade (or learn it more rapidly) before the school year begins.

Conclusion

There are many effective strategies educators can implement to support gifted learners in their district, school, or classroom. The selection of these effective practices depends upon each student's specific interests and talents, ability level, prior experiences, and inter- and intrapersonal skills, as well as the school's resources to effectively implement the strategies.

Successful implementation of each strategy is contingent upon the fidelity with which the strategy is implemented, the needs of gifted students in the school, districtwide support (e.g., resource allocation, professional training, and policy implementation), and teacher awareness of gifted students' characteristics, learning needs, and the specific content of the discipline they are teaching. When these parameters are followed and the effective strategies are implemented, gifted students are likely to enjoy positive academic, social, and emotional gains.

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See also Ability Grouping; Managing Groupwork; Motivating Students; Promoting Purpose and Learning Environments; Student Interest, Stimulating and Maintaining

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GLASSER, WILLIAM

William Glasser (1925–2013), an American psychiatrist, is best known for his ideas about human behavior, which he termed choice theory, and a method of psychotherapy known as reality therapy. His writings on education focused on putting choice theory into practice in the classroom and, over the course of several decades, became widely influential among educators.

Born and raised in Cleveland, Ohio, Glasser was first educated as a chemical engineer at Case Western Reserve University. He later completed a master's degree in clinical psychology as well as an MD at Case Western Reserve and interned in psychiatry at the Veterans Administration Hospital in West Los Angeles.

In 1960, Glasser published his first book, *Mental Health or Mental Illness?* But it was his next book, *Reality Therapy: A New Approach to Psychiatry*, published in 1965, that caught the attention of readers. He dedicated this book to G. L. Harrington, whom he often referred to as his mentor and who had encouraged Glasser to pursue alternate approaches and thinking related to the then-standard practices of psychotherapy. Glasser's ideas on human behavior differed from the

psychoanalytic approaches common in clinical practice and from the behavioral approaches common in schools at the time—especially with respect to classroom management. For Glasser, human behavior was a function of internal needs and personal choice rather than external stimuli and reinforcements. He later expanded his ideas on mental health treatment in his development of a theory of human behavior, which he first called *control theory* and which was greatly influenced by the work of William T. Powers. To differentiate his work from that of Powers, Glasser later changed the term *control theory* to *choice theory*. His book, *Choice Theory*, was published in 1998. Glasser's ideas were widely disseminated through the establishment of the Institute for Reality Therapy in 1967, renamed the William Glasser Institute in 1997. The Institute now extends beyond the borders of the United States, with locations in Australia, New Zealand, Canada, Croatia, and Peru, among others.

Early in his career, Glasser turned his attention to the use of his ideas in schools, with his earliest education-related book, *Schools Without Failure*, published in 1969. For the next 3 decades and primarily through the Institute's Educator Training Center, Glasser provided widespread training and consultation to schools in the United States. He wrote *Control Theory in the Classroom* in 1986, *The Quality School* in 1990, and *The Quality School Teacher* in 1993.

With respect to work in schools, Glasser's ideas developed from his assertion that schools, as institutions, attempt to motivate students (and teachers) using external control (punishment and rewards) rather than from a basis of understanding human behavior as essentially a function of individuals acting to satisfy internal needs. The fundamental underpinning of the choice theory is that humans are driven to satisfy five basic needs: (1) survival, (2) love and belonging, (3) power, (4) freedom, and (5) fun. Glasser suggested that the primary function of teaching is one of establishing positive relationships and schools should first strive to develop an environment that meets people's basic needs. He identified seven caring habits as (1) supporting, (2) encouraging, (3) listening, (4) accepting, (5) trusting, (6) respecting, and (7) negotiating differences. In addition, he named the following as deadly habits: (1) criticizing, (2) blaming, (3) complaining, (4) nagging, (5) threatening, (6) punishing, and (7) bribing or rewarding to control.

According to choice theory, the only person's behavior one can control is one's own, and all one can give another person is information. People behave based on the information they perceive, and behavior is an attempt to satisfy basic needs. Glasser described behavior as total behavior composed of four parts: acting, thinking, feeling, and physiology. He further noted that people have the most control over the acting and

thinking components of behavior, and people choose how they act and think about the information they receive.

In *The Quality School*, Glasser asserted that many students are not motivated to do well in school because the work done in schools is not satisfying, and he further suggested that students view much of schoolwork as lacking challenge and relevance. In terms of punishments and rewards often used in schools, Glasser contended that they may appear to work in the short term, but only because students view compliance as a way to temporarily meet their basic needs. Over time, this approach becomes ineffective because students have no vested interest in the school and few, if any, relationships with the adults in these schools.

Glasser argued that if schools focus on developing a climate that is *needs-satisfying*, most behavior problems would disappear. He advocated that schools utilize a curriculum that is challenging and relevant and that students be included more in decision making by providing students a voice in governance, choice, and self-direction regarding projects and curriculum, apart from opportunities for self-evaluation. Choice theory provides a framework for teaching students self-direction by helping them understand that they have power over their own lives through the choices they make. Choice theory stresses that individuals have responsibility over their own actions and teaches people to examine their own behaviors through a series of questions, as follows:

- What do you want? [Identify the need you are attempting to fill.]
- What are you doing to achieve what you want?
- Is it working?
- If not, what are your plans or options to achieve what you want?

Glasser is also known for two very practical methods for improving classroom management, namely, holding class meetings (to generate class rules and collectively solve problems) and following a problem-solving approach with students who exhibit inappropriate behavior in school. Both of these methods (how they are defined and explained) show Glasser's commitment to supporting students' basic needs, helping them learn to make effective choices, and, in general, empowering students to take personal responsibility.

Glasser's ideas have been applied in a variety of settings, including schools, prisons, churches, mental health facilities, and business organizations. Over the span of his career, he wrote more than 20 books, which have been disseminated worldwide and translated into many languages. In 2004, Glasser received the American Counseling Association's Legend in Counseling award,

and he received the Life Achievement Award in 2005 given by the International Center for the Study of Psychiatry and Psychology.

Patti L. Chance

See also Class Meetings; Democratic Meetings; Motivating Students

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GOOD BEHAVIOR GAME

During his career, Montrose Wolf (1935–2004) made many significant contributions to applied behavior analysis, and the good behavior game (GBG) ranks among them. The GBG is a classwide intervention that establishes teams of students in a game intended to improve overall classroom management. In the original study, the GBG led to reductions for both talking out and out-of-seat behavior in both math and reading sessions. These and other related results have been replicated many times over several decades.

In its basic form, the GBG involves dividing students into heterogeneous teams of two to five students. While the targeted behaviors (e.g., getting up out of one's seat during seatwork, talking out of turn during meeting time) may be identified by the teacher, often the students themselves are involved in identifying the specific behaviors to be reduced. Initially the game is played for brief periods of time (e.g., 10 minutes), several times a week and then gradually increased in both frequency and duration. Teams exhibiting low rates of the identified target behaviors receive a preidentified reinforcer, such as being able to engage in an activity desired by team members. Teachers provide feedback to students by tallying the team's rate of targeted behavior. Because teams are working to meet a goal, namely a lower rate

of problem behaviors, it is possible and in fact common that eventually all teams become winners.

For example, a second grade teacher decided that to support the schoolwide bullyproofing program her school just adopted, she would use the GBG to teach her students how to treat each other with respect. She led her class in a discussion to talk about what respect looks like. The class decided that it meant sharing materials, listening to each other's ideas, and saying nice things. Her classroom was already set up into table groups with about five students in each group; so she used this grouping as the GBG teams. Also, the class decided that the winning teams would get to have 10 minutes of free time at the end of the day while the other students were working on silent reading. Each team had a scorecard on the whiteboard at the front of the class so that the teacher could easily keep score and so that the teams could see how they were doing that day. The following Monday morning she reminded the students of the rules of the game and told them she would watch for students being respectful during social studies where pairs of students were working on posters of different cultures and needed to share materials with other students in the class. This activity was scheduled every day that week and lasted about 30 minutes. At the end of each game, she would let the teams know who had earned the five points needed to win. Initially (first 2 days), the teacher made sure to give lots of points to the teams, and when she would mark on the scorecard, she would explain what specific behavior she saw the students doing. Also, she made sure that every team got to be a winner at least once during the first 2 days. On the third day, she praised the whole class on how well they played the GBG and said that she would keep watching but that she now knew how good they were. Across the next few days, she gave out fewer points and gave shorter explanations when giving points.

The second week she decided to expand the game to the first half of the day or from arrival to lunch. Before the students went to lunch, she would again tell the students which teams had earned 15 points and were winners for the day. After several weeks, the teacher continued to extend the amount of time the game was played and eventually was able to set a weekly goal and told the students that because they were going to have to work all week the winning teams would now get to have 20 minutes of free time and that if every team won they could have music and snacks as well. This teacher felt that the weekly party was a great way to get the teams to work together and that her students had done well enough with the daily game that they would be able to switch to the weekly game and continue to be successful.

Since its effectiveness was first demonstrated, the GBG continues to be a frequently cited and implemented

classroom management intervention. Furthermore, its effectiveness has been demonstrated for students ranging from kindergarten to high school—and for reducing a range of unwanted target behaviors, including out-of-seat behavior, talking out, and aggression. Additionally, when students are asked about the game, they say that they like the game and want it to continue.

Because the GBG can be redesigned to accommodate different groups, implementers are able to adapt the game to a variety of age groups and contextual settings (cultures, countries, and demographics). For example, the GBG has been found to be effective across a variety of cultures and geographic locations quite different from mainstream U.S. classrooms (e.g., rural Sudan), and in one case, the game was effectively modified so that it could be used by a librarian during weekly library time. Furthermore, the game has been shown to be effective in schools attended chiefly by students from families of low socioeconomic status and in classrooms that include students with certain types of disabilities.

Somewhat surprisingly, the results of the GBG correlate significantly with academic performance—either in combination with other factors, such as an enhanced academic curriculum, or by themselves. Even more impressive, when the game was implemented in 19 inner-city first- and second-grade classrooms, compared with matched control groups, positive behavior differences showed up years later, when the students were between 19 and 21 years old, in the form of less aggression, less smoking and alcohol abuse, and less antisocial behavior. While correlation never explains causation, the significant and positive correlations found here do suggest that something positive and strong may be operating in schools using the GBG.

In sum, over 30 years of research has established the GBG as an effective and adaptable classroom management strategy. Because of the sound conceptual and theoretical principles that provide the basis for the GBG and because of the ability to tailor the method across students, behaviors, contexts, and cultures, the Good Behavior Game is high in both contextual fit and social validity.

Teri Lewis and Billie Jo Rodriguez

See also Behavioral Approaches, Foundations of; Reinforcement

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GORDON, THOMAS

Thomas Gordon (1918–2002), an American clinical psychologist, is best known for his work in parent education. After earning his doctoral degree from the University of Chicago, where he studied with Carl Rogers, he became a staff member of the University of Chicago Counseling Center and also taught at the university. In 1974, he founded Gordon Training International in California, which trained parents, teachers, and business leaders in communication skills and conflict resolution techniques.

In 1962, Gordon developed the first communication skill training program for parents. The principles of this course were later compiled in Gordon's most famous book, *Parent Effectiveness Training* (PET), published in 1970 and revised in 2000. The book has sold over five million copies and has been published in 34 languages. It was later followed by *Teacher Effectiveness Training* (1974, revised 2003) and *Leader Effectiveness Training* (1974, revised 2001). Gordon wrote a total of nine books and more than 50 articles on communication, parenting, discipline, conflict resolution, decision making, and organizational leadership.

Dr. Gordon was a Fellow of the American Psychological Association and the recipient of the American Psychological Foundation's 1999 Gold Medal Award for Enduring Contribution to Psychology in the Public Interest. Gordon was President of the California Psychological Association as well as its 2000 Lifetime Achievement Award winner. He was nominated for the Nobel Peace Prize in 1997, 1998, and 1999.

The Gordon Model

Gordon's parenting model is based on a democratic style of interaction in which determining and meeting

the needs of both parent and child are essential. He contended that children do not misbehave, but that their behavior is motivated by an attempt to meet their underlying needs. If parents find their behavior unacceptable, they must communicate this to their child and guide them to find alternative behaviors, rather than punishing them. Punishment or the use of coercive power is not recommended because it does not provide alternative ways to meet children's needs, nor does it teach children to cope with the emotions that arise from their unmet needs.

Communication

The development of effective communication techniques is critical to the Gordon model. Gordon provides a list of 12 communication roadblocks, or the Dirty Dozen. These include Ordering, Threatening, Moralizing, Advising, Lecturing, Criticizing, Ridiculing, Analyzing, Interrogating, Praising, Sympathizing, and Distracting. All these 12 typically lead to a cessation of conversation.

Praising is considered an ineffective communication technique since it may lead the child to depend on external validation. Sympathizing may not be beneficial either, since it does not always validate the child's feelings. Gordon also emphasized the need for accepting communication through nonverbal expression, short *door openers* such as "Uh huh," "Tell me more," active listening, and I-messages. The latter two are the core features of his communication model. Once the parent determines who *owns the problem*, the parent can then discern which of these two techniques to use. If the child *owns* the problem, the parent should engage in active listening, encouraging the child to communicate and then listening closely to the feeling underlying the surface content of the child's communication. Active listening involves analyzing the child's statements for feelings and meaning, providing feedback, and then receiving the child's acknowledgement of that feedback.

When the parent *owns* the problem, I-messages are used. In an I-message, the individual communicates his or her feelings, beliefs, or values and engages in constructive criticism. I-messages contain three parts (BEF): a description of the unacceptable *behavior*, the concrete *effect* of the behavior on the parent, and finally the *feeling* the parent experiences in response to the behavior.

Conflict Resolution

Another important component of the Gordon Method is his technique of conflict resolution, which he calls the no-lose or win-win method or method III. In method I, the parent is too authoritarian and punishes

the child—the parent wins and the child loses. In method II, the parent is too permissive—the child wins and the parent loses. In method III, both the parent and the child offer possible solutions to the conflict, and ultimately, together they select one that is acceptable to both—both win and nobody loses. Method III requires six steps: (1) identifying and defining the conflict, (2) brainstorming possible solutions, (3) evaluating the alternative solutions, (4) deciding on the best-acceptable solution, (5) implementing the solution, and (6) evaluation.

Gordon states that in method III there is much less, or even no, resentment developed between parent and child, more motivation on the part of the children to carry out the agreed-upon compromise since they had a role in decision making, and a better chance of finding a *high-quality* solution. Method III requires less enforcement and essentially eliminates the need for the use of punishment.

PET methods were translated to the classroom in Gordon's *Teacher Effectiveness Training* (1974, revised 2003) and to the workplace in *Leader Effectiveness Training*. There are now Youth Effectiveness Training Workshops designed for adolescents from 12 to 18 years of age.

The Gordon Method grew out of the person-centered humanistic philosophy of Carl Rogers and as such, it eschews external reinforcement, both rewards and punishments, as well as logical consequences and time-out. PET contends that most children's behavior is too complex to be changed simply by behavior modification and the use of punishment and rewards.

Research Support

Not many studies have focused specifically on the efficacy of PET and according to an early review by Roger C. Rinn and Allan Markle in 1977, not all have supported it. However, R. B. Cedar and Ronald F. Levant published a meta-analysis in 1990 and found that PET had a moderate effect size and that the greatest effect was, for children, improved self-esteem and, for parents, improved attitude and greater understanding of children, as well as increased positive regard, empathy, congruence, and respect. Recent studies conducted by John Davidson and Christine Wood in the early 2000s have found that instruction in listening skills, assertiveness, and problem-solving skills resulted in improved conflict resolution outcomes.

Conclusion

Thomas Gordon's model of effective communication and conflict resolution has, over the more than 50 years since its initial development, garnered much attention

both nationally and internationally and to date Gordon International Training has provided workshops in over 50 countries worldwide. The model, then, continues to influence how both parents and educators relate to the children in their care.

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See also Active Listening and I-Messages

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GOVERNMENT POLICY AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Since the creation of our public school system, government policies have had direct and indirect influence on classroom management. However, historically, government policies related to schooling have been generated largely by state and local governments. For example, government policies banning corporal punishment in the schools have, since the 1860s, been generated by state governments—resulting in a surprising diversity in how states have addressed the issue of corporal punishment.

More recently, educational policies related to schooling have been generated by federal legislation, and these policies have greatly impacted teaching, administrating, and funding. The effect has been on a wide range of areas. More specifically, federal programs such as Race to the Top (RttT) have led to states altering existing teacher evaluation systems and to implementing entirely new systems.

Most relevant to this discussion, as a result of federal legislation, states now require more structured and formal classroom observation systems that typically include classroom management. Therefore, these systems not only make classroom management a direct component of teacher evaluations but also indirectly affect other components of instruction to the degree that classroom management skills correlate with other aspects of teaching (e.g., engagement, communication). This entry explores to what extent and in what ways federal policies, directly and indirectly, affect classroom management.

Federal Legislation

Near the middle of the twentieth century, the federal government became more involved in driving educational policies and reform. The Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (ESEA) was one of the first federal legislation acts to have a major impact on education. As a component of the War on Poverty, ESEA specifically sought to provide equal access to high-quality education by increasing school accountability for providing quality education for Title I (at-risk) students. Between 1965 and 1994, ESEA was reauthorized every 4–5 years and with each reauthorization, federal oversight became more and more about serving specific populations and/or carrying out specific initiatives. The 2002 reauthorization, the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB), paved the way for increased federal oversight. The 2010 federal grant program, RttT, took the NCLB requirements even further but utilized a different funding vehicle through a voluntary program versus a congressional authorization.

No Child Left Behind Act

The No Child Left Behind Act includes many requirements, among them, evidence of teacher quality. Title II (Preparing, Training, and Recruiting High Quality Teachers [HQT] and Principals) requires teachers to demonstrate they are highly qualified to teach. NCLB defines highly qualified teachers as those who hold a bachelor's degree in the subject area they teach, have full state certification, and demonstrate competence in the subject area they teach. Although *possess*

effective management skills is not a direct requirement, Title II begins to bring classroom management within federal scope as it is widely believed that a well-managed classroom is a characteristic of effective teaching.

Race to the Top

RttT was authorized by the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009. RttT is a voluntary grant program designed to allow states to compete for federal funds. In order to participate in the grant competition, states have to meet certain requirements. Thus, any criteria specified in the application are only required for states who apply and win the funds. Similar to NCLB, RttT includes many criteria. RttT identifies four core areas of education reform: standards and assessments, data systems, effective teachers and principals, and turning around low-achieving schools. This emphasis on teacher quality as a foundational focus of RttT includes a requirement for states to reform their teacher evaluation systems to include components such as multiple measures of effectiveness (e.g., formal classroom observations) and measures of student growth to use as a basis for retention, promotion, and tenure.

NCLB Waivers

In September 2011, the United States Secretary of Education sent a letter to the Chief State School Officers acknowledging that the 2001 NCLB Act had led to some unintended consequences over time. He invited states to request flexibility regarding specific requirements of NCLB. As of October 2013, 42 states were granted waivers through two waves of applications. Most state waiver requests revised or expounded upon plans to hold schools accountable for the performance of at-risk subgroups, such as students with disabilities and English language learners.

Teacher Effectiveness

NCLB and RttT define effective teaching as positively impacting student achievement. However, student achievement is not the only measure of teacher effectiveness. The RttT program and the NCLB waivers also emphasize the use of formal classroom observations to measure teacher performance. Classroom observations have long been used for teacher evaluations, and the ways in which observations have been implemented greatly vary both within and across schools. Although observational data have the potential to yield informative feedback on teaching through the use of rubrics that rate performance on various

content and pedagogical indicators and disaggregated reporting (report on individual items in addition to broad areas), they are costly and have reliability (rater agreement) concerns.

Extant research has provided a solid framework from which to build observational evaluation instruments to measure effective teaching. Although many are being administered throughout the country, there are similarities across different instruments. Specific rhetoric might differ, but by and large the more widely used instruments capture the broad domains believed to influence student achievement, including lesson preparation and planning, instruction, and classroom environment and management.

Two widely used instruments are the Danielson Framework for Teaching and the Classroom Assessment Scoring System (CLASS). Both cover instructional support as well as classroom management. More specifically, the Danielson Framework for Teaching covers management of student behaviors and includes the following: managing classroom procedures, managing student behavior, creating an environment to support student learning, and organizing physical space. Generally, for states that require reformed teacher evaluation instruments, teachers' evaluators observe and rate them on each of the instruments' criteria. Evaluators then combine scores to create an overall effectiveness rating. Most states have processes in place to use these scores with evaluator feedback in order to help teachers diagnose strengths and weaknesses.

Impact on Classroom Management

The ways in which classroom management is impacted by recent policies are yet to be seen. The HQT mandate in NCLB requires increased hours of professional development, but because classroom management skills are not at the forefront of the discussion, classroom management skills often get overlooked in training and even in preparation. The current focus on improving student achievement and other teacher quality characteristics (e.g., certification, degree type) provides less opportunity for teachers to improve their classroom management skills in explicit ways.

Classroom Management Versus Teaching

A key feature of many teacher evaluation systems is the equal weight placed on the teaching domains. That is, teaching is largely conceptualized as a process made up of various parts, and of which classroom management is one part. Evaluation systems attempt to disaggregate the process and provide feedback on how to improve in different areas. Additionally, classroom observations

do not differentiate the different areas as evidenced by strong correlations between areas. For example, it is rare to see teachers with poor classroom management skills receiving high instruction scores. This is not unexpected, as many would agree that teaching is an interrelated process of many different dimensions. However, the high-stakes nature of teacher evaluation scores makes this distinction important in order to provide diagnostic feedback on strengths and weaknesses.

Student Motivation/Engagement

A well-managed classroom is an environment in which students are engaged and motivated to learn. Although a teacher can provide an engaging, well-ordered setting with interesting lessons, clearly, student engagement is not wholly under the teacher's control. For example, an uninterested or disruptive student can demand an undue portion of the teacher's attention and can have an effect on the class as a whole. Alternatively, the focus on high-stakes testing in recent policies can affect student motivation in various ways. Some argue that high-stakes tests provide motivation to do well since graduating becomes contingent upon doing well. Others argue that high-stakes tests decrease motivation by limiting teachers' flexibility and by emphasizing testing more than learning. Critics argue that these policies *could* inadvertently negatively impact school and classroom environments, by turning classroom environments into environments that make students and teachers feel uncomfortable and motivated only through a system of external rewards and punishments.

Student motivation is of particular concern when student test scores contribute to teacher evaluations. Research suggests that student motivation can impact students' time and effort devoted to learning and test performance. For most students, if they are not motivated to do well, increasing achievement becomes very difficult. While a teacher may have sufficient classroom management skills to ensure that an unengaged student is not a detriment to other students, motivating an unmotivated student to perform at his or her best in an examination is far more challenging.

Context of Teacher Evaluations

Another potential impact the increased focus on teacher evaluations has on classroom management is greater inclusion and increased accountability for all students. State accountability systems are required to include student achievement goals and requirements for the majority of their student population, which has been translated into increased mainstreaming of students

with learning disabilities. If teacher training does not compensate for this, teachers risk being unprepared to deal with the learning disabilities they encounter in the classroom. Since it is already challenging to train teachers, teachers risk not only receiving low classroom management evaluation scores, they also face the risks of being categorized according to the higher stakes now attached to the evaluations (e.g., probation, termination, merit pay).

Related, many teacher evaluation systems do not account for different student populations/subgroups or content and seldom account for any potential differential interactions. Thus, providing this type of feedback is not inherently built into evaluation systems. Although teachers will receive feedback on different dimensions within classroom management, they will not know how management of student behaviors differentially affects student achievement.

Conclusion

Federal legislation has increased the focus on teacher evaluations and teacher quality. This has implicitly increased the focus on classroom management. The results are, as yet, unclear, but one result has been to question whether student achievement is a good indicator of teacher effectiveness. As states begin to implement the new evaluation systems, educators and policymakers will see how well they do in both differentiating teachers and providing diagnostic feedback. Additionally, unintended consequences of various policies on classroom management may soon become evident. It is not, however, so much an issue of increasing inclusion rates or decreasing student motivation to learn as it is an issue of not equipping teachers for properly attending to these situations.

Classroom management has been an area of continuing debate among educational policymakers. Different perspectives exist on whether one approach is more effective than others and whether teachers even need to be specifically trained in managing classrooms. Recent policies in teacher evaluations have indirectly emphasized classroom management, at least as traditionally conceptualized as managing students and providing a supportive environment. Time will tell whether these traditional perspectives can withstand the high-stakes nature in which they are evaluated, or whether a shift in either training or theory is warranted.

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See also Individuals with Disabilities Education Act; Law and Classroom Management; No Child Left Behind Act

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GUNS: HISTORY, POLICY, CONSEQUENCES

The key objective of this entry is to provide a background on how guns in the school environment have played a role within the area of classroom management. A discussion of the history of gun violence in U.S. schools is followed by an overview of the policies created to ensure the safety of all students and staff. The entry concludes with an examination of disciplinary measures resulting from the implementation of federal policies.

Guns in U.S. Schools: Historical Background

Gun violence is an increasing concern in the United States, with over 100,000 people shot at or killed by firearms each year. Although this is itself a shocking statistic, nothing strikes more fear in the hearts of students, parents, and school staff than school shootings; in part due to the young age of shooters, the great number of innocent victims, and the randomness of these acts of violence. Among recent incidents of gun violence are the tragedies of Sandy Hook Elementary in New Town, Connecticut, where on December 14, 2012, 20 students and 6 school staff were shot and killed by a 20-year-old shooter; and in a high school in Taft, California, where on January 10, 2013, a 16-year-old student brought a shotgun to school, with which he killed one student and injured another.

In the past decade, various government agencies have surveyed millions of students across the country about weapons in schools, and each year, students reported that they had seen guns and knives on campus and had been threatened by them at school. For over 40 years, the possession and use of firearms by children and adolescents has become a growing problem for society as a whole and for schools in particular, as staff, students, and administrators have had to face an epidemic of gun violence and shootings. For instance, in a 1997 national survey of over 16,000 students in Grades 9 to 12, 18% stated that they had carried a weapon outside their homes within the past 30 days. In another survey conducted in 2011, 5.4% of students surveyed admitted that they had carried a weapon onto school premises at least once within the last 30 days. Moreover, a 10% increase occurred in the quantity of firearms found on students from the 2008–2009 to the 2010–2011 school years; specifically, 2,761 students were caught with guns within a school environment.

Increasing violence in schools through the use of weapons, particularly in the state of California, led this state to be the first to create laws to protect students from firearms within close proximity to a school environment. Additionally, in the late 1980s, the term *zero tolerance* was adopted in the states of California, Kentucky, and New York with regard to mandated expulsion for bringing weapons to school, illicit drug usage, or affiliation with gangs or gang-related activities. These initial zero-tolerance policies were created in order to curtail school violence and, in general, to contribute to an overall better learning climate within schools. In essence, zero-tolerance policies were meant to deter students from engaging in behavior that would endanger or physically harm others, and thus, sending a clear message that this behavior would not be tolerated.

Policies Enacted to Ensure Safe Schools and Consequences

As a component of the Crime Control Act of 1990, the Gun-Free School Zone Act was created by Congress in order to protect U.S. students by expressly prohibiting any person from knowingly possessing a firearm within 1,000 feet of a school. However, owing to increasing gun violence within U.S. schools, in 1994 Congress enacted the Gun-Free Schools Act. The Gun-Free Schools Act required that school districts enact a zero-tolerance policy toward guns on campus. Unlike the Gun-Free School Zone Act, which pertains to any individual carrying a firearm within a clearly defined prohibited area, the Gun-Free Schools Act focused on student behavior, punishing students to dissuade them

from bringing a firearm or having one on school property. It required that a local education agency expel a student for not less than 1 year as a consequence for bringing a weapon, inclusive of firearms, onto school property.

While the laws were meant to serve as a way for local educational agency administrators to create safer learning environments for their students and staff, problems arose surrounding the interpretation and enforcement of the law; specifically pertaining to consistent and appropriate consequences for violations. For example, many school administrators extended the range of what would be considered valid school suspensions or expulsions under the Act. Some administrators began to apply their zero-tolerance policy to violations other than possession of firearms. The policy of zero-tolerance began to include possession and/or use of drugs, possession of weapons other than firearms, and behaviors that fell within the category of school disruption, such as fist-fighting and verbal abuse.

Zero-tolerance policies have been used to punish students more severely than was initially intended under the Gun-Free Schools Act and have also been disproportionately used against students who are members of minorities, students of low socioeconomic status, and/or students with identified disabilities. For example, with regard to ethnicity and race, few differences exist in the percentage of students carrying weapons; however, students of color are more likely to be suspended than their white counterparts. African American students, in particular, are three-and-a-half times more likely to receive a suspension or expulsion than their Caucasian peers. Within the arena of classroom management and discipline, students from high-income families have a higher likelihood of receiving mild to moderate consequences such as teacher lectures or desk relocations, while students from low-income families typically receive more severe (and often embarrassing) consequences such as being told to stand out in the hallway, having their belongings searched, or being verbally reprimanded in front of their classmates. Regarding students with disabilities, especially those identified as having an emotional or behavioral disability, issues frequently arose regarding appropriate discipline. Often, these students received harsh punishments for behaviors that could arguably be related to a manifestation of the disability itself.

There also exists an issue of administrator, teacher, and/or student perceptions as to what constitutes disruptive or inappropriate behavior sufficient to warrant the implementation of zero-tolerance policies. For example, school faculty may see a student's disruption in the classroom environment as mainly a student choice and because of this, impose disciplinary consequences

as an appropriate reaction to that choice. However, students, especially those who are considered to be at risk for behavioral or emotional difficulties, have a tendency to view school disciplinary strategies or a teacher's confrontational way of managing a classroom as a reason for escalating their misbehavior, mainly in instances where they believe rules or policies are being applied in an unfair or inconsistent manner.

Research has also found that there is a connection between out-of-school suspensions and a student's higher likelihood of dropping out of school, or a decline in academic success. Studies of school dropout rates have reported that students who have been suspended are three times more likely than their peers to drop out of school by their sophomore year. Furthermore, since zero-tolerance policies have been put into effect as a response to student disruption, more students have been referred to the juvenile justice system for transgressions that were previously handled within the school environment by administrators.

Due to misapplications and/or inconsistent usages of zero-tolerance policies, many parents have brought lawsuits against their local education agencies for unjust suspensions or expulsions for trivial incidents. Applying zero-tolerance policies and disciplinary procedures to school violence in which a weapon was not used is beyond the fundamental objective of the Gun-Free Schools Act. The primary purpose of the Act was to prevent weapons, such as firearms, in America's schools, thus necessitating each state to enforce a 1-year expulsion for any student bringing a weapon to school, as well as referring those students to local criminal or juvenile justice systems.

In 2002, the Gun-Free School Act was repealed and reenacted as a part of the No Child Left Behind Act. Changes were made to the wording of the law, thus requiring the local education agencies to expel students for a minimum of 1 year for bringing a firearm or for possessing one on school property, but no longer requiring the minimum 1-year expulsion for other weapons. It also more broadly defined the term *school* to include school-sponsored activities and events, even those held off campus. Additionally, the stricter zero-tolerance policy was relaxed to allow the chief administering officer of each local education agency to modify, on a case-by-case basis, any plan to expel a student.

When the Individuals with Disabilities Act was renewed in 2004, it addressed the issue of discipline for students with disabilities; specifically discipline administered due to abuses of zero-tolerance policies. Schools are now required, per federal mandate, to determine whether a behavior is or is not a manifestation of a student's identified disability. For example, if a student with a disability coding of serious emotional disturbance

were to threaten another student with physical harm by saying that tomorrow he or she would be bringing a firearm to school, this could result in the student with the disability being suspended. Consequently, if this student is suspended for 10 or more days, the individualized education program (IEP) team must now meet to have what is called a *manifestation determination* meeting. During this meeting, the IEP team must ask in-depth questions about the incident to determine the cause of the student's actions, and whether or not they were related to the student's disability. If the school determines that the student's disability is responsible, then the IEP team must modify the student's individualized education plan to address the behavior. However, per adherence to the revised Gun-Free Schools Act, under the Individuals with Disabilities Act of 2004, if a student with a disability were to bring a weapon to school or a school function, rather than being expelled, the student can be placed in an interim alternate education setting for up to 45 school days.

Conclusion

Although issues regarding the strict, inappropriate, or inconsistent implementation of zero-tolerance policies still remain, school administrators do have a legal responsibility to keep their schools safe. Failure to remove a dangerous student from the school environment can put the safety of faculty and other students in jeopardy; this is especially the case in situations involving the student's possession of a firearm. Recommendations from research include the following: (1) schools should have emergency plans that focus on preventing crises and should increase positive behavioral interventions and supports to facilitate a

schoolwide positive climate; (2) all school faculty should be trained on how to appropriately respond during crises situations; (3) schools should conduct frequent emergency drills to ensure appropriate reactions by faculty and students during emergency situations; and (4) schools should develop student discipline and classroom management techniques that encourage keeping students in school, rather than punitive practices that promote suspension or expulsion.

Alicia Brophy

See also Discipline, School and Classroom; Discipline Codes of Conduct; Dropout Prevention; Government Policy and Classroom Management; Law and Classroom Management; Office Referrals; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; Punishment; Safety, Policies for Ensuring; School Discipline; Schoolwide Discipline Policies; Suspension and Expulsion

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H

HAITIAN STUDENTS

Haitian students represent but one of many groups who often fare poorly in North American schools, not because of deficiencies in the children or in their families' culture but because of mismatches between one culture's way of raising and teaching children and another culture's way. This entry is, then, about more than teaching Haitian students. It is also about teaching students from cultures with different assumptions than one's own—and the need to understand those different assumptions and accommodate accordingly.

Differences in assumptions about how best to manage problem behavior will be the focus throughout. This focus will show that many of the difficulties teachers often report about teaching children from different cultures stem from teachers not understanding the values and ways of the culture of their students.

Haitian teachers in classrooms with Haitian children do well enough with their students, but they see what can happen in other classrooms, and some express concern that Haitian children are not getting what they need in order to behave well, and that the way in which they are advised by non-Haitians to deal with children's problem behavior is not effective. One Haitian teacher related that when she was hit by a 4-year-old, she was instructed to acknowledge the anger the child must be feeling, then explain to him that he could not hit. From her point of view, this was the same as saying, "Why don't you hit me again?" Furthermore, from this teacher's point of view, one shared by other Haitian teachers, the behavior tolerated in their neighborhood schools is disrespectful; the children are allowed to misbehave, and so one common refrain is, "We're losing a generation of children."

Here, several examples will serve to explain typical Haitian ways to manage problem behavior—and in

these examples, one can see not only the effectiveness of these ways but also something central to understanding all culturally influenced ways of controlling children, namely, that there is ambivalence, or should be ambivalence, stemming from a culture's way of managing the dilemma between fostering autonomy and children having a sense of being unique individuals while simultaneously fostering connection and children having a sense of being connected to others who care about them (and so should feel some obligation to behave well).

The first example is that of Clothilde, a middle-aged Haitian teacher in an early childhood education center. Clothilde had a great deal of experience with children—both from raising her own and from caring for other people's children. At one point in her teaching career, she complained about the behavior of the Haitian children in the daycare center where she taught. She felt that the North American teachers were not controlling the children adequately. Here is an account of a defining event:

One day, as Clothilde arrived at her school, she watched a teacher telling a little Haitian child that the child needed to go into her classroom and that she could not stay alone in the hall. The child refused and eventually kicked the teacher. Clothilde had had enough. She asked the director to bring her all the Haitian kids right away. The director and Clothilde gathered the children into the large common room and then began the following conversation:

Clothilde: Does your mother let you bite?

Children: No.

Clothilde: Does your father let you punch kids?

Children: No.

Clothilde: Do you kick at home?

Children: No.

Clothilde: You don't respect anyone, not the teachers who play with you or the adults who work upstairs. You need to respect adults—even people you see on the streets. You are taking good ways you learn at home and not bringing them to school. You're taking the bad things you learn at school and taking them home. You're not going to do this anymore. Do you want your parents to be ashamed of you?

According to Clothilde, following this conversation, the Haitian children were well behaved from that day on, though it is likely she had to repeat her speech because the children would not likely have remained well behaved indefinitely without a reminder.

The next text involves an event and Josiane, who had taught for many years both in the United States and in Haiti. Josiane was reprimanding a group of children who had been making a lot of noise while their teacher was trying to give them directions:

Josiane: When your mother talks to you, don't you listen?

Children: Yes.

Josiane: When your mother says, go get something, don't you go get it?

Children: Yes.

Josiane: When your mother says, go to the bathroom, don't you go?

Children: Yes.

Josiane: You know why I'm telling you this. Because I want you to be good children. When an adult talks to you, you're supposed to listen so you will become a good person. The adults here like you, they want you to become good children.

As another example of *the Haitian way* of speaking to children following bad behavior, here is 4-year-old Jeremie's father speaking to him after the staff had asked his father for help in controlling Jeremie's behavior:

Are you going to be good? (Jeremie nods at each pause.)

Are you going to listen to Miss Cindy (his teacher)?

Are you going to listen to Miss Josiane (his other teacher)?

Because they like you.

They love you.

Do it for me.

Do it for God.

God loves you.

Reflections

The content and the form of these texts are different from what many North American teachers would probably have said in the same circumstances. The reasons are several. First, North American teachers frequently refer to children's internal states and interpret their feelings for them; for example, "You must be angry," "It's hard for you when your friend does that," and so on. In contrast, Haitian teachers of young children are apt to make no reference to children's emotions.

Second, North American teachers often make reference to particular factors in the child's situation that, in the teachers' opinion, may have influenced the child's behavior. For example, the teachers of Michel, a boy whose mother had left him, often told Michel that they understood that he missed his mother but that regarding his toys, he nevertheless needed to share. When a child pushes or pinches another child sitting next to him or her, many North American teachers will suggest that, if the child does not like people to sit so close, he or she should say so rather than pinch.

In contrast, Haitian teachers rarely do this. If they are concerned about an individual child and his or her particular problems, instead of articulating them for the child, the teacher's goal is to make the child feel comfortable with the group. If the child were misbehaving, the Haitian teacher might say, "You know I'm your friend," and then remind the child, "We don't do that."

These examples suggest a difference in focus between North American and Haitian teachers. It seems that North American teachers characteristically are concerned with articulating for a child his or her feelings and problems. In contrast, Haitian teachers are apt to be more concerned with articulating for a child his or her connections to those who care for the child: parents, teachers, God, and so on. Of course, both North American and Haitian teachers make reference to the family but in different ways. North American teachers are likely to mention particular characteristics of a child's family, characteristics that are specific to that family and are seen as perhaps responsible for the child's individual actions. In contrast, Haitian teachers are likely to mention what families have in common. Families do not differ in their desire that children respect adults, that children behave properly, and that children not shame them. Therefore, when Haitian teachers remind children that they are connected to those who care about them, children's answers present

a vivid enactment of the sort of unity the Haitian approach may engender.

Third, North American teachers typically present the particular consequences of an act of misbehavior, such as, “He’s crying because you hit him,” or “If you don’t listen to me, you won’t know what to do.” Haitian teachers are less likely to differentiate among particular kinds of misbehavior; they condemn them all as examples of *bad* behavior. Furthermore, after explaining that certain behaviors are *bad*, Haitian teachers are apt to explain to children that the consequences of bad behavior, in general, have to do with their connections to those who care about them—such as bringing shame on the family. Jeremie’s father simply tells Jeremie to be good, to be good for those who love him. Josiane, too, tells the children to be good because the people who like them want them to be good.

In the Haitian teachers’ ways of speaking to children, one has the impression that the children share the teacher’s understanding of what bad behavior is. Clothilde’s series of rhetorical questions such as “Do your parents let you kick?” is an example of the form that many Haitian teachers adopt when addressing children about their behavior. The children understand their role without difficulty; they repeat the expected answers in choral unison. The choice of this form—that is, questions to which the answer is assumed—emphasizes the fact that the children already know that their behavior is wrong.

In contrast, in the North American control situation, children often appear to be receiving new information. If there is a consensus about certain behavior being bad and other behavior good, North American teachers do not present it this way. Rather, North American teachers explain the consequences of particular actions as if they are trying to convince or teach the children that there is a problem with their behavior. As presented in school, misbehavior is considered wrong not because of anything inherent in it but because of its particular consequences or perhaps because the behavior stems from feelings that the children have failed to identify and control.

Given this information about typical Haitian ways of managing children’s problem behavior, it is possible for non-Haitian teachers to learn the Haitian way when teaching Haitian children. The following anecdote is about one non-Haitian teacher, Cindy, who had recently learned to react in the Haitian way. She was angrily reprimanding the children in her charge about their failure to wait while crossing the parking lot:

Cindy: Did I tell you to go?

Children: No.

Cindy: Can you cross this parking lot by yourselves?

Children: No.

Cindy: That’s right. There are cars here. They are dangerous. I don’t want you to go alone. Why do I want you to wait for me, do you know?

One Child,

Claudette: Yes. Because you like us.

Though carrying out the Haitian way, this teacher was expecting a final response based on the North American system of cause and effect, something like, “Because the cars are dangerous.” Claudette, however, although she understood perfectly well the danger cars present to small children, did not expect to use that information in this kind of an interaction. Rather, she understood the situation to call for her marking the connection she had with her teacher.

The Larger Context

North American teachers generally think of reprimands as put-downs—particularly when they are directed toward young children who are just learning to control their behavior. With this thinking, North Americans are reluctant to reprimand and will take great pains to avoid saying *No* or *Don’t*. However, with Haitian children, there are situations in which reprimands can both confirm and strengthen relationships and can, in a sense, define relationships for the child, as seems to have been the case for Claudette in the example given above.

These opportunities to strengthen relationships with certain children may be lost when teachers go to great lengths to avoid actually telling children that they are wrong and that teachers disagree or disapprove. A look at the difference between the ways in which things are done at home and at school, and the negative consequences that may result from these mismatches for children coming from minority cultural backgrounds, shows that the area of misbehavior and the way it is responded to seem particularly important because it directly affects the nature of the relationship between teacher and child.

Furthermore, North Americans often perceive Haitians as severe, both verbally and in their use of physical punishment, whereas Haitians often perceive North Americans as allowing children to become extraordinarily fresh and out of control. Being a minority, Haitian immigrant parents are at once ashamed and defiantly supportive of their community’s disciplinary standards and methods. Those adults who grew up in Haiti are apt to share a sense of being *protected* in Haiti, of having been safe there both from getting into serious trouble and from harm. This sense of being protected is largely based on their understanding that their entire

extended family, as well as many people in the community, was involved in their upbringing.

In the United States, Haitian families are apt to be smaller and less extended. The community here, while close in many ways, is apt to be more loosely connected than in Haiti—hence the very real concern that Haitian children in the United States are less *protected* and more at risk not only of falling away from their parents' culture but also, and consequently, of falling prey to drugs, crime, and other problems of urban life.

And yet Haitian adults living in the United States may also convey some pain in their growing up, pain they relate to the respect and obedience they were required to exhibit when relating to adults, which at times conflicted with their own developing desire to express their opinions and make their own choices. This pain is not to be discarded lightly. For many, religious values underlie the twin issues of respect and obedience; in some ways, respect for and obedience to parents and other adults reflects respect and obedience to God.

This Haitian ambivalence toward the Haitian ways in which they were brought up is illustrated in the story of one Haitian mother, a lawyer, who speaks about how she suffered as a child because of the uncompromising respect and obedience demanded of her in her family, and yet how she continues to see respect and obedience as values she needs to impart to her children. Similar to the stories of so many successful Haitian Americans raised in Haiti, she was from a poor family, a child with neither the clothes nor the supplies for school, someone who succeeded eventually in becoming a lawyer. In these accounts, it is in large measure the strictness of the family that is regarded as the source of the child's accomplishments rather than the talent or the power of the individual.

Presumably, there are varying degrees of tension in all societies between individual and community. The accounts here suggest the form this tension often takes within Haitian culture. But these accounts should raise questions about the powerful individualism and relative lack of tension underlying the approach of so many North American teachers. It appears that North Americans speak as if *enlightened self-interest* is the ultimate moral guidepost. In comparison to the language used by the Haitian teachers, North American teachers' language seems to place very little emphasis on shared values and a moral community.

Conclusion

The process of gaining multicultural understanding in education must be a dual process. On the one hand, cultural behavior that at first seems strange and inexplicable should become familiar; on the other hand, one's

own familiar values and practices should become at least temporarily strange and subject to examination. Teachers need, then, to try to open up and understand both their own assumptions and the cultural meaning that children from all backgrounds bring to school. Accommodation must be made on all sides so that no group has to abandon the ways in which it is accustomed to passing on its values.

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See also American Individualisms; Culturally Pluralistic Classrooms; Immigrant Children and Families; Warm Demanders

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HELP-SEEKING METHODS

In classrooms, as in life outside of classrooms, there are times when everybody needs help. It might be help needed to finish a project or to learn the required steps to complete a task. Not surprisingly, then, those who are successful usually possess a basic knowledge of how and when to seek help. Some students come to school already equipped with this knowledge of how and when to seek help—others still need to learn. This entry focuses on characteristics of help seeking and on strategies that can help students learn how and when to effectively and successfully get the help they need.

Types of Help Seeking

There are two types of help seeking: *executive* help seeking and *instrumental* help seeking. Executive (also referred to as passive dependency) help seeking is when students seek help for the sole purpose of completing a required assignment or task. They may also look for others to convey more help than is truly needed. This type of help seeking will not advance a student toward higher achievement in life but will actually diminish the student's view of his or her self-efficacy.

Instrumental (also referred to as autonomous or adaptive) help seeking is when a student seeks out help

or assistance in order to move forward, acquire new skills, and grasp new concepts for the benefit of learning. While engaged in instrumental help seeking, a student will be satisfied with just enough assistance to solve the problem at hand.

In order for students to employ instrumental help seeking, they must have some basic awareness and social abilities. They must be able to determine that they need help and they must be motivated to find a solution to their current problem. Next, they need to look for potential helpers and choose between peers or adults in the classroom according to who will be of greatest help to them. Students must then implement a strategy that will make their attempt to get help successful. A final step is for them to analyze if the attempt to seek help produced the result they were hoping for.

Some students may see the need to ask for assistance as a sign of weakness, or they may feel it is an admission of a lack of ability on the learner's part. This can be very difficult to overcome, as previous experience and cultural differences may foster this feeling of help seeking as an admission of low skill or intelligence. For these students, there are a few methods that educators can employ to foster help seeking for the purpose of learning.

Methods to Support Help Seeking

How can a student learn how to seek help? Teachers explaining help-seeking strategies is one way in which students can learn how and when to seek help. As a situation presents itself in the course of a day, teachers can, in front of an entire class, explain the thought process required in seeking help. At the same time, teachers can make clear the steps to be taken, the details of each step, and the reasons for taking each step. In doing so, they can answer students' questions about how to decide who would be the best choice of a person to ask, who has the knowledge needed, and who will respond favorably to a request for help. Teachers should explain a socially acceptable manner in which to ask the other person for assistance. They can show that not only is it *okay* to need help but also that it is a normal function of daily life. It is also important for teachers to ensure that the classroom remains a safe environment in which appropriate help seeking is valued by all and is a desired skill. Asking for help should be treated as a welcome and positive occurrence in the classroom, and collaboration between peers and adults should occur frequently. When successful and appropriate help-seeking/help-giving behavior is observed in the classroom, positive reinforcement should be given by the teacher to increase the likelihood that help giving will occur again in the future.

Another method for supporting help seeking is using social affiliation cues. For example, a teacher might display two hands reaching out toward each other, visually symbolizing one seeking help and the other offering help. Such visual prompts can serve as a reminder for peers to seek help from each other when needed, as well as a reminder to peers to offer help when asked. Visual prompts are especially needed with younger children.

Concluding Remarks

Teachers can positively influence a student's willingness to seek help when needed by stressing that learning for the sake of increasing knowledge is the ultimate goal. The goal is not simply to finish an assignment quickly or get a high grade. In doing so, teachers can link seeking help to learning—and being successful in life, not just in school.

Rita M. Leppert

See also *Caring Approaches; Climate: School and Classroom; Cooperation and Competition*

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HIGH SCHOOL AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

In the history of education, classroom management has sometimes been equated with reactionary discipline responses (e.g., detention, suspension, expulsion) to problematic behavior. However, contemporary approaches to classroom management are much broader, more positive, and emphasize preventing problems before they occur. This is true at the elementary, middle, and high school levels.

The emphasis on prevention can be found in earlier works, such as John Dewey's likening a well-managed classroom to a game children are playing and want to

play—so much so that they let the rules of the game, not a monitoring adult, dictate their behavior. The emphasis can also be found in the research of Jacob Kounin and Paul Gump who, in the late 1950s and 1960s, showed that with respect to classroom management, what separates master teachers from the rest is prevention of problem behavior, not reactions to problem behavior. And in the present day, a host of education leaders have championed this call to emphasize prevention as a positive approach to classroom management and managing problem behaviors.

However, though prevention is the contemporary emphasis, not just in discussions of high school classroom management but also in discussions of the lower grades, the meaning of prevention is different in high school than at the lower grades. It is different because of the ways in which high school students differ from younger students and because high schools are organized differently so as to place much more emphasis on instructional content. Here, the focus is on classroom management in high schools—with a particular emphasis on practices and systems for preventing problem behavior.

High School Classroom Management: Contextual Influences

Before focusing directly on high school classroom management practices, consider the following generalizations about potential influences on classroom management and the context of engaging in classroom management at the high school level. First, in contrast to younger students, high school students are making a transition to adult ways of being in the world—holding down a responsible job, being an independent and responsible college student, and being a committed and responsible partner in long-term romantic relationship—to name the most obvious and important. Because high school students are transitioning to take on these adult ways of being in the world, they are apt to struggle and fail and experience stresses that may affect their work and behavior in classrooms. Understanding classroom management in this context can mean adopting a more mindful approach, one that sees students as more than participants in one's math class, history class, or whatever. Wise teachers know how to convey that life in the classroom has connection and relevance to students' futures and to their struggles during transition to adulthood.

A second generalization about context is that high school students can make mistakes and engage in misbehavior that have far more serious implications than the kinds of mistakes and misbehavior they made and engaged in as children. Unwanted sexual encounters,

alcohol-induced traffic accidents, and other high-risk behavior provide examples of what this means. A recent Centers for Disease Control and Prevention national survey of high school students' self-reported risk behaviors revealed that the following high-risk behaviors can be common in the lives and experiences of too many high school students: heavy use of alcohol, riding without wearing seat belts in a car with someone who has been drinking, being threatened or injured with a weapon on school property, and being bullied at school. Furthermore, office discipline referral rates are higher in high schools relative to other settings. Simply keeping students in high school can be a challenge and is exacerbated by school suspensions, which are associated with dropout and entry into the juvenile justice system. These are obviously serious problems that cannot be left at the classroom door but rather directly or indirectly infect the classroom climate and students' behavior in classrooms.

An additional outside-the-classroom problem that can negatively affect classroom management is the problem, as noted in a recent report by the National Council on Teacher Quality, of teacher training programs not adequately preparing students to assume the responsibilities of managing high school classrooms. Training programs for teachers at the high school level have a greater focus on subject matter content (e.g., history, English) and less of a focus on educational methods classes and classroom management. It is, therefore, not surprising that high school teachers who leave the profession report discipline issues as one of the main reasons for leaving.

Prevention and Classroom Management Plans

Those who have written extensively about classroom management have emphasized the need for having a preset classroom management plan that is explained to students on the very first day of school. This includes explaining classroom routines and the expectations for behavior so that students know ahead of time what to do in everyday classroom situations. Over the past several years, prevention-oriented methods have been incorporated into a system of support aligned with Schoolwide Positive Behavior Support (SWPBS) (see the entry Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports). Stated briefly, SWPBS is a multitiered system of support (identical in form to response-to-intervention or RtI—but with a behavioral, not academic purpose) that focuses on the establishment of behavior expectations and then on the explicit teaching and acknowledgment of behavior expectations on a systematic basis, beginning with delivery to all students in the school population (universal), followed by more intensive supports

delivered to students with similar needs on a group basis (secondary), followed by more intensive supports provided on an individual basis to those with the most significant needs. Data are used to guide and evaluate the efforts, as well as determine which tiered level of support is needed. School supports are then provided with varying levels of intensity, based on need, which are then evaluated using data.

Specific to classroom management, the universal behavioral expectations taught to the entire school community are adapted to the classroom setting. The classroom setting serves as a location within the building where the universal expectations are enacted. Within SWBPS, classrooms are viewed as a system that blends with other schoolwide systems of support, structuring classrooms in such a way that they are predictable and positive. To achieve this end, classroom expectations are posted in the classroom, and classroom routines are specified and taught. For instance, from the beginning, students know the routine when they need to use the bathroom, what to do to get started with work, when they need to sharpen a pencil, and so forth. At the same time, students are aware of the consequences when they do not follow routines and when they do not meet expectations. Classroom consequences are delivered consistently and clearly, and students know ahead of time what those consequences will be.

Evaluation of SWPBS outcomes at the high school level lag behind those conducted in elementary and middle school settings. However, preliminary evidence through case study evaluations have documented that when SWPBS is implemented at full fidelity, there are reductions in discipline referrals.

Prevention and Providing Tools for Academic Success

Preventing behavior problems has to do with more than routines and behavioral expectations. It also has to do with providing those supports needed to prevent academic problems that can, when they occur, lead to behavior problems. Many of the same students who have behavioral problems also have academic problems. Furthermore, applied behavioral analysis has documented the fact that students with academic problems often will *escape* or *avoid* difficult academic tasks by acting out in order to be sent out of the room and to the office. Therefore, determining a student's instructional level through formative assessment and then providing instruction at that level can help to prevent behavior problems. Instructional grouping and differentiation of instruction to accommodate students' needs and learning styles can not only improve academic performance, they can also improve classroom behavior as well.

At the high school level, students who have academic problems often come to the classroom with years of academic struggles, and many of these students find school very frustrating—putting them at risk for dropping out. At the high school level, then, it is important to distinguish between an academic skill deficit, such as a deficit in basic reading–decoding skills, and a content enhancement issue. In the earlier years, this distinction is not so important since it can always be assumed that skill development needs attending to. However, in high school, assuming that a student has the skills to read, compute, or whatever can undermine the task of providing students with what they really need.

Don Deshler and colleagues have taken a lead role in equipping students with teaching tools that teachers can use to help high school students access the secondary school curriculum, a curriculum that requires complex thinking skills like scanning a great deal of information and prioritizing which content is critical. Through the use of such *content enhancement routines*, students are provided with skills and strategies such as graphic organizers, checking for understanding and prioritizing, and note taking. These skills, originally applied to students with learning disabilities, can be implemented in diverse classrooms to help students at various academic levels have greater access to the general education curriculum.

Prevention and Being Culturally Responsive

High school students from cultures different from what might be called White, middle-class suburban culture can feel out of place, disrespected, and marginalized in culturally diverse classrooms that are not culturally responsive. The result is often behavior problems. Therefore, a prevention approach to behavior problems must include attention to culture.

Teachers who engage in culturally responsive classroom management hold high expectations for student achievement, present information in a culturally relevant way that is respectful of their students' lives, and provide them with a structured yet caring school environment. Bondy and Ross describe effective teachers in urban high-poverty environments as *warm demanders*, in that they provide a caring relationship marked with high expectations for their students' success. They hold their students accountable with a *no-nonsense approach* that might seem harsh to the outside observer but that conveys to the students themselves that their teacher believes in them and will provide them with the supports for success. Culturally responsive classroom management is not, then, based on methods of blame, exclusion, and control, but rather on the development and maintenance of a strong and enduring unconditional

relationship, one based on mutual respect and unwavering expectations for success.

Conclusion

Contemporary viewpoints of classroom management focus on positive, prevention-oriented approaches. These include communicating clear procedures and routines that are taught during the first weeks of school and having a well-designed classroom management plan that is aligned with schoolwide behavior practices, such as SWPBS. Further, because many students with behavioral issues also have academic problems, prevention must include meeting students' instructional needs. At the high school level, a major focus is on equipping students with strategies to access the curriculum in an effective way. Content enhancement routines, such as graphic organizers, and checklists to review understanding of concepts are some examples. Finally, prevention includes the application of culturally responsive classroom management practices because being culturally unresponsive can lead to behavior problems and school failure—especially at the high school level.

Pamela Fenning and Stephanie Grunewald

See also Beginning the School Year; Cogenerative Dialogue and Urban Classrooms; Culturally Pluralistic Classrooms; Culturally Responsive Classrooms for African American Students; Expectations: Teachers' Expectations of Students; Kounin, Jacob; Learning Disabilities; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; Urban Schools

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HIGH-STAKES TESTING

High-stakes testing (HST) is a reform mechanism aimed at improving schools. It is a process of attaching significant consequences to students' standardized test performance. Consequences can affect schools, teachers, and students and can be positive or negative. As numerous critics have pointed out, however, the current reliance on HST in America's schools can significantly undermine teachers' efforts at managing and motivating students on academic tasks.

Brief Background

The No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2002 is one of the most sweeping federal education laws in American history. Under NCLB, states are mandated to implement a system of HST accountability that includes four main steps. First, states must define curriculum standards in all core subject areas and for every grade level K–12. Second, states must create and implement a statewide, standardized test that gauges students' progress on prescribed curriculum standards. Third, states must define

test score cutoff levels that indicate what level of performance is necessary for passing the test. And fourth, states must prescribe a series of escalating consequences that affect districts/schools should they not meet these predefined standards. HST is at the heart of this entire process.

HST Defined

HST is the practice of attaching significant consequences to students' standardized test scores. The theory of action undergirding HST is that promising/threatening students and their teachers with potentially lucrative rewards/harsh punishments will compel students to work harder and better. Doing so, it is theorized, will translate into better test scores that will reflect gains in student learning.

Since NCLB was passed, states have adopted a wide variety of rewards and punishments tied to standardized test performance that affect individuals (administrators, teachers, and students) and/or institutions (districts/schools). With regard to individuals, passing a test could yield entry into upper grades for students and significant financial bonuses for administrators and/or teachers. Failing a test could result in the denial of a high school diploma, student retention, and public humiliation for everyone involved with the school. With regard to institutions, if enough students pass the test, then their districts and/or school become eligible for increased funding, and they are likely to receive public praise.

On the other hand, if too many students fail the test, then districts and their schools are susceptible to predefined sanctions. Under NCLB, if too many students fail repeatedly over time, districts/schools receive an escalating set of punishments (public humiliation, loss of funding, and closure).

Effects of HST

There are two lines of research underscoring the impact of HST. In one line of research, the goal is to understand whether HST has increased student learning as measured by tests. Researchers looking at the relationship between HST and students' reading performance have found that, in general, HST has *no* association with reading performance and, at times, is related to decreases in reading performance. With regard to math performance, research indicates that HST is inconsistently linked to eighth-grade math performance and slightly positively linked to fourth-grade math. Overall, then, there is little evidence supporting the assumption that HST leads to better performance in reading and math.

In a second line of research, the goal is to understand the unintended effects of HST—those outcomes that

were not expected or planned. Much of the research on the unintended effects of HST can be best understood as an artifact of Campbell's law. Donald Campbell, an eminent social scientist, warned that overreliance on a single indicator for making complex judgments about individuals or institutions will inevitably lead to corruption and distortion. In short, the more value placed on simplistic measures to evaluate complex systems, the more likely it will be that those measures will corrupt and distort the very system being measured. Of course, HST is the exact kind of system that Campbell warned about. Under NCLB, high-stakes tests are treated as the sole indicator of teacher effectiveness and student learning.

Conclusion: HST and Classroom Processes

There are numerous examples illustrating Campbell's law in action—demonstrating how overreliance on test scores influences administrative and instructional practices that are corrupted and distorted. For example, HST has caused widespread incidents of cheating, data manipulation, and curriculum narrowing. As the importance of test scores rises, so too do efforts aimed at ensuring they are favorable.

In spite of knowing about how the pressures of HST corrupt and distort instructional practice, very little is known about their direct effects on classroom management processes. However, data inspired by Campbell's law provide some troubling clues.

For example, the pressure to perform on tests has shifted how teachers teach and relate to their students. In many classrooms throughout the United States, teachers spend a great deal of time preparing students for the test and, therefore, talking about the test. Students are immersed not only in hundreds upon hundreds of hours taking tests in preparation for tests, but they are also a captive audience to instruction that is all about the test. The result is a diluted, repetitive curriculum in which students are reminded daily of the importance of a single test in their lives. Although true in all schools, it is especially true in schools serving the poorest students and students of color.

When it comes to teachers' classroom management efforts, the consequences of this type of educational context are dire. For many teachers, the goal of their approach to classroom management is to find ways to offer an educational climate that inspires, motivates, and provides opportunities for discovery and engagement. However, as many critics have pointed out, HST undermines this overall goal. When teachers are pressured to help students perform on a single test, rather than classrooms being a place for inquiry and discovery, the pressure transforms the classrooms into places

where rote memorization is the norm. As a result, high-achieving students become bored, low-achieving students (those who cannot pass the test) give up, and those in the middle float somewhere in between. In sum, HST creates conditions that make it difficult for teachers to establish and maintain classroom management systems that support meaningful educational experiences.

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See also Cheating; Educational Reform and Teacher Effectiveness; Motivating Students; No Child Left Behind Act

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HISTORY OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

A history of classroom management can reveal much about how educators think or should think about classroom management today—especially when it provides us with better understanding of the enduring challenges and issues and, most important, when it gives us wisdom from the past that has been forgotten or ignored. Examples can be found in the good ideas and approaches of late-nineteenth- and early-twentieth-century progressive educators, who linked pedagogy, curriculum, and discipline, as well as in the good ideas and approaches of mid-twentieth-century *mental hygiene* educators, who provided insight into how to

discipline while being sensitive to children's psychological needs. It makes sense, then, for us to look to history to understand the differences in today's approaches to classroom management and to understand how to make classroom management better.

Corporal Punishment and Classroom Management in the First Half of the Nineteenth Century

One needs no statistical report to know that the vast majority of American educators today reject corporal punishment as an acceptable method for disciplining school children. However, the rejection of corporal punishment in schools masks the widespread acceptance of corporal punishment (spanking) in American family life and the widespread acceptance of strong forms of authoritarian-coercive methods of controlling children and adolescents in schools—methods such as suspending and expelling misbehaving students. In other words, there is more continuity than educators generally admit to.

The early-nineteenth-century discussions of corporal punishment also reveal themes and issues central in today's discussions of classroom management, such as the issues of whether children are to be trusted and how best to educate children coming from diverse cultures. Consider the example of the debates between Horace Mann (1796–1859) and a group of Boston schoolmasters, around the time when Mann was struggling to establish a public school system in Massachusetts.

The debates between Mann and the Boston schoolmasters were couched in biblical terms; however, at the heart of the conflict were different images of children—images that today underlie different approaches to classroom management and discipline.

For the Boston schoolmasters, children were *fallen* in the same sense that Adam and Eve were fallen after they ate the forbidden apple. As fallen children, they were not to be trusted and must, therefore, be subject to *habit training* that included corporal punishment, so that good habits might transform them into good persons.

In contrast, Mann assumed children were innocent in the same sense that Adam and Eve were innocent before the fall. Furthermore, and in agreement with the snake that tempted Eve, Mann assumed children to be vulnerable to temptation. According to Mann, it was the teacher's task to reduce temptations and to trust children to respond to the laws of reason and to the teacher's modeling of good character. In this debate, then, we see precursors to today's debates between those who speak mostly of managing children and their behavior and those who speak mostly of supporting children's long-term development and figuring out what is good behavior.

Mann's concern was also with the many immigrant families who had traveled from countries ruled by authoritarian regimes. His question was, "How can we educate these children so as to support their developing into citizens in a democratic society?"—a question as relevant today as it was in the 1840s.

Classroom Management and Discipline: The Late Nineteenth Century

Late-nineteenth-century *progressive* education reformers focused not so much on corporal punishment as on the problems caused by urbanization and the influx of immigrants from cultures quite different from mainstream American culture. These progressive educators were as much against the old mechanistic ways common in early-nineteenth-century schooling as they were for what the corresponding system advocated.

Before the mid-nineteenth century, if a child attended school (most did not), he or she was expected to follow a curriculum where the goals and methods had little to do with a child's everyday life. Furthermore, rather than moving about freely, children sat still in desks or stood to recite. Rather than pursue their interests, children pursued the interests determined by their teachers. Rather than being inventive and inquisitive, children followed prescribed processes to get *right* answers and acquire *right* habits. If children did not conform, they were punished.

To replace these old ways, progressive educators first built a curriculum around children's *interests*. Second, they followed a *constructivist* philosophy of knowing—a philosophy that involved children in asking questions, problem solving, and acting on their environment in order to understand and know. Third, they *structured* children in more subtle ways than with directives—such as by the way they organized time, space, materials, the built environment, and especially the curriculum; and fourth, they focused on developing a specific kind of *relationship* with children, that of the professional guide and someone who facilitates learning through stimulating thinking, problem solving, and creativity.

More than any other progressive educator at the time, John Dewey (1859–1952) made clear the connection between curriculum, pedagogy, and classroom management, and in so doing, he defined where control should reside. According to Dewey, it should reside not in the teacher but in the activities in which children and adolescents are engaged. He likened the ideal classroom to the ball field where the game itself is what controls the players—its rules, but also its goals and ability to capture players' interest and attention.

The late nineteenth century also brought to the forefront so-called *soft pedagogy*, emphasizing the need to

develop affection between teacher and child. Influenced by European educators, particularly by Friedrich Froebel in Germany and Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi in Switzerland, those advocating soft pedagogy emphasized that teachers can control children by becoming the object of their *affection*. Soft pedagogy anticipated today's emphasis on developing good teacher–child relationship as a cornerstone to classroom management.

Character education too was part of the late-nineteenth-century educational reforms. From the beginning, American schools were viewed as instruments for character education, with character education seen as part and parcel of classroom discipline. The main means for promoting good character were authoritarian-coercive means, all for the purpose of instilling good habits. In contrast to habit training, educators in the late nineteenth century stressed the need to focus not so much on outward good behavior as on *inward* feelings and *right* motives. Here, we see the forerunner of more recent constructivist approaches aimed at *putting morality on the inside*.

Classroom Management and School Discipline: The First Half of the Twentieth Century

In eighteenth- and nineteenth-century Europe and America, a new faith had taken hold and was fast becoming a faith for the mainstream. That new faith was a faith in science. It is not that people called science a faith. Rather, it is that in speaking about science, people treated science as something to have faith in, something that ensures progress toward a better world. However, it was not until the first half of the twentieth century that faith in science came to dominate discussions about schooling in general and classroom management in particular. This is clearly seen in the influence of the *child study* and *mental hygiene* movements.

Both movements took as their starting point the need to be scientific in order to make progress in educating children. For example, G. Stanley Hall (1844–1924), a leading psychologist at the time, promoted empirical research for understanding children, their development, and the kind of parenting and education children need to optimally support their development. The main effort was to reform practice by having practice accommodate the nature of the child.

This accommodating of the nature of the child reversed the old-fashioned insistence that the child accommodate the nature of the school and fit into whatever classroom or curriculum was offered. For example, one of Hall's followers, Arnold Gesell (1880–1961), became famous for his maturationist theory of child development—and used it to develop an assessment

clinic where parents brought their children for help to determine whether their children were *ready* for school or ready to advance to the next grade. Assessing a child as not being ready meant the child should not be made to *fit in*.

Out of the child study movement came no single approach to classroom management. In fact, it generated as much new controversy and disagreement as it generated agreement. For example, the development of tests to measure intelligence *objectively* generated the most hotly debated issue in the history of American schooling—the issue of whether biology (nature) or schooling (nurture) determines how far a child will advance in school. At issue for many was whether some children, because of their low intelligence (as measured by intelligence tests), should be *tracked* by placing them together in their own classrooms or otherwise segregated from the rest. Not surprising, tracking created its own problems for classroom management.

The other central, influential movement of the first half of the twentieth century was the *mental hygiene movement*. This movement began not in the schools, nor in academia, but in the medical care given to the *mentally ill*. Adolph Meyer (1866–1950), a physician, coined the term *mental hygiene*. From the mental hygiene movement came the emerging professions of child psychiatry, clinical child psychology, social work, and school psychology, professions that allied themselves with teachers by their sharing of a common focus on ordinary, everyday problems such as the discipline problems occurring daily in schools.

Children's problem behaviors were taken as symptoms of underlying emotional problems, problems that teachers need to be aware of when disciplining children—so as to not make matters worse. Teachers were asked to show a new kind of sensitivity to children, a sensitivity to children's feelings and *inner* life.

Classroom Management and School Discipline in the Second Half of the Twentieth Century

In the beginning of the second half of the twentieth century, behaviorist and psychodynamic theories dominated discussions of child development. School discipline was couched in terms of rewards and punishments or guiding children to manage their feelings. The emphasis was on what teachers do *to* children, not on what children do *for themselves*. Dewey's constructivist philosophy had been misinterpreted so many times—mostly by those who thought that progressive education meant giving children little or no structure—that progressive education was marginalized in favor of more overtly structured, teacher-directed forms of educating children.

Furthermore, most of the competing theories in the first half of the twentieth century focused on understanding middle class Euro-American children with two-parent families. Child development experts at the time often spoke in general terms about children at this or that age. There was, then, relatively little discussion given to differences pertaining to culture, and little discussion was given to how to mainstream children with disabilities.

During the late 1950s and early 1960s and stimulated by the work of theorists such as the Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget (1896–1980), a new wave of constructivist thinking influenced educators to adopt constructivist methods not only for instruction in academic subjects but also for classroom management. Lawrence Kohlberg (1927–1987) was a leading example.

Kohlberg's aim was to show that children and adolescents develop self-control, good behavior, and an understanding of right and wrong through the daily negotiations and problems they have to solve in order to get along with others. From this constructivist perspective, educators need to help children and adolescents think about alternative points of view in determining what is fair, right, and good. In doing so, children and adolescents are more likely to *put morality on the inside*, thereby becoming self-controlled, well-behaved, and, most important, responsible citizens of the classroom. Kohlberg and constructivist educators in the 1960s were, then, returning to late-nineteenth-century attempts to help children and adolescents develop good character—not by demanding virtue but by helping them adopt virtue on their own.

The 1960s and 1970s also witnessed the first of several waves of school reform having to do with social justice. The civil rights movement had a direct impact on classroom management and school discipline. It did so by making it the law that children and adolescents traditionally excluded from mainstream education should now be included—particularly children and adolescents with disabilities and children and adolescents of color who were previously educated in segregated schools. Teachers were simply unprepared to teach groups of students from diverse cultural backgrounds and with diverse abilities.

As a result of the rapid changes taking place in American society, many teachers during the 1960s and 1970s experienced themselves as losing control of their classrooms, so a number of approaches in the 1970s were designed specifically for the purpose of regaining control. They fell into two quite different groups, with one group coming from the behaviorist tradition and the other coming from clinical work and counseling.

One of the most popular of the behaviorist, *control approaches* was that of Lee and Marlene Canter, who

developed what they called *assertive discipline*. Echoing the political activism of the time, the Canters spoke of reemphasizing teachers' *rights*, particularly rights to limit students' inappropriate behavior.

From the counseling tradition came a softer language and references to meeting students' *needs*, but the focus remained on teachers regaining control of individual children and their classrooms. For example, Rudolf Dreikurs (1897–1972) promoted *logical consequences* instead of punishments for when students misbehaved. Dreikurs, like others from the clinical and counseling professions, thus focused on finding ways for teachers to control children, albeit in positive ways.

A third development during the 1960s and 1970s—one that directly influenced classroom management—was the development of a more refined psychiatric system for diagnosing children's problems. New labels for *disorders* of childhood suggested underlying biological causes for problem behavior. This was particularly true in the case of attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, for which a solution could be sought in medications.

In sum, the second half of the twentieth century ushered in a variety of approaches to classroom management, some designed mostly to control children (e.g., behaviorist and biological approaches), some designed mostly to guide children (e.g., counseling approaches), and some designed mostly to support long-term development (e.g., moral-constructivist approaches).

The most recent trend has been to adopt *ecological* and *systems* approaches to classroom management. Jacob Kounin and Paul Gump are credited with leading the way toward adopting ecological approaches. The main finding from research inspired by an ecological perspective has been that the key to managing misbehavior is to prevent misbehavior from happening in the first place—largely through the way a teacher monitors the group and avoids letting problem behavior disrupt the *flow* of the classroom, but also (and echoing progressive educators from a previous era) through the ways teachers organize time, space, the built environment, and the curriculum.

The other major and recent trend has been toward emphasizing relationship building. The focus on relationship building was there in previous decades, especially in late nineteenth century soft pedagogy and, later, in the mental hygiene movement. However, what is different now is the emphasis on community building and the open and frequent use of moral terms such as *justice* and *care*.

By the end of the twentieth century, then, school discipline seemed to have come full circle. Just as Horace Mann opposed the Boston schoolmasters for their focus on control, today's approaches oppose the focus on control that dominated discussion in the 1960s and 1970s.

And just as late-nineteenth-century educators advocated for more positive, constructivist, and relationship-based approaches, today's leading educators advocate more positive, constructivist, and relationship-based approaches. However, what is different from previous eras is that there is widespread agreement and commitment to using the best that research has to offer to build positive relationships, to teach so that children are motivated and better able to learn, to support children's long-term development, to create organized learning environments and functional interpersonal systems, and to accommodate diversity in all its many forms.

W. George Scarlett

See also Approaches to Classroom Management: Types; Character Education; Ecological Approaches; Kohlberg, Lawrence; Kounin, Jacob; Mental Hygiene Movement; Methods for Managing Behavior: Types and Uses; Piaget, Jean; Progressive Education; Trust, Building

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HOME-SCHOOL CONNECTIONS

A student's behavior and performance in the classroom is influenced not only by the classroom environment but also by the home environment. Home-school

connections bridge the gap between the home and the school, allowing for families and educators to share the responsibility of educating children. When partnerships are established between families and their children's school, students tend to demonstrate more positive attitudes toward the school, improved behavior, more consistent homework completion, improved school attendance, and greater participation in academic activities. This entry focuses on the characteristics of successful home-school connections and specific strategies, such as the use of technology, direct behavior ratings (DBRs), and home visits, that can be employed to develop these partnerships.

Characteristics of Successful Partnerships

To improve the learning and success of students, home-school partnerships must enable parents and schools to coordinate their efforts on a regular basis. The best way to encourage such coordination is by developing a sense of shared responsibility between educators and families for their children's learning. To make parents feel that they have an important role in educating their child, schools should encourage collaborative goal setting, joint decision making, and open communication. For example, if a child is struggling to master a difficult math concept, the teacher and parents should meet to discuss their respective roles in helping the student and also to develop goals for the student's achievement. As stakeholders in their child's learning, parents should feel empowered to ask questions and provide feedback, communicate about their child, and serve as decision-making members of problem-solving teams.

In addition, it is essential that family and community involvement be planned and evaluated like any other aspect of school improvement. Schools may choose to organize *action teams for partnership* (ATP) to develop a comprehensive partnership program. An ATP consists of two or three teachers from different grade levels, two or three parents from different neighborhoods or cultural groups, and an administrator. Schools may also choose to include a member from the community at large and two students if the ATP is at the high school level. Members serve as chairs of subcommittees organized to implement family and community involvement on specific school improvement goals (e.g., improving reading, math, behavior, or improving the school's climate of partnerships). The team works together to develop a formal 1-year action plan to ensure that goals and objectives for family and community partnerships are being implemented. In addition, the ATP determines methods for assessing results, allowing them to determine how successful they have been in improving

the quality of partnerships. Formalizing the process of developing home-school partnerships ensures that collaboration between home and school will occur in an organized and systematic manner.

Finally, successful home-school partnerships emphasize equity; that is, engaging all parents, not just those who are easily accessible. It is a common misconception that *hard to reach* parents are disengaged and indifferent to their children's education. Interestingly, these parents often view the school as inaccessible and *hard to reach*. Therefore, it is important to create a positive environment where these parents feel welcome. For example, in communities with residents predominantly of low socioeconomic status, schools are more likely to contact parents about problems and difficulties their children are having than about their achievements. Contacting parents about positive accomplishments is just as important because it helps to establish a positive relationship between home and school.

Schools should be flexible in offering meeting times and places in recognition of the competing needs of families. One example is to hold meetings at a local community center or apartment complex to alleviate transportation issues. Including translators, childcare, and food are additional ways to encourage parent involvement. The fact that some parents are *hard to reach* should not be used as a rationale for not involving them in the home-school partnership process.

Use of Technology in Establishing Home–School Connections

As the use of digital technologies has become more prevalent, schools have begun to explore how these tools can be used to enhance home-school connections. The easiest way to reach out to most parents is through e-mail communications, which can be accessed when most convenient to parents. Exploring the use of other social media such as Twitter, texting, and even establishing a Facebook site also increases communication with an eye toward moving beyond the traditional daytime hours.

Learning platforms, also known as virtual learning environments (VLEs) or managed learning environments (MLEs), can be used to improve communication between home and school. By visiting online learning platforms, parents can view their children's reports, attendance, and assessment scores without needing to go to school or wait for parent-teacher conferences. This tool could be especially useful for parents with busy work schedules or parents who live far from their child's school.

Whereas MLEs and VLEs simply serve to provide important information to parents about their children's

performance in school, other technologies can be used to support parents' engagement with their children's learning. For example, some schools are beginning to provide online access to curriculum and revision materials designed for parents. By understanding what their children are learning, parents will be better able to help their children with homework. In addition, knowledge of the curriculum can help parents start a conversation with their children about school.

Along with their benefits, digital technologies also have their limitations. While learning platforms offer parents valuable information, they tend to rely on one-way communication from the school to the home. By eliminating the need for interactive communication, these technologies can detract from establishing a sense of shared responsibility between home and school. It is important, therefore, that educators continue to forge personal and meaningful relationships with parents that allow parents to give input and voice their concerns. Most importantly, the use of digital technologies will be heavily dependent on whether families have access to technology. Provisions for non-English speakers must also be considered when exploring this option.

Use of DBRs in Establishing Home-School Connections

Another way to increase communication between home and school environments is through the use of DBRs, which involve having a teacher rate a predetermined behavior during a specified observation period. For example, if a middle school student frequently calls out answers during academic classes, the teacher may decide to rate the proportion of time that the student raised his hand appropriately using a scale of one to seven. The completed DBR can be used as a platform for home-school communication. For example, the school may require that the student have a parent sign the completed rating scale. Therefore, through DBRs, parents will be informed of the child's behavior on a daily basis. In addition, it is possible to help parents establish a system of reinforcement for positive DBR ratings, allowing the school and home to coordinate their efforts toward behavior change.

Creating a DBR involves several steps. First, the teacher must select the most problematic times of day for the student (e.g., during math class, at lunch). Next, the teacher selects the issues that are most challenging (e.g., calling-out, out-of-seat behavior). The chosen time of day and the problematic behaviors are then written on the DBR form in positive and specific terms (e.g., During math class, Billy raised his hand). Once the DBR form has been developed and discussed with parents and the student, the teacher can begin to rate the student

immediately following the specified rating time and should share the rating with the student. The teacher should use positive praise and positive reinforcement to promote appropriate behavior. The DBR is then sent home on a daily basis, thus ensuring continued communication between home and school.

The use of DBRs is similar to the use of digital technologies in that it promotes one-way communication between the school and the home. Providing a comment section and asking for the daily return of the signed DBR will establish bidirectional communication between school and home. Efforts should be made to ensure that teachers supplement the use of DBRs with telephone calls and other direct means of communication.

Use of Home Visits in Establishing Home-School Connections

Home visits are a way in which educators can establish deeper, more meaningful connections between home and school environments and can increase parental involvement in their children's education. Home visits can be used to welcome new families to a school, get families' perspective on policies and programs, demonstrate learning activities that can take place at home, talk about homework strategies, provide parents with resources, and establish trust with a family.

When planning a home visit, it is ideal for educators to request a visit in advance with an explanation of the nature of the visit, who will be coming to their home, and how long the visit will last. Visits should ideally include two school personnel. Upon arriving at the home, the educator should remind the family of the purpose of the visit and should make small talk to get to know the family better. After establishing rapport, it may be useful to provide information about future parent activities and offer parents' contact information should future questions or concerns arise. It is often beneficial to document visits, including information on any factors that could affect the child's school performance.

More often, visits may occur on a less formal basis, as in the case of families who lack phone access or routinely do not respond to school notices. In such cases, a visit from two school staff members might be unannounced and with the intention of directly offering information and materials. Bringing books and supplies is another helpful way to ensure that the visit is perceived as nonthreatening.

Results from surveys of teachers who participated in home visits indicate that teachers felt home visits contributed to an improved relationship with parents. By talking openly with parents in a comfortable setting, it is possible to establish trust and strengthen communication between the home and the school. Teachers also

reported that students who received a home visit during the summer were better prepared at the beginning of the school year than students who were not visited. In addition, home visits allow educators to reach out to families who do not feel comfortable in the school setting and to those whose work schedule makes it difficult for them to visit schools frequently.

It is important to be mindful of cultural norms when making home visits. Perhaps the home custom is to remove shoes. Many cultures dictate that parents offer visitors food or refreshments. Acceptance of these offers of hospitality will go a long way toward building rapport. Finally, it is always good for visiting educators to give the reason for conducting a home visit, the main one being to build positive connections, share information, and become partners in educating a child.

Conclusion

In summary, establishing a strong relationship between home and school is essential for student success. The excuse that parents are unavailable is no longer valid, as there are multiple ways to reach out to parents. The use of ATPS, technology, DBRs, and home visits all serve to increase opportunities for shared communication. Consideration of family culture, family needs, and family comfort level must be factored in when choosing the right mix of methods to create positive connections. When that right mix occurs, the relationships that follow can become powerful supports for children's education.

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See also Home–School Connections With Latino Families; Parent–School Collaboration

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HOME–SCHOOL CONNECTIONS WITH LATINO FAMILIES

Establishing strong and effective home–school connections with families is considered the best practice and a key component of school reform efforts, as well as an essential element in the repertoire of teacher practices designed to promote student success. Past research shows that when families, educators, and schools establish respectful, supportive partnerships, children tend to like school more, do better in school, and stay in school longer. It is the case, however, that the demographic landscape of schools continues to become more complex. Indeed, the current population of schoolchildren is more heterogeneous than ever before.

In particular, the growth in the number of Latino schoolchildren during this time period has been unprecedented; Latino students accounted for approximately 60% of the total growth in public school enrollment between 1990 and 2006, and they now constitute the majority in states such as Texas and California, where over 50% of public school students identify as Latino. As such, establishing strong relationships and open lines of communication between Latino families, teachers, and schools is critical to the adaptation and school success of Latino youth. This entry examines current research and perspectives on home–school connections between Latino families and schools. Strategies for forming authentic home–school partnerships are discussed.

Latino Population, Children, and Education

As a group, the Latino population of the United States is highly diverse. Latinos can be defined as that segment of the U.S. population that traces its descent to the Spanish-speaking, Latin American, and Caribbean worlds, that is, a person of Cuban, Mexican, Puerto Rican, South or Central American, or other Spanish culture or origin, regardless of race. Hence, respective Latino subgroups have extremely varied histories, worldviews, and sociopolitical and economic circumstances. The panethnic terms *Latino* and/or *Hispanic* are used in different regions and with different connotations, with the former emphasizing the group's Latin American roots (who constitute the vast majority in the United States) and the latter associated with the population's link with *Hispania* or Spain. In this entry, the term *Latino* is used with the above caveats in mind.

Latinos are currently the largest ethnic minority group in the United States, representing 17% of the total population in 2013. Latino children are the youngest

and fastest-growing segment of the U.S. population, and this growth must be examined in light of recent socioeconomic trends: according to the Pew Hispanic Research Center, the number of Latino children living in poverty in the United States now exceeds the number of poor white children for the first time. Approximately three in four Latino children live in homes in which at least some Spanish is spoken regularly, and as such, they (as well as their families) present with a unique linguistic profile in schools.

In terms of academic achievement, although National Assessment of Educational Progress scores in recent years have gone up for Latinos relative to 1990, Latino students still lag significantly behind their fourth- and eighth-grade white counterparts, especially if they are English language learners. Moreover, although high school graduation rates among Latinos have risen in recent years, high school and college completion rates are still very low for this group (especially within particular Latino subgroups such as Mexican American and Central American), which has profound implications for the nation's short- and long-term well-being. Hence, understanding the factors that promote Latino children's successful performance in U.S. schools must be the foremost priority of education researchers, policymakers, and professionals. Establishing authentic and meaningful home-school connections with Latino families is one such factor, and undoubtedly a most critical place for teachers to start.

Home-School Connections as a Component of Parent Involvement and Engagement

Home-school connections with families can be viewed as part of the larger construct of parent involvement, which is multifaceted and variable, rather than uniform. One of the pioneers of this field, Joyce Epstein of Johns Hopkins University, provided conceptual and practical grounding of this construct with a framework of six key components of effective parent involvement: parenting, communicating, volunteering, learning at home, decision making, and collaboration with the community. This model, considered the benchmark educators look to for understanding how to work with parents, effectively moves the focus from considering parents as tangential to schools, only to be called upon when there are individual student problems or when an extra set of *novice* hands is needed, to valuing them as legitimate partners and collaborators in children's educational best interests.

Central to Epstein's work is the belief that the spheres of family, school, and community overlap and are influenced by the history, patterns, and contextual circumstances of the individuals and institutions within

each sphere. The interplay of these factors is critical to understanding home-school connections and interactions with Latino and other ethnic/racial groups who are not considered part of the dominant culture. Many scholars have built on this particular aspect of Epstein's model, elucidating the factors that may unconsciously inhibit and constrain the relationships between ethnic minority or other nondominant (e.g., gay and lesbian) families and schools.

Toward this end, some parent involvement research has examined how the legacy of racism and discrimination contributes to distrust between schools and ethnic minority parents. Similarly, studies have also explored how social inequalities in the larger society are replicated and maintained within the school sector. For example, many scholars have noted that the culture of most schools typically reflects white, U.S. middle-class values (e.g., individual achievement) and requires certain forms of social capital (i.e., resources, time, language fluency) and culturally based knowledge and behaviors about the particulars of formal schooling, which may not be possessed by Latino and other ethnic minority groups. Frequently, these values and forms are assumed and not made explicit, resulting in the marginalization and even exclusion of such families.

Against this backdrop, recent conceptualizations of parent involvement are increasingly grounded within an empowerment and community-organizing framework. Such initiatives bring parents and community members together to examine issues around educational inequality in their respective school communities and to develop strategies for working with schools to address them through collective advocacy. In this emerging line of research, the term parent *engagement*, rather than involvement, is more often used, since it connotes a more active, empowered, and leadership stance among families.

Schools and Latino Families: How Do Home-School Connections Often Play Out?

Although schools may have the best intentions to form connections with and engage all families, it is often the case that schools and teachers overwhelmingly define parent and family involvement according to school-sanctioned criteria that presuppose the ability to be physically present at school, as implied earlier. Put another way, family involvement often largely consists of a set of school-initiated activities that parents can *choose* to support and participate in, such as being active in the PTA, attending parent conferences, open houses, or other school events, or reading the school/classroom newsletter. Although there is nothing inherently wrong with these activities, this portrayal of

parental involvement strongly resonates with the history, contexts, and value system of middle- and upper-middle-class white families, who readily and *naturally* engage with schools in these ways.

Viewed from this perspective, parent involvement and physical presence at school among Latino families is low as compared with those of white, Euro-ethnic groups, resulting in the perception among many educational professionals that Latino parents are uninvolved and not invested in their children's education. Further, some ethnographic work with classroom teachers has suggested that although they express interest in connecting with Latino families, they often view them as problematic, especially where education and schooling are concerned and are often hesitant or resistant to learning about alternative cultural beliefs, values, and practices that such families may hold. As well, teachers and schools often fail to acknowledge and legitimize the more informal means of involvement and support that Latino families often provide, such as conveying high expectations for learning, structuring homework time, sending children to school clean and rested, and having daily conversations about school activities.

Hence, although formal participation may not always be observed, studies of Latino families have repeatedly shown that parents highly value education and care deeply about their children's academic progress and success. Research also suggests that many Latino families do wish to have stronger connections with teachers and more opportunities for engagement in school activities, but often they do not feel efficacious in their attempts to do so and are often silenced in their advocacy efforts. In sum, home–school connections between Latino families and schools are often framed within a deficit view, in which parents are considered inadequate and where the distinct boundaries between home and school are reinforced. However, such relationships are neither intractable nor inevitable.

Forming Connections With Latino Families: Context and Culture Within a Strengths-Based Perspective

For educators who serve Latino children, awareness of and sensitivity to the diverse sociocultural contexts of the families and communities from which they come is critical to effective home–school relationships. For example, it is important to recognize that although Latinos are highly diverse, the median household income of this group is well below that of the overall U.S. population. Hence, many Latino families may in fact be of the low-income group and have multiple jobs or less flexible work schedules, less education or experience with formal schooling, or limited proficiency with

English, all of which may constrain their abilities to be present at school and form sustained connections with teachers. Familiarity with some of the cultural values, behaviors, and expectations of Latino families can assist educational professionals in forming authentic relationships and meaningful connections with them that result in enhanced opportunities for students. Four prominent cultural values identified in the research with Latino families are presented below, with a focus on their implications for home–school connections within educational settings.

Collectivism/Interdependence

Latinos are largely considered a collectivist, rather than independent, culture, where the focus is on one's proper place and contribution to the group, rather than on the individual. From a collectivist viewpoint, group harmony and strengthening of relationships is far more important than expressing one's individuality. In this view, parents might resist a teacher's praising of their children's individual efforts, thinking that it distinguishes them from the group without providing insights on areas in need of growth. Relatedly, Latino parents operating within a collectivist perspective may place more value and encouragement on the development and maintenance of social relations and social skills, rather than cognitive ones.

Educación

In Spanish, the term *educación* is more comprehensive than its English cognate *education*: the former implies that moral, interpersonal, social, and academic goals are not separated, but intimately linked. This broader definition of education may conflict with that held by most educational professionals. For example, some research with immigrant Latino families has shown that parents' conceptions of their role in their children's education is discordant with the view held by teachers; that is, teachers often expect parents to engage in academic activities at home, while parents view themselves as responsible for children's social and moral development and for raising a child who is *bien educado* (well educated, well behaved, and well mannered), with the teacher being the primary academic instructor.

Respeto

The goal of *respeto* is the maintenance of harmonious interpersonal relationships through respect for self and others, with the value of obedience to authority figures being central. For example, young Latino children

may be taught both verbal and nonverbal rules of respect such as not challenging an elder's point of view and not interrupting adult conversations. Similarly, some studies have suggested that many Latino parents choose to avoid formal school participation out of respect for children's teachers; it is often believed that contacting school personnel challenges their authority. As well, Latino parents may perceive students who listen quietly, rather than assert their own points of view or ask questions, as more respectful and willing to learn; this may contradict the attributes often valued in current school reform efforts, such as skillful self-expression.

Familismo

The cultural value of *familismo* refers to family closeness, cohesion, and decision making, a reliance on family members (including intergenerational and extended kin) as primary sources of support, and the commitment to the family over individual needs and desires. Although research suggests that *familismo* may compel some Latino youth to prioritize familial duty and responsibility over education (e.g., missing school for a family obligation), it is increasingly considered a protective factor associated with lower risk and delinquency behaviors and better mental health and academic outcomes.

Conclusion

There is much promise and potential for authentic and mutually respectful partnerships to develop between schools and Latino families. Schools and educational professionals would do well to adopt a thoughtful, reflective, and informed perspective in forging connections with Latino families, capitalizing on the fundamentally relational nature of Latino culture, while being open to a variety of structured, nontraditional (e.g., home visits), and *everyday* opportunities for interactions to occur. Indeed, as schools and parents strive to provide Latino children and youth with the support and education they will need in a global economy, the benefits of meaningful connections between Latino families, schools, and communities are great and far reaching.

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See also Home-School Connections; Parent-School Collaboration; Special Education and Hispanic Students

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HOMWORK

Homework is a ubiquitous aspect of students' daily educational experiences. According to preeminent homework researcher Harris Cooper, homework is best understood as tasks that teachers assign to students to complete during noninstructional time (e.g., after school, during study hall breaks). Given that a great deal of teaching and learning happens through the assignment, completion, and review of homework, this pedagogical tool is integral to classroom management practices. Here, we examine what is known about U.S. students' homework behavior and explore both the academic and the motivational benefits of homework, as well as contested views of its usefulness, from the elementary through the high school years.

How Much Homework Do American Students Do?

Research and policy interest in the benefits of homework have grown particularly intense over the past 25 years, in part driven by the culture of high-stakes testing and the relatively poor performance of American students on international assessments of academic achievement. Since the 1990s, dramatic media reports of overwhelmed students and understandably distressed parents have raised concerns that excessive amounts of homework may be threatening student (and family) mental health, undermining family time, and interfering with participation in out-of-school enrichment activities. Across the United States, individual schools and school districts have opted to greatly reduce or even eliminate homework, especially at the elementary school level.

Interestingly, though, surveys have shown that, on average, American students at all grade levels do

surprisingly little homework. In fact, from 1981 to 1997, the percentage of students who reported doing any studying at all decreased. Reports from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), which tracks academic achievement among 4th (9 years old), 8th (13 years old), and 12th (17 years old) graders, show that throughout the 1990s and 2000s, most students at all grade levels reported spending less than 1 hour on homework on a typical night. During senior year, when the average amount of homework assigned is the highest, students reported spending more time watching television during the school week (11–12 hours on average) than doing their homework (almost 7 hours on average). A recent study did note an increase in homework among younger children (3rd through 5th grades); in this report, it was found that average *weekly* homework rose from 25 minutes in 1981 to 36 minutes in 1997, an increase of 11 minutes.

Thus, it appears that reports of highly overburdened students do not capture the homework experiences of the vast majority of American students. It is possible that the very real stresses experienced by some students may be limited to families and communities in which, in well-meaning attempts to prepare children for the realities of the current competitive global economy, the press for academic achievement is especially high.

The Homework Controversy

Critics argue that homework places children from low-income families at a disadvantage, since they are much less likely to have access to the varieties of homework help that are available to their wealthier peers. As many teachers are aware, some parents offer so much help that they essentially do their children's homework for them, a reality that is clearly problematic. To a large extent, though, the controversy over homework stems from repeated findings that the practice does not appear to enhance academic achievement at the elementary school level. This has led some parents to question its usefulness. Indeed, if homework does not promote greater learning, why should educators burden young children and their parents with additional academic tasks after the school day?

A close examination reveals that the null association between homework and achievement is due to two primary factors. First, relative to older students, younger children are less able to focus and minimize or avoid distractions. Thus, they engage with homework in more marginal and less substantive ways. Second, teachers report that their goals in assigning homework are centered less on furthering content and more on fostering time management and study skills, both of which are integral to self-regulation. Thus, while not promoting

learning, homework in elementary school is a tool that lays the foundation for the development of skills that are necessary for adaptive learning and achievement.

The value of homework is perceived quite differently at the middle and high school levels. By this point in children's academic development, research consistently shows a positive relationship among homework, school grades, and achievement test scores. This finding holds across urban, suburban, and rural settings. Self-reports of how much homework students complete, rather than estimates of how much they have been assigned, are strongly associated with how well students do in school. For example, relative to their peers who report doing less homework, 6th-, 10th-, and 12th-grade students who do more homework attain higher grades in school.

At the classroom level, more homework and more frequently assigned homework have been shown to enhance academic achievement. Relatedly, a recent NAEP survey found that 12th graders who reported doing their homework *often* had higher scores than their peers who reported doing their homework *sometimes* or *never*. Importantly, it is not necessarily *time* but rather *effort* expended that is associated with achievement gains. Indeed, greater amounts of time spent on homework can be a sign of motivational or comprehension difficulties.

Most schools adhere to what is known as the *10 Minute Rule* (e.g., 40 minutes in 4th grade). At the high school level, many school districts recommend about 30 minutes per subject, with more homework as needed in honors or Advanced Placement classes. There does indeed appear to be a point of diminishing returns where amounts of homework are concerned. At the middle school level, the positive relationship between homework and achievement peaks at about 90 minutes per day. In high school, optimal achievement gains occur between 90 minutes and two-and-a-half hours daily.

Does Homework Foster Achievement Motivation?

Achievement motivation is best conceived as a constellation of beliefs that influence the tasks students choose to pursue, as well as the persistence they show in the pursuit of these tasks. Research supports the view that homework is a vehicle through which children develop adaptive learning beliefs (such as beliefs in one's ability) and self-regulatory behaviors (such as planning and self-monitoring). In turn, these positive approaches to learning are associated with homework completion, higher academic achievement, higher perceived self-efficacy, and greater personal responsibility for learning. Importantly, these types of adaptive beliefs and behaviors do not develop in a vacuum. Rather, they are

fostered at an early age and, over time, through supportive scaffolding from parents and teachers.

Parents' Influence

Parents generally want very much to be involved in their children's schooling. They believe that participation in and awareness of their children's school lives is an integral part of their role as parents and view success in homework as leading to success in school. Further, teachers welcome parents' involvement because it helps them feel supported, strengthens the connection between home and school, and fosters higher achievement. Despite the controversy over homework in the early grades, surveys have shown that even parents of young children support the practice because they believe it builds necessary character traits, such as personal responsibility. By the time they are in high school, students tend to agree with parents and teachers that homework reinforces learning and enhances achievement. Homework, then, is a critical means by which the adults who are central to children's development promote achievement and adaptive approaches to learning.

Parents' attitudes and behaviors surrounding homework have a profound influence on children's developing beliefs and school outcomes. Regardless of social class, the standards parents set for homework completion have a significant effect on how much time children devote to homework. There is no doubt, though, that homework can be a stressful experience at times, for both parents and children. Not surprisingly, children's affect when they are doing homework tends to be negative. However, parents who are noncontrolling and maintain a positive attitude create an environment that fosters greater enjoyment, intrinsic interest, higher self-perceptions of competence, and higher achievement. Indeed, mothers' and children's emotions while working on homework are highly correlated, which suggests that mothers can shape their children's emotional reactions to homework. Further, mothers' positive emotions, such as interest, humor, and pride, predict higher achievement, while negative emotions and tension predict lower achievement.

Critically, parents do not have to be actively involved in helping their children with homework in order to have an impact on their children's developing homework beliefs and behaviors. Parents who are unable or lack confidence in their ability to help their children nonetheless provide critical support that serves the development of skills related to self-regulation. Many parents report that from a young age, they help their children establish routines and develop useful strategies for completing homework. These include providing a space at home dedicated for schoolwork, helping children manage their time, minimizing distractions, and recognizing

conditions at home that help or hinder their ability to get their homework done. Over time, children whose parents model and support these types of self-regulation strategies adopt them into their homework practices.

Teachers and the Homework Process

Teachers generally believe that homework serves both academic and motivational purposes. Homework provides students with opportunities to review material, practice skills, and reinforce knowledge that has been acquired in school. In addition, teachers believe that homework serves to develop responsibility in learning and fosters study skills. Students, however, do not necessarily view homework as a priority. Researchers who have studied students' views on homework report that they do not enjoy homework that is boring or *busy work*, too easy or too hard, and that is irrelevant to their lives. Indeed, when students perceive homework as intrinsically interesting, they engage in more homework management strategies, such as self-regulation and self-monitoring. This suggests that teachers can do much to structure homework assignments that are developmentally appropriate and engage students in their own contexts.

There is much that teachers can do to help parents support their children. Teacher-designed interactive homework programs have been particularly successful in scaffolding parents' homework assistance. Typically, teachers assign tasks that have clearly defined roles for students and their family members. For example, students may be given a prompt to write a story, read it to a family member, and ask questions of the family member about the story. In turn, participating family members are asked to provide teachers with feedback on whether their child understood the activity and could discuss it, as well as the extent to which they and their child enjoyed the activity. Interactive homework programs have been found to foster students' sense of personal responsibility and to enhance the parent-child relationship and the home-school connection.

Importantly, the standards that teachers set for homework completion have a significant influence on the amount of time that students invest in their homework tasks. In fact, teacher monitoring of homework has been found to be especially helpful for lower achievers. That is, less conscientious students have been found to invest more effort in their homework when they know that their teachers check its completion. Similarly, students are more likely to adopt homework management strategies (self-regulation and self-monitoring) when they know teachers will be grading and discussing their homework assignments. Indeed, students respect teachers who do not let others *get away* with not doing their homework.

In addition to assigning and grading homework, teachers can foster self-regulation by asking students to be mindful of their homework behaviors. Researchers have noted the value of teaching students to set goals, plan their time, strategize best ways to successfully complete assignments, self-reflect on their work habits, track their school performance over time, and share strategies with their peers. Indeed, even elementary school children can be taught to adopt these valuable self-regulation skills.

Conclusion

In sum, while homework remains a subject of controversy in contemporary society, the evidence suggests that it is a valuable pedagogical tool. Homework engages parents in their children's learning, provides critical training in self-regulation, and, by middle school, enhances academic achievement. These outcomes are facilitated by homework assignments that are developmentally appropriate, experienced as intrinsically interesting, and perceived as relevant to students' lives.

Janine Bempechat

See also Home–School Connections; Motivation, Intrinsic and Extrinsic; Parent–School Collaboration; Teacher–Parent Partnerships; Teachers and Families of Children With Special Needs

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HOMOPHOBIA

The term *homophobia* refers to the irrational fear by students, parents, administrators, and the general public of students and teachers who may have a gender

identity that they would describe as lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, or queer (undecided) (LGBTQ). What they are not is staunchly heterosexual. The bullies claim that such gender identity difference and sexual orientation is a threat for many reasons. Religious reasons are offered to substantiate homophobia. Personal values are sometimes used to rationalize hatred and bullying. Different habits of dress and attire make some uncomfortable and thus permit jokes.

Some students may not realize the harm name-calling causes and laugh it off as just a nickname. Different mannerisms, gesticulations, and speech patterns make some heterosexuals not want to engage in a conversation. Sometimes, students may demonstrate homophobic attitudes because they have been taught to be homophobic. It is simple, unadulterated bias, discrimination, and hatred. Homophobic bullying helps to reinforce the heterosexuality of the bullies.

The sections that follow describe homophobic bullying, present statistical facts about the prevalence of homophobic bullying, and explain how what are called *microaggressions* create an atmosphere for homophobic bullying. The entry discusses the effects of homophobic bullying on students, bullies and bystanders, the school at large, and parents and teachers and concludes with recommended interventions for homophobia in schools.

Homophobic Bullying

Homophobic bullying is defined as all forms of physical, verbal, or relational bullying on the basis of perceived sexual orientation. Whether an individual is actually gay or not, whether he or she has *come out* or not does not seem to make any difference. Consequently, befriending a gay individual, dressing in an unconventional manner, or not being one of the in-crowd can get a heterosexual student labeled as *queer*, *fag*, *homo*, or *gay*. These labels are intended to disgrace a student's gender identity, no matter what it may be. The pervasive overall motivation for homophobic bullying is power; feeling good about oneself by putting another student down. Even formerly conventional terms like *gay* and *lesbian* have been transformed into insults. It is not uncommon to hear students use the term *gay* as an adjective that is intended as an attribution of disdain toward some object or person. Its use in this manner may have no relationship to homosexuality. Consequently, on a semantic differential scale, gay is bad; heterosexual is good.

Statistical Facts About Homophobia

LGBTQ youth are two to three times more likely to be bullied than their heterosexual peers. These targeted

students hear defamatory name-calling about 26 times per day on average or about once every 14 minutes. Over 80% of LGBTQ youth will be taunted regarding their sexual orientation, and more than 50% have been physically assaulted or ridiculed by peers and, worse yet, their teachers. Almost 20% have received death threats. Over 80% of LGBT students report that faculty, staff, and administration either never intervened or intervened inconsistently when in the presence of homophobic remarks. Almost 100% of high school students report that they have heard homophobic remarks from peers, and over 50% report hearing even teachers and staff making homophobic remarks.

Microaggressions and the Development of Homophobia

Microaggressions are seemingly small aggressions made unwittingly toward the LGBT community, not necessarily made with full intention to hurt. They include such statements as “That is so gay,” “Don’t be a sissy,” or “You throw like a girl.” A teacher whose classroom management style is *laissez-faire* and permissive and who permits microaggressions to persist in the classroom is, in effect, setting the stage for full-blown homophobia. As a result, students think homophobic bullying is one form of bullying that will be tolerated. Over 25% of students with parents identifying as LGBTQ reported being physically bullied and are more likely to be bullied about their own gender expression whether they are homosexual or not. Students who are bullied for being gay but are not gay are sometimes referred to as *transpos*. Rumors start flying that a particular student is gay or lesbian, and then there is no stopping the wildfire of gossip that has been initiated. In addition, other students may stop being friends with that student for fear of being labeled a *homo* themselves.

Effects of Homophobic Bullying on Students and Schools

Effects on Students

Homophobic bullying has been reported in primary as well as in secondary schools. It may be directed at young people of any sexual orientation and even at children who have not yet reached puberty. Teachers, parents, and other adults in schools may also be bullied in this way whether they are gay or not. Bullying of teachers and school administrators is an understudied area since most think that bullying only happens between two students. In fact, bullying can happen anywhere, at any time, to anyone, at any stage of life, working in any profession, including teaching.

Children who are the butt of homophobic ridicule may move from being good students to being occasionally absent from school or regularly truant. It is hard for students to pay attention in the classroom when feeling unsafe, friendless, and harboring anger at the entire school for letting this happen to them. Sometimes, they drop out of school entirely or end up attending another school where there is a more positive social climate and where the school administration enforces a zero-tolerance policy toward LGBTQ bullying.

Many school policies do not even recognize LGBTQ bullying or sexual harassment as real forms of bullying. Such schools are stuck in the 1950s with a *stick-and-stones* approach to bullying. The response is often “Boys will be boys,” “Girls are mean,” “Grow up and be a man,” “Take care of it yourself,” or worst of all, “Bullying is good for you; it makes you stronger,” “Get used to it; you will be bullied throughout your life.” When school policies do not support good classroom management practices, professional ethics, and the law, the result can be a disaster.

For teenagers entering the pubescent stage of development, homophobic bullying only serves to heighten their anxiety over their changing bodies, their developing sense of sexuality, and their gender identity in terms of how they will interact with males and females. Cyberbullying attacks can be relentless with taunts like “No one likes you”; “Faggots don’t belong in our school”; and “Kill yourself.” Clearly, such hate speech has no place in the schools of a democratic society wherein all students have a Fourteenth Amendment right to equal access to public education. It is the school’s responsibility to make school a safe and inviting place for everyone, not just the students who fit some preconceived notion of normative behavior.

Effects on Bullies and Bystanders

Schools permitting homophobic bullying do a disservice to the bullies as well as to bystanders by permitting intolerance of gender identity differences and, perhaps, race, ethnicity, and disability differences as well. All of these minority groups have a right to attend public school without harassment.

Many schools have begun programs to teach character education as a form of intervention for bullying. Character education is not the same as moral education. Character involves the development of virtues that relate to values such as fairness, honesty, tolerance, acceptance, and sharing—to name a few. Character education may also teach ways in which students and teachers can have a choice in how they treat each other and how they contribute to the social climate of the entire school. Other schools rely on the simple notion

of courtesy and politeness as one more approach to deal with homophobic bullying and create a classroom learning community. There are many forms of bibliotherapy that can be employed to help students understand the value of courtesy and manners.

Effects on Schools

Many schools are learning the lesson about homophobic bullying the hard way and have been sued in civil court and found guilty of professional negligence. In some cases, schools have had to pay for and provide alternative forms of education at a private school as well as pay damages to the target of bullying. The most troubling case observed by this writer is one in which faculty members actually made a *hit list* of students who were *different* and shared it. These were the students the teachers had identified as *different*. They described them with derogatory monikers. Some were *different* behaviorally, and some were *different* in sexual orientation. Perhaps needless to say, when this situation was uncovered, those involved were summarily released from their positions, and a consultant was brought in to train the others in positive forms of schoolwide behavior management.

Effects on Parents

There are many varied forms of family arrangements today. They include traditional married couples, single parents, adoptive parents, extended family serving as parents, blended families, and gay and lesbian family arrangements. When teachers do not recognize the homosexual or otherwise sexually unconventional family arrangement, or when they openly disrespect or otherwise discriminate against it in the way they teach their class, they are engaging in discrimination, even if the state in which they teach does not recognize *gay marriage*. In such situations, the students living in these households are made to feel like they are inferior or are *second best*. It is not unlike coming from what others referred to negatively as a *broken family*. These students may find themselves labeled as *gay* or *queer* simply by association, regardless of their own gender identification. What is needed, clearly, is an inclusive, nondiscriminatory approach to classroom management.

Effects on Teachers

Teachers can be the butt of homophobic ridicule. All teachers get a reputation, whether valid and fair or not. Anyone who has attended school knows that teachers may be tagged with nicknames, but some names are more hurtful than others. If a teacher has a lisp, if a teacher is

small of stature, if a teacher speaks in a soft voice, if a teacher is awkward in social situations, if a teacher is universally nonassertive, or if a teacher wears nontraditional clothing, that teacher may be marked for homophobic bullying not only by students but also by staff. All anti-bullying policies should include teachers, administrators, and parents both in and outside of school. To enforce avoidance of incidents occurring outside of school, the school resource officer may need to get involved to train students about civility and to enforce the law.

Interventions for Homophobia

Although there is no simple formula for preventing schoolwide homophobia, there are a number of classroom management strategies that can be of value:

- Challenging homophobic name-calling and microaggressions
- Creating an open, tolerant classroom social climate
- Being preventive, not reactionary
- Establishing and maintaining a zero-tolerance policy for bullying
- Providing the option for a balanced, age-appropriate, culturally sensitive and religiously cognizant discussion of sexuality in the curriculum, with the discussion aimed at promoting tolerance
- Teaching assertiveness and the difference between reporting and tattling
- Providing training to teachers, administrators, parents, and students about homophobic bullying
- Creating a schoolwide antibullying policy that includes homophobia
- Teaching professionals respect for pubescence as a stage of sexual identity development
- Understanding that student and teacher gender identity can be expressed in many ways within the law
- Advising teachers not to share their sexual orientation with students
- Advising teachers to avoid *moving* a student into a sexual orientation based upon perceptions

Conclusion

The research on whether homophobic bullying is increasing or decreasing is so far inconclusive. The long-term effects of homophobic bullying depend upon the resiliency of the student and the quality of the social support system in which the student lives. What is clear, however, is that classrooms and school systems should provide supports aimed at preventing homophobic bullying and homophobic statements in general and, should such bullying occur, supports that help both the bullied and the bully.

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See also Bullying, Gender Differences in; Bullying and Bullying Prevention; Bullying and the Law; Character Education; Gender and Classroom Management; Respect; Sexual Harassment, School-Based Peer; Sexual Orientation and Classroom Management

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HUMAN RIGHTS EDUCATION

Human rights education refers to all education, training, information, awareness raising, and learning activities aimed at promoting universal respect for and observance of human rights and fundamental freedoms for all global citizens. The purpose of this entry is to outline the definition, history, and application of human rights education (HRE) as a tool to develop students' awareness, civic engagement, and empathy.

History of HRE

HRE is grounded in the international human rights framework, starting with the 30 articles of the United Nations Declaration of Human Rights and their application to current and historical international events. In 1948, the United Nations (UN) General Assembly unanimously adopted the Declaration, calling for all nations to respect the rights of all humans across the world. These rights include, among others, the right to life and freedom, the right to food and water, the right to an education, the right to freedom of expression, and the right to be free from torture and persecution.

Despite this resolution, violations of human rights regularly occur throughout the world. To prevent such violations, the UN recognized the need to educate citizens

about their rights and about the need to defend the rights of others. In 1974, the UN released an article titled "Education for International Understanding, Cooperation and Peace, and Education Relating to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms" to formally endorse the teaching of human rights and to convene an international congress in 1978 to develop a consensus definition and recommendations for HRE. These recommendations included recognizing that HRE must begin early in childhood, when the fundamental elements of respect and empathy begin to develop. Furthermore, such information must be presented in a continuum, in both formal and informal education settings, and include familial engagement and integration among all subject areas and fields. The information should be reflective of both historical human rights events as well as modern applications. Ultimately, the congress concluded that HRE must serve to both empower the individual with the knowledge of his or her own rights and also strengthen the individual's commitment to defend the rights of others.

Following the 1978 Congress, focus on HRE continued to grow. In 1985, the U.S.-focused National Council for the Social Studies dedicated a groundbreaking edition of its journal to HRE, declaring it a critical component of social studies education. The same year, Amnesty International created the Human Rights Educators Network, which declared HRE as the fourth R of education beyond reading, writing, and arithmetic. By 1993, HRE was a predominant focus at the World Conference on Human Rights, and in 1995, the UN declared a *Decade of Human Rights Education*. Most recently, in 2010, the UN passed the Declaration of HRE and Training. Though support and resources for HRE continue to grow, HRE is yet to be firmly established within the formal education system.

Goals of HRE

Advocates for HRE argue that teaching human rights and especially their application to modern issues—including racial discrimination, bullying, and educational inequality—can lead to a more civil learning environment in which youth better understand their role in defending the rights of their peers. HRE has seven primary functions: to help students (1) critically assess their own experiences; (2) change attitudes about biases and rights; (3) change behaviors for and toward others; (4) clarify their values; (5) form cohesive communities; (6) analyze historical and current events from a human rights perspective; and (7) strategize and implement strategies to become defenders of others' rights. Ultimately, HRE aims to develop students' efficacy to defend their rights and the rights of others, both in local and global contexts.

Although more evaluative work on HRE is needed, emerging research suggests that HRE has a significant impact on students' attitudes and behaviors, particularly with regard to bullying and harassment, civic engagement, and community service. HRE promotes a more positive school and classroom climate where students feel a commitment to respecting as well as to defending the rights of others.

HRE in the Classroom

HRE typically involves a series of lessons based around historical examples in which human rights were denied or violated and the role of all participants—the oppressors, the oppressed, and the bystanders in the situation. Some HRE curricula, such as the Speak Truth to Power (STTP) program from the Robert F. Kennedy Center for Human Rights, focus on individuals who played a role in challenging human rights violations and became human rights defenders. In doing so, HRE serves to highlight that anyone can and should defend human rights. Although often taught in the context of social studies, HRE is not limited to any single discipline or academic subject. HRE advocates encourage the integration of HRE across subjects to encourage connections and further learning.

For HRE to be effective, it needs to be taught in a context of free expression and shared thinking, allowing students to reflect on their own experience and attitudes, as well as learning from others. Content needs to be tailored and relevant to individual interests and experiences and needs to engage students in active learning. Often, HRE involves creative and interactive activities requiring students to think critically within a group context. For example, STTP is often introduced to students through a series of monologues in which students recite human rights defenders' words in order to understand those defenders' experiences.

Modern human rights education programs also help students to view their experiences through a human rights lens. For instance, most students experience bullying at some point in their education, whether as a target, the aggressor, or as a witness. Because bullying can have serious consequences for students, often resulting in those students divorcing from the educational system, bullying can be seen as violating students' right to an education. It can also be seen as violating students' rights to be free from discrimination and persecution. Increasingly, HRE curricula are embracing issues like bullying to help students understand the nature of human rights violations. For example, Facing History and Ourselves (FHO) partnered with the creators of the film *Bully* in 2012 to help students explore their

experiences with bullying and to establish safer schools in the context of an HRE framework.

Connecting the many international human rights violations to local events can help empower students to take action. As part of the STTP curriculum, teachers have worked with their students to organize Human Rights Days at their school, host speakers, and start Defender Clubs. Some teachers have engaged students in video and song contests, requiring students to relate the stories of historical human rights defenders to issues they face on a regular basis in their schools and communities. Previous examples have included domestic violence, stop and frisk, sex trafficking, and bullying.

Conclusion

Among the benefits of human rights education is its value in promoting positive school learning environments. The primary goal of human rights education is to develop critical thinking and empathy about human rights and to develop efficacy to defend against human rights violations. HRE uses historical and current examples of human rights violations and defenders of human rights to instill values, particularly the values of respect and community living. In doing so, HRE can help reduce bullying and harassment, promote community living, and instill a positive classroom and school climate.

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See also Caring Approaches; Character Education; Just Community; Service Learning

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HUMOR

A quick look at the daily interactions of an individual is likely to confirm the importance of humor in everyday life. Humor has been called a *ubiquitous human*

activity, and developmental psychologist George Scarlett points out how humor appears very early and shows mastery of rules by breaking rules in playful ways:

Babies put shoes on their heads and laugh. Toddlers delight in calling cows cars, and preschoolers think asking for peanut butter and potato sandwiches is hilarious. Some preschoolers also take pleasure in telling scatological jokes (“You poo in your pants”), humor that foreshadows the iconoclastic humor of adolescents. At every stage, kids’ hilarity arises from breaking rules of some kind—rules of custom, propriety, or language. (2008, n.p.)

Given the omnipresence of humor, it is not surprising that educators and researchers have been investigating the role of humor in education. On the one hand, teachers and students claim that humor can lead to a more relaxed classroom atmosphere. Hence, there are numerous publications promoting the use of humor in education. However, inappropriate humor, excessive humor, or misinterpreted humor may have the opposite effect, alienating students or the teacher and thereby creating an uncomfortable classroom atmosphere. The danger of misinterpreted humor cannot be underestimated in the classroom since the teacher holds *power* over the students, at least in terms of being the one who grades the students’ performance and, in most cases, also being the perceived figure of authority.

This entry explores the following overarching question: What is the role of humor in classroom management? Readers are encouraged to draw conclusions about the complexity of the role of humor in classroom management based on humor research. It is hoped that this will facilitate readers’ evaluation of related literature and consequently allow them to apply these findings in the classroom while also observing (and reflecting upon the role of) humor in their teaching.

Humor has been researched in a variety of contexts, including the fields of education, linguistics, communication, medicine, business, psychology, statistics, research design, and others. Because humor is such a multifaceted and complex phenomenon, humor researchers do not agree on one definition of humor. Given the lack of an agreed-upon definition and because research from different backgrounds and with differing conceptualizations of humor is considered, this entry views humor in the broadest sense, including nonverbal and verbal humor, playful behaviors, and intended and nonintended humor. Similarly, classroom management is defined broadly here as *creating good learning environments*.

Humor in Education

There is little research investigating the effects of humor on classroom management. What is known from research findings is that there is a lot of variability in how much humor is used by instructors and students. In some classrooms, humor is used routinely, whereas in other classrooms, humor is used rarely or not at all. Some studies show that boys tend to use more aggressive humor than girls. There are also differences in how boys and girls rate different types of humor. However, one of the biggest factors when talking about humor and classroom management is age—as there are notable changes in humor along the continuum from early childhood to adolescence (as noted in the opening quote).

What is known about humor and classroom management is that a good many students and teachers believe that humor can be an effective teaching tool. There are a number of publications investigating relationships between humor and positive outcomes in education and others providing advice on how to use humor in teaching and, more specifically, as a classroom management tool. It makes intuitive sense that appropriately used humor can have positive effects on students’ mood and on the students’ relationship with each other and the teacher. Given the complexity of humor, it comes as no surprise that researchers have found it difficult to show a direct link between humor and learning and between humor and effective classroom management. Nevertheless, there are at least experience-based reasons for linking humor to learning and to classroom management.

As connections between classroom management and humor are explored, the following constitute the main concerns:

1. General ways of using humor in classrooms
2. Functions of humor identified in the literature
3. Role of age in the development of humor
4. Relationship between humor and immediacy in the classroom
5. Implications for humor as classroom management tool
6. Dark side of humor, one to stay away from in classroom management

Ron Berk identified five ways in which humor occurs in the classroom—some ways being more conducive to effective classroom management than others. *Spontaneous humor* occurs naturally and can therefore not be practiced or prepared. Another type of humor is *prepared jokes*, which can be oral or written. The advantage of prepared jokes is that teachers can be

intentional about the connection between what they want to teach and humor, thereby maximizing its effect. Teachers can also observe students' reactions and see whether jokes catch students' attention or, if used in connection with classroom management, if they have the intended behavioral effects. A *humorous story or anecdote* can also serve this purpose. For example, a teacher can tell a story from his or her own life that involves humor and that helps to get a specific point across. The fourth way of infusing humor in the classroom involves the use of *cartoons*. By having a folder of humorous cartoons, one may display a cartoon when explaining a tough concept to the class. In classroom management, cartoons may show consequences of not adhering to classroom rules in a humorous way.

Finally, there is also *offensive humor* (e.g., put-downs having to do with race, gender, sexuality, or religion). Offensive humor can also contain sexual profanity or vulgarity or may ridicule physical disabilities or characteristics (e.g., blond, chubby, pregnant) or mental handicaps or sensitive issues (e.g., personal tragedies, divorce). Although generally the success of humor depends strongly on the context of each situation, teachers are well advised not only to avoid using offensive humor but to make it clear to students that such humor has no place in the classroom and will not be tolerated.

Having explored some ways in which humor occurs and/or can be implemented in the classroom, lets us now investigate what humor research has to say about the possible functions of humor.

Functions of Humor

Salvatore Attardo, a leading researcher on humor, has distinguished three different functions of humor, namely, humor for (1) social management, (2) decommitment, and (3) defunctionalization. All three functions are relevant with regard to classroom management.

Humor functioning for *social management* includes humor having to do with controlling others, conveying social norms, ingratiating oneself with another, managing a conversation, and otherwise using humor to control, shape, or facilitate dyadic or group functioning. It is clear in this context that humor can have positive effects on classroom dynamics and in group relationships if it is used thoughtfully. *Decommitment* describes humor that functions to step back from a behavior or a statement. By using humor in this way, the speaker can say that he or she was *only kidding*, which can save face for both speaker and the other. Given humor's being by definition nonserious, it can sometimes serve the function of *mediation*—by allowing the speaker to step back from being responsible, at least to some degree, in order to test otherwise socially unacceptable behaviors or

comments. *Defunctionalization* refers to playful or ludic uses of language, for instance, teasing or humor that can sometimes convey slight criticism or disapproval that, if done thoughtfully, can provide good feedback for certain students. An analysis of the use of humor in foreign language courses at the university level and at the middle school level showed that instructors at the university level used this kind of humor for classroom management. Rather than alienating students with a direct reprimand, the instructor used humor to point out mildly disruptive behavior.

Development of Humor

The sense of humor and the process of humor production have been found to change in the course of a life span, especially during the periods of childhood and adolescence when cognitive and emotional functions are developing. Children's linguistic skills are of interest in verbal humor, such as irony and puns. The individual's ability to understand two incongruous realities is also important since humor often is based on two incongruous scripts that need to be resolved. An example of such an incongruity would be an ironic statement such as "Chilly today!" when in fact the temperature is rather high. There is research showing that preferences for certain types of humor change over the course of people's lives although there are also gender differences as well as individual and cultural differences in humor sense and production.

Thus, it becomes clear that teachers need to take their students' abilities as well as the specific context into account when using humor.

Humor and Classroom Immediacy

It is assumed that teachers who have good relationships with students tend to have fewer classroom management problems. *Immediacy* is a term coined to describe the *perceived* distance between the teacher and the students. Therefore, students who feel that there is more immediacy between them and their teacher might be more inclined to adhere to classroom rules.

Research studies have pointed to a positive relationship between the use of humor and immediacy in the classroom, and researchers have noted that teachers consider humor to be a useful tool to reduce anxiety and tension. For example, a teacher may use a bit of humor in directions to the class or in a mathematical computational problem. Or, in the case of a science course, asking students to detect whether the amount of rain and umbrella use is a positive or negative relationship. As such, humor can help the teacher and students deal with potentially stressful situations.

Although student-initiated humor can be seen as a challenge or even as disruptive, research shows that such humor can provide those students for whom English is a second language with the opportunity to create a *safe house* in which to renegotiate power relationships and classroom identities. This has implications for best practices in other areas as well. For example, in any class, students should have a safety zone in which to pursue learning and not to fear making errors. If this safety zone is not present, students might be more likely to act out and disrupt the classroom.

Implications of Humor for Classroom Management

It is crucial to consider the specific context in which teachers want to apply humor as a classroom management tool. Some subject areas and topics within these areas might lend themselves more to the use of humor than others. Some groups of students might be more open to the use of humor than others. Generally, however, humor has the potential to be used successfully in connection with classroom management in the following ways:

Humor can help students bond with each other, thereby creating a *safe house* for them to negotiate their identities. For example, consider starting a school year where two or three peers get to meet and share something funny that happened over the summer. In this way, the teacher is beginning to have a culture of bonding if an experience around respect and trust is created.

Humor can lead to more immediacy between the teacher and the students. A classroom in which students and the teacher *feel closer* to each other might require less classroom management. For example, a funny story shared by the teacher can help students see the teacher from a different perspective.

Humor can help in the discussion of taboos and difficult topics as well as when addressing inappropriate behavior. Humor can facilitate discussions of taboos or difficult topics. By using humor, teachers can safely distance themselves from what they said. So, adding humor so that students can also broach subjects they would otherwise deem risky is advisable. Similarly, teachers and students alike can also employ humor for social management when they point out inappropriate behaviors.

Humor can lead to a more relaxed classroom atmosphere. Appropriate use of humor can help students feel more comfortable since humor can save face and alleviate stress. Teachers and students might thereby cope with difficult situations more easily. A humorous environment that is also sensitive to the students' needs could create a feeling of being safe and part of a group, limiting negative tensions and fostering a generally positive learning environment. Reducing the individual student's

or the whole classroom community's level of anxiety in turn might have the consequence that students feel more inclined to contribute to the group's well-being.

A Cautionary Note

Humor has the potential to be ill-used in connection with classroom management. Teachers are advised to use discretion and keep the following points in mind:

If humor is used inappropriately, students may be offended, thus creating tension in the classroom and leading to an environment perceived as unsafe.

Studies have found certain types of humor problematic in classrooms, especially making fun of students and joking about serious situations. Although there is no conclusive evidence that these kinds of humor invariably have negative consequences, it is important to use these types of humor with sensitivity and caution.

Humor can be misunderstood and thereby have no effect or have the opposite of the intended effect.

Humor may lead to the teacher not being taken seriously. The use of humor can create immediacy, which has been described as a feeling of closeness between students and teacher. However, excessive humor, or humor that is irrelevant to the subject matter, can have the opposite effect. The resulting atmosphere may cause some students to respond by acting in a manner inconsistent with classroom rules.

Humor can get out of control, especially if students do not understand the limits. The saying that *laughter is contagious* is fairly well known. Teachers have also probably been in situations in which excessive humor has been disruptive. Accordingly, effective use of humor in classroom management depends on the teacher's good judgment.

Conclusion

Researchers have identified the benefits of integrating humor within the classroom to assist with classroom management while also pointing to possible risks of using humor. Although there is no simple formula or universal approach for the effective use of humor in classroom management, being cognizant of humor research can facilitate the creation of a positive learning environment. Observing classrooms with special attention to successful and failed humor can create more awareness of the effectiveness of humor in education and as a classroom management tool.

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See also *Climate: School and Classroom; Teacher-Student Relationships*

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IDENTITY

Identity—how individuals come to think and feel about themselves—has been a focus in discussions dating back to ancient Greece and the religious directive to Know Thyself. The directive suggests that knowing oneself is a task, not a given, and so the first question to ask with respect to identity is, “What is the nature of this task of developing, finding, or otherwise coming to understand one’s identity?” A second related task is, “How are we to evaluate success or failure on this task of developing an identity?” And finally, with respect to identity and classroom management, a third central question is, “How are teachers to support positive, healthy identity development in students?”

Nature of the Task: Identity Development

Constructing a positive identity rests on the possibility of individuals attaining a degree of self-awareness such that they can self-evaluate. In the vast literature on identity development, this self-awareness emerges gradually and takes different forms, forms that define qualitatively different ways individuals experience themselves and their identities.

These different forms have been articulated by Dan McAdams as one’s self experienced first as an *agent*, then as an *actor*, and finally as an *author*. This simple trio overlays a complex process whereby children, over time, come to have an *I* observing, evaluating, and eventually explaining a *me*—a distinction made famous in William James’s way of conceptualizing identity development. Simply put, the *I* is the subjective self that observes and evaluates and, later on, explains the *me* as a distinct, tangible, objective self.

As agents, young children first experience themselves as someone who makes things happen (“I built a fort,” “I jumped very high”). As actors, older children begin to have aspirations (“I want to be a soccer player,” “I want to be a ballerina,” “I want to be popular,” “I want to be smart”), which brings self-esteem into the identity mix as older children focus on how they measure up in relation to their aspirations.

It is on stepping into adolescence that identity become the question “Who am I?” because one now begins to realize that identity entails an individual construction that can go in many different directions depending on choice, but also depending on the givens of the self (abilities, gender, body type, etc.), as well as on circumstances (social class, ethnic background, religious tradition, etc.) and an unknown future. All this uncertainty can stimulate a sense of oneself being destined to tell and retell a narrative that becomes one’s identity.

Identity and Context

The developmental sequence (from *agent* to *actor* to *author*) unfolds not as a gene-driven or self-driven process but rather as an incredibly complex process of interactions among a host of factors both internal and external. Being a girl, for example, is to forge an identity in a context different than that for a boy. Being poor is to forge an identity in a context different than that for the economically privileged. Being in an individualistic culture where the goal is to stand out (be unique and special) is to forge an identity in a context different from being in a collectivist culture where the goal is to fit in (live in harmony with).

Context, as Erik Erikson has taught us, also creates ambivalence that can become a dominant theme in identity development. Ambivalence can be about anything that matters to an adolescent—including race, gender,

body type, religious background, and sexuality, to name a few. Identity development then becomes a process of coming to terms with ambivalence, of feeling more comfortable with one's race, gender, body type, and so on.

Supporting Positive, Healthy Development

Perhaps second only to parents (or grandparents, in many families), teachers bear a major responsibility for supporting positive, healthy development in children and youth. However, while strong attachments and powerful processes in family relations often lead children to identify with at least one parent or family member, the teacher–student relationship makes supporting identity mostly a matter of what teachers say and do with a student and what kind of classroom community and school community teachers are able to build.

A teacher can support identity development by saying and doing things in ways that support the young child as agent, the older child as actor, and the adolescent as an emerging author. It is no small matter for a teacher to mirror or reflect what a young child is doing or making: “I see you building a fort,” “I see you with your friends having fun with the clay.” The identity of being an agent—someone who makes interesting or good things happen—is helped considerably when a teacher notices.

In a similar vein, a young child tearful over morning separations from a parent can be helped considerably by making him or her realize that he or she can be an agent when alone. Helping a tearful child to get involved in building, drawing, or whatever is, in effect, changing the child's experience of self from being dependent on someone to being able to function as an agent on one's own. In short, each and every opportunity a teacher has (and there are many) to acknowledge, encourage, and support a child toward being an agent is, in effect, supporting that child's positive, healthy identity development.

With older children, teachers need to continue supporting the child's sense of self as an agent, but now the task is to talk helpfully about attributions in the face of challenges and especially failures—teaching children that struggling and failure need not be attributed to lack of ability. In short, older children can forge a positive, healthy identity by the way teachers speak about success and failure.

In addition, teachers can support positive, healthy identity development in older children by finding positives even in instances of misbehaving. With a commitment to positive reframing, teachers can avoid supporting negative identities (class clown, ADHD kid, class bully, etc.) and instead support positive, healthy identity development even with the most challenging students.

Finally, teachers are able to support positive, healthy identity development in older children when their classrooms emphasize the importance of everyone becoming an active citizen who cares for others and keeps the classroom community a safe place. In a classroom community, students become respectful of cultural differences—through a culturally sensitive curriculum but also through the way everyone is taught to treat one another. In sum, a just and caring classroom community can go a long way toward supporting a positive, healthy identity in a child old enough to experience being cared for and caring as supporting self-esteem and an identity that is positive and healthy.

With adolescents, teachers can support identity development by attending to issues around agency and self-esteem; in addition, teachers can provide lots of opportunities for adolescents to investigate and explore alternative pathways to function in adultlike ways. School arts programs where there are products and performances, literary discussions of compelling heroes, history lessons on inspiring leaders from different cultural backgrounds—in short, the school life itself can become a support for positive, healthy identity development—but only if the variety of activities and practices have in them the values, and the *balance* of values, that define what is positive and healthy in an adult. For example, a history lesson can, in discussing the life of Abraham Lincoln or Martin Luther King, Jr., go beyond simply outlining important events and accomplishments to bring to life (through stories) the character of the person—and in so doing help students to acquire important models for their own positive, healthy identity development. Finally, with respect to school life and identity development, few would question that supporting students achieving is important, but so too is supporting their creativity, caring, and a host of other values that in many school communities get subordinated to the value of achieving. Students being actively supported to be actively creative and caring accentuates their being agents for good—and in ways that express their own special, positive identities.

The stories adolescents are beginning to tell about themselves and the futures they are beginning to reach out for are best supported by stories of teachers who cared for them. In short, teachers can have a profound effect on adolescents and their identity development, but only if they get to know their students and show care.

Conclusion

Identity development is central to becoming a healthy, caring, and responsible adult—and teachers can play a vital role in supporting identity development. That is the theme of a host of literature on identity development

from a variety of approaches and theoretical traditions (including postmodern approaches, psychodynamic theory, and symbolic interaction theory). By attending to students'—young children, older children, and adolescents—need to be supported in their identity development—as agents, actors, and authors, respectively—teachers can be instrumental in students' long-term positive and healthy development.

One last observation: The concept of identity is useful for understanding not only students' needs but also what teachers need in order to teach well. Because teachers are themselves persons with particular identities, they need to be comfortable being who they are while also being aware of the fact that who they are will inevitably affect diverse groups of students in diverse ways. In short, the job of teaching includes working to become a model of positive character and healthy identity—so as to support the positive identity development of not just some students but potentially of all students regardless of differences having to do with culture, race, language, or ability.

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See also Age and Classroom Management; Developmental Approaches

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IMMIGRANT CHILDREN AND FAMILIES

Children of immigrant families now make up a substantial portion of the American school-age population, and these students will one day comprise a large proportion of the American workforce. Many states not historically common places for immigrant settlement, such as Tennessee, South Dakota, and Nevada, as well as many small towns and suburban areas, are experiencing a rapid growth in immigrants. This means that schools

must quickly adapt to serving a unique group of children and families, often with little funding or professional development.

This entry describes some of the challenges facing immigrant children and their parents, presents ideas for teachers on using culturally responsive classroom management with immigrant children, and concludes with a discussion of strategies for fostering immigrant family engagement.

Challenges for Immigrant Children and Families

Teachers should be aware of the many challenges immigrant children and families face. Although the circumstances for migration vary (some have come to the United States to escape war, while others have come to fill technical jobs requiring high levels of education), many immigrant families live in poverty. Many children of undocumented immigrants who are now U.S. citizens and entitled to public benefits (such as healthcare) do not receive them at all.

Most children of immigrants live in households where no adult speaks English, and therefore children may enter school with little knowledge of the English language. This challenge is magnified for children who enter middle or high school without English literacy skills.

Immigrant children may face stereotyping, both positive and negative, from teachers or school administrators, which can exert pressure on them. For example, an Asian immigrant student may not receive adequate scaffolding in math activities if the teacher holds the assumption that all Asian students are strong in math. This could be especially problematic if the student lacks the English skills to comprehend word problems.

At the same time, immigrant families bring with them many strengths, such as an emphasis on strong family connections and cultural values for positive child outcomes. For example, the Latino value of *educación* encompasses both academic achievement and moral development, so children of Latino immigrants receive important messages from their families about good behavior and student effort in school. Children of immigrant families are also more likely to be bilingual and display cognitive skills. The following sections address how to use classroom management strategies that are culturally responsive to immigrant students and how to foster family partnerships with immigrant parents.

Culturally Responsive Classroom Management

When working with students from immigrant families, teachers should make every effort to familiarize themselves

with their students' cultural backgrounds in order to contextualize their lesson plans and avoid using jargons or examples that are specific to the United States. The use of manipulatives, video clips, and multiple examples can be helpful when introducing a new topic to these children. Teachers should ask immigrant students to give examples from their home country culture. Group activities involving social interaction can help immigrant students feel more integrated in the classroom, and while assigning students to groups, teachers should ensure that children do not segregate themselves into groups based on their country of origin or linguistic background (e.g., all of the U.S.-born children in one group, and all of the Spanish speakers in another).

For learning about students' families and cultural backgrounds, home visits, phone calls, or an identity project at the beginning of the school year can be a good first step in an approach to culturally responsive classroom management. An inclusive classroom environment can help immigrant students feel more comfortable; for example, asking students to bring flags of their home countries (or for U.S.-born students, the home countries of their ancestors) for display alongside the American flag in the classroom.

During reading or vocabulary activities, teachers can ask immigrant students to teach the class how to say words and make sentences in their first language. Teachers may also find it useful to ask immigrant students to write journal entries with specific prompts, such as "What do you want your teacher and classmates to know about your culture?"

Fostering Immigrant Family Engagement

Classes function best when teacher-parent communication is open and frequent. Additionally, immigrant youth who have to deal with cultural and linguistic discontinuities between school and home may find it particularly comforting when the school-home link is strong.

However, immigrant parents face a number of barriers. For example, many immigrant parents with low levels of English proficiency feel apprehensive about interacting with teachers. Although some schools have bilingual staff or interpreters, this is particularly challenging for non-English-speaking parents who are a minority (such as fewer Chinese-speaking parents among a large group of Spanish- and English-speaking parents).

When communication is a barrier, teachers should talk to school administrators about arranging someone to translate newsletters or lists of weekly homework assignments into the native languages of immigrant parents. Teachers should avoid using specifically American terms that have no literal meanings, such as open house, field trip, or PTO, and should

include a brief description of school events when inviting parents to the school.

In many cultures, teachers are highly revered figures, so some immigrant parents may believe it is rude or disrespectful to ask questions of the teacher. For this reason, teachers should take as many opportunities as possible to reach out to parents and encourage them to ask questions. Teachers can reach out to parents to remind about upcoming programs such as back-to-school nights, parenting classes, ESL classes for parents, and after-school programs for children. Keeping parents informed about school events and their child's progress (through phone calls, notes home, or in-person conversations) is one of the best ways to gain the trust of immigrant families.

Today, the number of mixed-status families in the United States is growing, in which parents have no documentation status while their children are U.S. citizens. Documentation status is generally not discussed by teachers and administrators owing to the taboo and legal nature of the subject. Understandably, many immigrant parents do not want their undocumented status to be disclosed to their children's teachers. However, the legal status of students' parents is something schools must talk about, as it may affect not only the immigrant child's life at home (in terms of socioeconomic status and language use) but also the way the parents are involved with the school. In a qualitative study by Gustavo Pérez Carreón and colleagues, one undocumented Mexican father described his lack of legal status as a constant uncertainty and stressor that affected all aspects of his life, including his involvement in his children's education. He explained his situation as a paradox: He was wanted by the factory because he would work for a low wage, and wanted at his children's school by the teachers, but rejected by the rest of society as an undocumented immigrant.

Research has begun to discuss the negative impact that parents' undocumented status can have on children's outcomes via parental stress, as this stress may be translated into less and lower-quality parental involvement at home. Teachers should be sensitive to the fact that many of their students may be growing up in families with precarious legal situations, and the school and classroom should be a safe place for parents to visit.

Conclusion

Classroom management is always challenging and may present particular difficulties when a teacher has a diverse classroom with many immigrant and linguistic minority students. However, these diverse classrooms also present excellent opportunities for teaching about diversity and creating a multicultural community of learners. Some of

the best teaching methods for immigrant children are those that show value for students' cultures, simple activities and prompts that allow students to discuss their background, and small group activities that require communication between children from different backgrounds. Scaffolding teaching with varied examples and inviting examples from students' home cultures may also help to create a welcoming classroom.

Clearly, engaging immigrant families with school activities can be challenging for the families as well as the teachers. This can be even more challenging if teachers have little or no training in how to create family-school connections. However, simple acts of outreach, such as notes or phone calls, can help parents to understand that they are valued partners in their children's education. Classrooms will function best when immigrant parents and students feel that their unique backgrounds are an asset, and not a liability, to the classroom.

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See also Cultural Diversity; Culturally Pluralistic Classrooms; Linguistic Diversity and Classroom Management; Parent-School Collaboration; Urban Schools

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IMPULSE CONTROL

Impulse control in the classroom refers to a student's ability to meet classroom expectations when faced with potentially disruptive internal states (e.g., being tired, anxious, depressed, hungry) and external stimuli (e.g., other members of the class, eye-catching posters on the wall, announcements over the intercom, a ticking clock). Impulsivity, or the lack of impulse control, may be the result of any number of causes, including a child's

level of maturity, anxiety, or as an expression of a specific disorder.

The goal of teaching impulse control is to have students learn how to manage their own impulses in constructive ways, even when the tasks are demanding or when students are experiencing strong emotions. This entry discusses basic structures and practices that can be employed in the classroom to help students learn to control their impulses, including for students with greater difficulties. A brief overview of concepts related to impulsive behaviors in the classroom is provided, along with information on teaching students how to regulate their own behaviors.

Basic Structures and Practices That Benefit All Students

Clear Expectations

It is possible to create a classroom culture that is both structured and accommodating of students with varied behavioral and academic needs. To achieve this, a teacher should make clear to the classroom all expectations, goals, and consequences. Visual cues posted around the room, such as a list of five positively stated class rules, or a child-specific reminder taped to a student's desk will constantly reiterate class expectations. Likewise, posting student progress in earning a reward on a behavior chart can serve as a useful reminder of progress made so far. Making clear to students the consequences of not meeting the expectations, and follow-through on the part of the teacher, is essential.

Engagement

Keeping students engaged in the lesson and quickly redirecting them back to it can increase students' focus as well as reduce the occurrence of unrelated behaviors. Giving students more opportunities to respond, such as using response cards that require all students to answer a question simultaneously, allows teachers to check in with the whole group quickly. Also, getting students actively involved in their learning can help maintain engagement. By giving students more options, such as what topic they choose to study, or in what order they prefer to complete assignments, they may be willing to take on more ownership of their learning.

Positive Reinforcement

Most teachers recognize the importance of positive reinforcement in classroom. However, this powerful strategy remains underutilized as a tool for classroom management. All students exhibit appropriate behaviors

most of the time. Therefore, teachers can find some ways of praising students for meeting classroom expectations, while also ignoring less impactful instances of undesirable behavior. Positive reinforcement should be delivered in the moment, at a high rate, and with an enthusiastic tone. Specific strategies for positively reinforcing appropriate behavior include classwide or individual reward systems, including teachers giving verbal praise when students earn points, but may also include helping students to delay gratification as they work toward a longer-term goal.

Point-based systems should always be designed so that students will be successful and so that even when the target behavior is that of only one or a few students, the whole class can partake in the reinforcer. A system in which points are earned for a classwide goal only when one particular student meets expectations can be a valuable tool for building relationships between the target student and his or her classmates. As participants in the efforts to help a particular student who has been behaving inappropriately, the other students in the room can learn both to ignore inappropriate behaviors and to encourage and share in the success of appropriate behaviors.

Addressing Impulsive Behavior

Awareness of Antecedents and Consequences

Teachers may be better able to manage students with impulsive behaviors. When teachers have a record of the situations or stimuli that trigger impulsive acts, they could prevent these situations from happening or intervene with a verbal cue or a visual prompt before a student loses control. Likewise, when teachers can determine what the students will gain as a result of their behaviors, they could show students a productive way to achieve what they need. Eventually, the goal is to teach students an appropriate alternative route to the same end.

Teaching Students How to Control Their Own Impulses

As students mature, they are typically able to take an active role in controlling their impulses. Teachers can help students understand their own needs and what triggers their impulsive behaviors. Teachers can also help students set their own goals, as well as provide frequent reinforcement as students take steps toward these goals.

Many students need a significant amount of practice to control their feelings and behaviors. They may be able to evaluate a past situation, recognize that they lost control, and even take responsibility for their actions

before they are able to stop themselves from losing control in the moment. One strategy for teaching students how to evaluate their behavior is simply to ask them to rate how they behaved during each lesson on a scale from 1 to 3. While students are just beginning to use this strategy, the teacher can also rate the student's behavior. At the end, students can be rewarded for reflecting on their behavior, whether or not they met classroom expectations.

When students recognize that they are about to lose control, teachers can either physically remove them from the stressful or upsetting situation or simply allow them to participate in a different activity until they can control their impulses and calm down. As students improve self-awareness and impulse control, teachers can begin to reinforce them only when they both rate their behavior accurately and when their behavior is appropriate—because self-awareness allowing for impulse control and not just good behavior defines our goal for students.

Concluding Comments

For students to learn to control their impulses, they should be taught how to respond to their thoughts and feelings so as to guide their actions in appropriate, positive ways. Students who are simply told not to do something are given no guidance in how to respond to their own thoughts and feelings. Nor do they get guidance to develop skills to act in appropriate ways. Developing the awareness and skills necessary to control impulses under various pressure situations can be a difficult process for students. Therefore, encouraging even the smallest steps in the right direction is necessary for success.

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See also Applied Behavior Analysis; Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder; Disruptive Behaviors, Positive Approaches to; Emotion Regulation; Executive Function and Behavior Problems; Functional Behavioral Assessment; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; Reinforcement

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INCLUSIVE CLASSROOMS

Inclusive education is an approach to schooling in which students with different kinds of disabilities and learning needs are educated in classes with typically developing students and students without disability. In an inclusive arrangement, students who need additional supports and services spend most of their time with their nondisabled peers rather than in separate classrooms or schools. This entry begins with a brief consideration of the ways inclusive education has been defined and an exploration of its roots in broader movements for civil rights in democratic societies. This is followed by a discussion of the challenges in managing an inclusive classroom, along with several strategies that can help teachers address these challenges through the creation of a culture of inclusion.

What Is Inclusive Education?

There is no universally accepted definition of inclusion and no consensus on a standardized set of procedures to follow in practicing inclusive education. One way to distinguish inclusion from mainstreaming, another non-segregationist approach, is that in an inclusive classroom there is a strong emphasis on meeting the diverse learning needs of all students. By contrast, mainstreaming usually means (at least in principle) everyone in the class is expected to follow one standard curriculum regardless of differences in their learning needs, or that some children are taken out of the class for a large part of the day to receive their lessons and services.

The term *inclusive education* is often used to mean the inclusion of persons with physical and mental impairments, such as sensory or mobility limitations, intellectual disabilities, learning disabilities, language disorders, behavior disorders, and autism spectrum disorders. Some educators and theorists use inclusion in a broader sense, to refer to an educational system designed to address all groups that have been marginalized in society and in schools. Thus, inclusion is sometimes envisioned as the deliberate and self-conscious structuring

of whole-school and classroom environments for easy access not only by students with impairments but also by those who face exclusion due to their ethnicity, social class, gender, culture, religion, immigration history, or other attributes. Because inclusion also has this broader meaning, it is sometimes endorsed as a means of achieving a more comprehensive form of social justice.

Advocates of inclusion argue that it is a form of schooling that puts the values of a democratic society into practice. Although there are multiple theories of democracy and numerous perspectives on how to achieve social justice, it is generally accepted that contemporary democratic societies are founded on the premise that all human beings have equal worth and should have equal rights, including access to education. Proponents of inclusion emphasize an additional democratic moral imperative, which is a responsibility to respect and respond to human diversity, including people's limitations or impairments. They contend that in order to ensure true universal access to education, a principle of equity must be followed. Inclusion is grounded in the view that such equity or fairness is best achieved by designing an educational system in which physical and social environments, curricula, teaching methods, and learning materials recognize and support students' diverse capabilities and needs.

Inclusion in the Context of Historical and Legal Trends

Inclusive education is an outgrowth of several social and political movements that emerged since the middle of the twentieth century. In the United States, the Civil Rights Movement of the 1950s and 1960s intensified awareness that even in liberal democratic societies many individuals were still being excluded from social institutions, including schools. By the late 1960s and 1970s, movements such as second-wave feminism, gay rights, and disability rights arose in order to combat other forms of exclusion due to gender, ethnicity, sexual orientation, or disability. One significant outcome of these movements, in the United States and in many other countries, was the passage and implementation of laws and policies to ensure rights and opportunities of all kinds, including access to education. In the United States, federal and state laws mandate that children with disabilities are entitled to public education and that the government and its schools must actively facilitate these opportunities. The first such federal law was the Education for Handicapped Children Act (EHA) passed in 1975. Legal theorist Martha Minow has pointed out that until the 1970s many children with disabilities did not have access to formal education, and the majority of them who attended school were

educated in separate classrooms or even segregated in special schools. During the 1970s and 1980s, owing to the passage of the EHA as well as a number of state laws, a larger percentage of children with disabilities were provided with educational opportunities and support. Much of this support continued to take the form of special education classes or schools.

In 1990, the EHA was replaced by the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA). The IDEA reflected and extended three already existing trends. First, there was a growing insistence that communities take responsibility for educating children in their neighborhood schools rather than segregating them in separate classrooms or schools. Second, there was a related demand to educate children in the least restrictive environment. Third, there was a move toward more individualized assessment of children in order to devise education plans that could accommodate each child's distinctive needs. The IDEA has undergone several revisions and expansions in the years since it was first passed.

Many countries have passed laws and instituted policies for implementing inclusion. Inclusive education has been also mandated by international and nongovernmental organizations. For example, the Salamanca Statement of the United Nations (1994) and the UNESCO Dakar World Declaration on Education for All (2000) note the importance of inclusive schooling, both as a means of ensuring access to educational opportunities for all children and as a way to combat discriminatory attitudes and to socialize rising generations to be more accepting of all types of diversity.

In addition to these social, political, and legal developments, another factor that contributes to the recent emphasis on inclusive education is the rise in the number of children with disabilities, specifically neurological and psychiatric disorders. There are more children with autism, ADHD, and other neurological impairments than in the past. However, the rise in such diagnoses appears to be a result of increased focus on assessment and early detection, along with an expansion in diagnostic categories, development of new assessment technologies, and lowering of diagnostic thresholds.

For all these reasons, many students in the United States are receiving services and are eligible for accommodations and modifications in educational settings.

Management in the Inclusive Classroom: Challenges and Strategies

Teachers want to create environments in which all students can accomplish best learning. This goal can be especially challenging in a fully inclusive classroom. Students often display widely disparate capabilities, learning styles, ways of expressing themselves, and

modes of interacting with their physical and social environments. Their abilities to focus and pay attention, sit still, make sense of and respond to social cues, and regulate themselves in response to stimulation also diverge widely. Sometimes, a student's limitations and needs become evident in the context of particular classroom activities and interactions.

Three types of challenges or dilemmas associated with inclusive education are especially relevant to classroom management. First is the challenge *to create and maintain the order, structure, and safety* for a successful learning environment. Like all other social situations, classrooms involve routinized activities and patterns of interaction. Teachers seek ways to include all their students in social rituals through which learning and community building take place; they also strive to find creative, constructive ways to handle potential disruptions. Effective management is not only about accommodating students' learning needs but also about helping them regulate their behavior. Second is the challenge *to meet the learning, social, and developmental needs of all students*, both for typically developing students and those with impairments and special needs. Here, the goal is to devise and implement academic and social curricula that can reach every child while also maximizing each individual's potential. Third is the challenge *to confront the ever-present risk of stigmatizing those who are perceived as different*. In other words, there is a need to recognize and control the many forms of literal and symbolic exclusion, even in a setting that has been devised to minimize these problems.

Creating a Culture of Inclusion

There is no perfect answer to these dilemmas, no solutions that will work for all children, and no standardized set of procedures that will fit all schools, grade levels, and situations. However, all three concerns can be addressed through the creation of a culture of inclusion. Forging this kind of inclusive classroom culture is not simply a matter of instituting particular practices, activities, or lessons. Rather, different practices and elements work together in mutually reinforcing and synergistic ways. Another feature of effective inclusion is that teachers and other adults associated with the school are able to collaborate both inside and outside of the classroom. Over time, all adults in the classroom behave like members of a well-functioning sports team: each teacher is tacitly aware of what others are doing at a given moment and is able to reflexively respond to situations. In a study of effective inclusive schools, researchers and policy specialists Thomas Hehir and Lauren Katzman found that this collaborative mentality also pervades other aspects of the school's organization: teachers,

administrators, service providers, and parents are able to work together to discern and address particular needs students might have and challenges various stakeholders might face. They pointed out that effective inclusion is facilitated by an administrator who is able to inspire and mobilize teachers, students, parents, and service providers to work together. This leader can encourage all stakeholders to discover a creative and open-minded approach to tackling challenges, as well as provide the material and human resources they need.

Three Strategies for Effective Inclusion

Three ways to address these challenges are highlighted here. They are (1) a flexible approach to giving students the support they need, (2) an integration of universal design and differentiated instruction, and (3) the normalization of the reality of human differences.

A Flexible Approach to Providing Support

For an inclusive environment to be effective, teachers and staff should be open to finding creative ways of helping a child function well in the class. The goal is to provide all children with what they need in order to accomplish best learning and to become members of the classroom community. As mentioned earlier, a school day is made up of a series of social rituals in the sense that students and teachers engage in routinized interactions that are repeated every day. In preschool and early elementary grades, these rituals can include dropoff, circle time, choice time, snack, rest time, and outdoor time. In order to participate in these rituals, some students require individualized forms of support. For example, some young children need additional sensory input in order to sit quietly or pay attention. During circle time in an inclusive class, children sit in several different kinds of seats, depending on what works best for each particular child. These seats can include rocking chairs, beanbag chairs, floor cushions, benches, or even assistant teachers' laps (in a preschool class). Other material supports that can help young children over the course of the school day include weighted vests, bear hugs (a weighted blanket in which a child can enfold herself or himself), and indoor swings to aid with sensory integration. Some children who need additional tactile or oral sensory input can also use objects such as fidget toys and chewies (gum). Some may need frequent breaks from focused or organized activities; often, a child can be taught to develop greater self-awareness so that he or she is better able to discern when an assistive object—or a break—is needed.

As teachers get to know their students' limitations and sensitivities, they often can identify situations that are likely to be difficult or overly stimulating to

students. Teachers can take preemptive steps to minimize a student's discomfort and thereby help preserve the harmony of the group. If the class is planning to go on a field trip, teachers and parents can prepare the child beforehand, explaining what to expect and rehearsing what the class will be doing. If a special assembly or performance might be overstimulating to a child, teachers can also arrange for a parent, caregiver, or other adult to be with the child. For example, during a music performance at an early elementary school, the teachers have asked a relative of a very young child with sensory integration dysfunction to be with the child. This enabled the child to attend the performance, because there was a provision for her to leave the room unobtrusively if she began to show signs of distress.

In higher grades where academic instruction takes up much of the day, students need different kinds of accommodations to overcome limitations with their learning or their ability to demonstrate what they know. For example, students with fine motor impairments can use slanted writing boards; a student who is unable to write her name can use a stamp; and a student with communication disability can use a text-to-sound (Kurzweil) machine. A visually impaired student can be permitted to get up from his chair and go nearer to the board to read what is written or displayed. All these examples underscore a few basic themes: attentiveness to children's individual needs, flexibility and openness to trying out new strategies, and a collaborative attitude.

Integration of Universal Design and Differentiated Instruction

There are many ways to adapt pedagogical techniques, curricula, and other aspects of teaching and learning to the varied needs and abilities of students. Universal design and differentiated instruction are two strategies that make schooling accessible to a wide range of learners. Much has been written about both strategies, sometimes emphasizing the differences between them. In practice, however, they intersect and can complement each other.

The term *universal design* refers to the construction of environments so that they are accessible to everyone. Although often associated with the need to make physical spaces accessible to those with motor or sensory impairments, the principle of universal design is also relevant to other aspects of education, including access to reading and other academically related activities. This can be applied to the way material objects are used, as well as to how teachers plan and execute curricula. For example, in many early elementary classes, children sign in when they arrive in the morning. This is not only a technique for teaching children to spell their own names

and read the names of others but also a ritual to help them make the transition to starting the school day. In addition, this fosters a sense of belonging to the group. Recognizing how important it is for all children to engage in this ritual, a kindergarten teacher, who had in her class several children who were unable to write their names due to fine motor impairments, arranged for all her students to sign in by spelling their names with magnetized letters placed on a board.

Universal design can also involve building an individualized approach into the way the curriculum is constructed and lessons are taught. There is an extensive literature offering guidelines on how lessons and activities can be designed so that they provide multiple ways for students with disabilities or different learning styles to access the material and to show what they have learned. This type of curricular planning and presentation is analogous to designing an elevator so that people can enter it using walkers and wheelchairs as well as by walking unassisted, and that the floor numbers are perceptible not only visually but also through touch (braille) and hearing (recorded announcements).

While the term *universal design* denotes techniques that help make academic and social aspects of school accessible to all learners, the concept of *differentiated instruction* highlights the importance of tailoring what is taught, and how it is taught, to individual students' learning styles and differences. Differentiation can involve teaching the same concepts in several different ways, so that there are multiple points of entry into the same or similar material. But it can also involve teaching substantially different material to different students. One debate within the field of inclusive education pits the view that most students can be taught essentially the same things (albeit through adapted means) against the view that some students require significantly different curricula and learning goals.

Normalizing the Reality of Human Differences

Inclusive educational practices do not deny or disavow the existence of differences, including ability differences. Rather, a key element of effective inclusion is that it makes differentiated needs and supports seem less strange or disturbing by teaching children to regard them as a routine fact of life. Thus, inclusive education is not only about improving access and opportunity for those whose impairments might otherwise limit them. It is also about making impairments less central to the way a child is viewed by others, as well as to the way she sees herself.

With younger children, one way to make ability differences and needs seem more ordinary is to allow all children in the class to familiarize themselves with the devices and services used by children with special

needs. This is a strategy employed at the Eliot-Pearson Children's School, the early elementary laboratory school of Tufts University in Massachusetts. Initially, objects designed for children with impairments or disorders (e.g., different types of seats, as well as chewies and writing boards) are made available to all of the children to explore or even to try. One advantage of this is that when children get to know each other, it is helpful to avoid associating a child's identity with his or her use of a particular type of assistive device. But the aim of inclusive education is not to induce dependency in children who do not need such adaptations. Rather, it is just the beginning of a longer process whereby, over the course of weeks, only those children who really require accommodations for their best learning come to use them. The point is not to make everything available to everyone or to deny that impairments and special needs exist. It is to routinize and normalize the fact that such differences exist, including differences in the type and amount of support students need. This is also the rationale behind another strategy used at school, a strategy related to how children receive services (e.g., occupational, physical, and speech therapy). Instead of taking a child out of the classroom, service providers often work with their clients inside the classroom. And, a child can ask a friend (who is not necessarily receiving services) to be with him when he works with a service provider.

Inclusive education is also facilitated by lessons and activities that encourage students (as well as adults) to reflect on the fact that everyone has strengths and limitations and areas to improve upon. It is also helpful to offer formal and informal lessons to promote empathy and perspective-taking. These dimensions of inclusive education are important because managing an inclusive classroom effectively has as much to do with influencing all students' sense of self and relationships, as it does with developing teaching techniques that are accessible to, and maximize the potential of, all students.

Concluding Reflections

Inclusive education has many strong proponents, yet it has also drawn criticism. A number of concerns have been raised both by educators and by parents, three of which will be noted here. First, while some advocates insist that all children can be successfully educated in this way, others raise questions about the limits of inclusion and its ability to work well for everyone, particularly as some children get into later elementary school and beyond. A second concern, which is a perennial challenge for all democratic institutions that strive for equality and fairness, is how to balance the needs of those who require extra attention and resources against the needs of typically developing children. A third concern has to do with the need for resources. In order for

inclusive education to be viable, teachers and schools need to be given sufficient financial and material resources, training, and other forms of support.

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See also Assistive Technology; Deaf Students; Differentiated Instruction; Disabilities and Classroom Management; Individuals with Disabilities Education Act; Intellectual Disabilities (Mental Retardation); Language Disorders; Learning Disabilities; Oppositional Defiant Disorder; School-Based Occupational Therapy; Sensory Integration; Severe Disabilities and Classroom Management

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reauthorized in 1990 as the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), required that public schools provide free and appropriate public education (FAPE) to meet the educational needs of students with disabilities. One of the law's central means for reaching the stated goal is the individualized education program (IEP). The IEP serves as a legal document that spells out the special education supports and services for a particular student with disability. It is created by a team consisting of educators, service providers, administrators, parents, and, when appropriate, the student who will be receiving the extra supports. The purpose of this entry is to provide an overview of the IEP, who makes up the IEP team, what are the contents of the IEP, and what is the process for developing an IEP plan.

The IEP Team

The IEP team creates, reviews, and/or revises a student's IEP. It must include (1) the parents or guardians of the student, (2) if the student is to participate in the general education environment, at least one general education teacher, (3) one special education teacher or service provider, (4) an administrator or representative of the school district or public agency, and (5) an individual who is qualified to interpret results from student evaluations. Additional, but not necessarily required, team members include (6) the student, (7) other individuals who have special expertise regarding the student, and (8) if the student is over 15 years of age—when transition services (e.g., for postsecondary education) must be included in the IEP—representatives from transition agencies.

Parents or Guardians

The parents or guardians are vital members of the IEP team. Their role includes providing information about their child's education and about his or her strengths, interests, and preferences. Parents and guardians are also able to describe how the student uses skills outside of the school setting. Parents should be full participants in IEP discussions and decisions regarding services, activities, and supports.

General Education Teacher

The general education teacher must be part of the IEP team if the student is participating in a general education classroom setting. The general education teacher should be able to share information regarding the general education curriculum, as well as what services and supports might help the student succeed in the general education classroom. The general education teacher also

INDIVIDUALIZED EDUCATION PROGRAMS

In 1975, U.S. Public Law 94-142, known as the Education for All Handicapped Children Act,

needs to be involved in the development of IEP goals, particularly behavioral goals, to ensure that appropriate IEP goals are set and will help the teacher with classroom management.

Special Education Teacher or Service Provider

The special education teacher's role is to lead the discussion regarding specially designed instruction, development of IEP goals, and suggestions for specific accommodations and/or modifications of the curriculum, as well as what assessments will be made of a student's progress in school. This role may also be filled by a special education service provider such as speech and language pathologists, occupational therapists, and physical therapists, that is, anyone providing specially designed instruction or procedures for students with disabilities. The special education teacher or service provider will be often responsible for implementing the student's IEP. This includes sharing information with other educators and service providers regarding their responsibilities for carrying out the requirements of the IEP.

Representative of the Public Agency

The IEP team includes a representative of the school district or public agency. This can be a school administrator or anyone with knowledge of special education services who is qualified to deliver or oversee the delivery of specially designed instruction. This member also needs to have the authority to commit school district or public agency resources and guarantee that services detailed in the IEP will be provided.

Individual Qualified to Interpret Evaluation Results

One member in the IEP team should be qualified to interpret student evaluation results and to discuss how these results can best be used to plan specially designed instruction and other accommodations for the student. This member is responsible for interpreting information obtained from statewide and districtwide assessments, outside evaluations, observations, and classwork samples.

Student

If the members find it appropriate, a student can participate in IEP meetings. The student can be a valuable member of the IEP team, which can help the student gain valuable experience with self-advocacy. By law, students who are 15 years and older must be invited to

participate in IEP meetings, but individual districts and agencies may require this invitation to younger students as well. The student need not attend IEP meetings, but the IEP team must ensure that there is consideration and representation of the student's interests and preferences.

Individuals With Special Expertise

The parents, district, or agency may invite other individuals with special expertise related to the student's needs. They may include paraprofessionals, other service personnel, the student's employer, and specialists from outside the district or agency. Their role is to share their expertise about the student and/or discuss how the services they provide can best meet the student's individual needs.

Representative From Transition Agencies

It may be necessary to invite representatives from agencies that provide transition services into the IEP team. If this member cannot attend the IEP meeting, then prior to the IEP meeting, the school district or agency is required to solicit feedback regarding the appropriate transition services.

Finally, and with regard to a general consideration of who constitutes the IEP team, one person may serve more than one role in a meeting. For example, it is common to have the same person serve as the special education teacher and the representative of the school district or agency. Also, it is possible for a member to be excused from attending the meeting as long as the parent and the district agree that the member's area of expertise is not being addressed in the meeting. This agreement must be documented. The member who will not be at the meeting must also submit input, in writing, before the meeting.

Contents of the IEP

Even though the format of an IEP may differ from school to school, there is specific information that must be included in each IEP, and there are goals for ensuring that IEPs are individualized to meet the needs of an individual student. All of the IEP team members play an important role in gathering and sharing information. While certain members have access to the results of assessments, grades, and classroom performance, others contribute information regarding how academic skills are used outside of the school setting, either at home or at work. That is, the team works together to create an IEP that describes the whole student. The result is an IEP that includes the following:

Present Levels of Academic Achievement and Functional Performance

Each IEP must contain a statement about the student's present levels of academic achievement and functional performance. Academic achievement describes how the student is performing and moving through the regular curriculum. Functional performance describes how the student uses skills in different situations, including situations outside of school. The IEP must also address how the student's disability influences his or her participation and progress, behaviorally as well as academically, in the general curriculum.

Measurable Annual Goals

IEP goals must set out challenges to the student (e.g., new skills to develop) that can be reasonably accomplished in a year. The purpose of an IEP goal is to increase the skills that will allow the student to be included in and advance in the general education setting. Goals can be written for academic, functional, behavioral, physical, or other educational needs. Whatever the goals, they must relate to the needs of the student and to the student's present levels of academic achievement and functional performance.

Also with respect to goals, the IEP must specify how—and how often—the student's progress will be measured and reported.

Special Education and Related Services

Each IEP has to contain a statement of the special education and related services and supports needed for the student to progress in the general curriculum. As far as possible, this statement should be based on peer-reviewed research and evidence-based practices. This statement should also be related to the material previously discussed, including the present levels of performance and the annual goals.

For example, a common support spelled out in an IEP is assistive technology to support reading classroom materials, but if previously reading had not been discussed as an area of need in the IEP, then it would be inappropriate for the IEP to suggest assistive technology to support reading. This is why the IEP should indicate how often the agreed-upon services, activities, and supports will be provided, when the services will begin, where the services will be provided, and who will deliver the services.

Participation With Nondisabled Children

The spirit behind IDEA encourages us all to be as inclusive as possible when educating children with

disabilities. That spirit is reflected in the IEP as the IEP must show how much time a student is educated with nondisabled students. If a student is not being educated with nondisabled peers, then the IEP must include a statement to explain the choice to remove the student from the general education setting. This also applies to participation in extracurricular and nonacademic situations, such as lunch, school clubs, or field trips. The IEP should also indicate ways to increase a student's participation with nondisabled peers, including academic and behavioral supports to aid in classroom management.

Participation in Statewide and Districtwide Assessments

Schools are accountable for having each and every student included in their districtwide assessments (which include statewide assessments). It is up to the student's IEP team to decide how the student will participate in districtwide assessments. The options include taking the districtwide assessments with accommodations or participating in the state's alternative assessments.

The alternative assessments allow students with significant cognitive disabilities to show progress on the same content standards as their peers, but with reduced complexity. If the IEP team decides that it would be best for the student to participate in districtwide assessments through the alternative assessments, they must include a statement explaining why the general districtwide assessments are not appropriate.

Transition Services

Beginning no later than the student's 16th birthday, the IEP must include transition activities in order to assist the student in planning for life after school. At this point, additional goals must be developed, goals that support skills focused on the student's postsecondary life, whether that relates to continuing with schooling or obtaining gainful employment. Transition services must also be included in order to provide appropriate supports for helping the student progress toward becoming an independent adult.

The IEP Process

The initial IEP meeting must be held within 30 days of a student being determined eligible for special education services. All members of the IEP team must be contacted early enough to ensure participation in the meeting. Also, every effort must be taken to schedule the IEP meeting at a time and place that suits the parents. Furthermore, the parents should know that they may invite to the meeting anyone who has special knowledge or expertise regarding their child.

The team meets and develops the IEP, which is implemented as soon as possible. The parents are given a copy of the IEP, as are educators or service providers responsible for providing services as determined by the IEP. Progress is reported to parents in the format and frequency stated in the IEP.

Once an initial IEP has been developed, although the IEP team can meet and revise the IEP at any time, additional IEP meetings must be held at least once per year. During the annual IEP meeting, progress on previous goals is reviewed and new goals are written. The new goals follow the guidelines and requirements discussed earlier. Every 3 years the IEP meeting must be held for the purpose of reevaluation. This means that additional evaluations will be conducted to find out whether the student still qualifies for special education services. While it is required that reevaluation occurs every 3 years, it can happen more often if the student's service providers or parents feel it is necessary.

Concluding Remarks

It may seem that the IEP consists of an unending litany of requirements and regulations—one that can well work to have IEP teams getting caught up in simply meeting the letter of the law without much deep thought and creativity. However, in practice, this need not be the case. Each IEP can and must be carefully developed with the specific needs of the individual student in mind. In doing so, the IEP better ensures that the public school district or agency is providing FAPE that meets the needs of the student and aids in the student's participation and success in the general curriculum. When this happens, there is a much better chance that the student grows into a productive and independent adult.

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See also Behavior Support Plans; Diagnostic and Statistical Manual (DSM); Disabilities and Classroom Management; Inclusive Classrooms

Further Readings

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INDIVIDUALS WITH DISABILITIES EDUCATION ACT

The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) provides the legal framework and foundation for special education as defined and carried out in U.S. public schools. This entry discusses IDEA's history, principles and guidelines, and central meaning and significance for the education of students with disabilities. IDEA directly addresses classroom management by regulating the use of certain disciplinary procedures when used by school district personnel and by creating a technical assistance center that disseminates information on evidence-based behavioral interventions. However, its overall impact in promoting a more inclusive and diverse classroom environment has had an enormous indirect impact on classroom management, and so understanding the IDEA is central to understanding classroom management.

History of IDEA

In the early 1970s, nearly two million students with disabilities did not receive education in public schools, and another three million students with disabilities who were admitted to public schools did not receive education that was appropriate to their needs. In many cases, families of these students were forced to look elsewhere for appropriate services, often at great expense and distance from their homes. The lack of educational programs and the haphazard nature of services for students with disabilities often led parents and advocates to seek solutions through court actions.

The Civil Rights Movement of the 1950s and 1960s encouraged parents and advocacy organizations to access the courts in an attempt to force states to provide appropriate public education that would meet the unique educational needs of children and youth with disabilities. Advocates for these children believed that if racial segregation was a denial of equal educational opportunity for racial minorities, then the exclusion of children with disabilities from schools was also a denial of equal educational opportunity.

Beginning in the early 1970s, advocates for students with disabilities began to sue states, claiming that exclusion and inappropriate educational services violated students' rights to equal educational opportunity under the U.S. Constitution. In 1972, two landmark court cases,

PARC v. Commonwealth of Pennsylvania and *Mills v. Washington D.C. Board of Education*, helped establish the right of students with disabilities to receive free and appropriate public education. Both cases resulted in schools being required to provide access to education to students with disabilities.

Within the next 2 years, 46 similar right to education cases were heard in 28 states. These cases clearly established the rights of students with disabilities to participate in publicly supported educational programs. Despite these rulings and the enactment of laws in states establishing these educational rights, many students with disabilities were still denied services, and in states that did provide educational opportunities, the amount and quality of these services varied greatly. Because of this unevenness in the educational services provided to students with disabilities, many parents, educators, and legislators believed a federal standard was needed.

Federal Legislation and the Education of Students With Disabilities

Because of the (1) challenges faced by students with disabilities and their families in their efforts to access educational services, (2) uneven attempts to provide education to these students, and (3) activism by concerned parents, the U.S. Congress began enacting legislation to ensure the educational rights of students with disabilities. In this legislation, the Congress sought to establish a federal mandatory base to create a floor of educational responsibility that cuts across state and local boundaries.

On November 29, 1975, President Gerald Ford signed into law the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (hereafter EAHCA), often referred to as P.L. 94-142. The EAHCA combined an educational bill of rights with the promise of federal financial incentives to states. It represented the most significant increase in the role of the federal government in special education to date. Through this law, the federal government offered funding to states that provided appropriate educational programs for students with disabilities who were covered by the EAHCA. To receive funding under the EAHCA, states had to pass laws and prove they were educating students with disabilities, in accordance with the principles of the EAHCA. With the passage of the EAHCA, therefore, the federal government partnered with states in educating students with disabilities. In 1990, the EAHCA was amended and renamed IDEA. Because the Congress must reauthorize parts of the IDEA every 5 years or so, the law has been amended a number of times. Important changes were made to the IDEA in 1986, 1990, 1997, and 2004. Those changes have come about in part because of the major principles or guidelines implied in the IDEA.

Major Principles and Guidelines of IDEA

Some scholars have divided the IDEA into six major principles or guidelines. This is a useful division for the purposes of discussion; however, neither the IDEA's statutory language nor the U.S. Department of Education recognizes the division of the law into these six principles or guidelines.

Zero Reject

The zero reject principle or guideline requires that all students with disabilities who are eligible for services under the IDEA receive special education services. This principle applies regardless of the severity of the disability.

States must ensure that all students with disabilities, from age 3 to 21, residing in the state who are in need of—or are suspected of having disabilities and in need of—special education and related services, are identified, located, and evaluated. A student is eligible for the IDEA if he or she has at least one of 13 types of disabilities listed under the IDEA and needs special education and related services. The categories are autism, deaf-blind, deafness, emotional disturbance, hearing impairment, mental retardation, multiple disabilities, orthopedic impairments, other health impairment, specific learning disability, speech and language impairment, traumatic brain injury, and visual impairment including blindness.

Protection in Evaluation

Before a student can receive special education and related services for the first time, he or she must receive a full and individual evaluation. Prior to conducting an evaluation for special education eligibility, however, a school district must obtain parental consent. When consent is received, the team must conduct individualized evaluation. The IDEA contains extensive procedural requirements that must be followed when conducting the evaluation. A fair and accurate evaluation is extremely important to ensure proper programing and placement.

Upon completing the administration of tests and other evaluation materials, a group of qualified professionals and the parents of the child must determine whether the child has a disability under the IDEA. Additionally, the team must determine whether the disability adversely affects a child's educational performance and so the child is in need of special education services. When an evaluation team has decided that a student qualifies for special education under the IDEA, a team is appointed to develop an individualized education program (IEP) for the student.

Free Appropriate Public Education

Students who are eligible for special education under the IDEA have the right to receive free and appropriate public education (FAPE), consisting of special education and related services that (1) are provided at public expense; (2) are under public supervision and direction and without charge; (3) meet the standards of the State Educational Agency (SEA); (4) include preschool, elementary school, or secondary school education; and (5) are provided in conformity with an IEP that meets the requirements of the IDEA.

The key to providing a FAPE is individualized programming. To ensure each student covered by the IDEA receives a FAPE, the Congress required that school-based teams develop IEPs for all students with disabilities receiving special education services. The IEP is both a collaborative process between the parents and the school, and a written document developed by a team of educators and parents of a student. The IEP describes a student's educational needs and details the special education and related services that will be provided to the student. The document also contains a student's goals and how his or her educational progress will be measured. The IEP must address the student's involvement and participation in the general education curriculum. The IDEA mandates the process and procedures for developing the IEP. At a minimum all IEPs must include (1) statements of present levels of academic achievement and functional performance in all areas of need, (2) measurable annual goals that represent 1 year's growth in all identified areas of educational need, (3) data-based procedures for monitoring students' progress by measuring growth toward achieving their goals, (4) a method of reporting students' progress to their parents, (5) special education services that will be provided to assist students to achieve their goals, and (6) supplementary services or program modifications that will assist the students when they are in the general education classroom.

A student's IEP must address both academic and functional needs; thus, if a student with disabilities exhibits problem behavior, and if the team discovers that the behaviors interfere with his or her learning or the learning of others, those behavioral needs must be addressed in the IEP. Moreover, these needs must be addressed using positive behavioral interventions and strategies.

Interestingly, this requirement in the IDEA, which was added in 1997, was one of the primary reasons that officials in the Office of Special Education Programs (OSEP) in the U.S. Department of Education decided to issue a request for proposals for a technical assistance center to provide assistance to states and school districts to implement positive behavior interventions and supports. Robert Horner and George Sugai of the University of Oregon were awarded the grant for

establishing the OSEP Technical Assistance Center on Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS). This center, which is now housed at the University of Connecticut, is in its 14th year of operation. The PBIS center now focuses primarily on schoolwide PBIS for all students and works to enhance the adoption and implementation of a continuum of evidence-based interventions to achieve academically and behaviorally important outcomes for all students (see the PBIS website for more information on the center).

Least Restrictive Environment

The IDEA mandates that students with disabilities be educated with their peers without disabilities to the maximum extent appropriate. This requirement ensures that students with disabilities are educated in the least restrictive environment (LRE).

Moreover, students in special education can only be removed from the regular classroom when the nature or severity of the child's disability means that the child cannot receive appropriate education in a general education classroom with supplementary aids and services. The exact nature of the placement, that is, the LRE for a particular student, can only be determined after the team has decided what educational services are necessary for the student to receive a FAPE. This requirement allows school districts to move students to more restrictive settings when a general education setting is not appropriate and when a more restrictive setting is needed to provide a FAPE. Thus, program appropriateness is the primary IDEA mandate, and LRE is secondary.

To ensure that students are educated in the appropriate LRE, school districts must provide a complete continuum of alternative placements ranging from less restrictive settings to more restrictive and specialized settings. The purpose of the continuum of placements is to allow school personnel to choose from a number of options when determining the most appropriate and least restrictive placement for a student. The most typical and least restrictive setting on the continuum of placements is the regular education classroom. Additional settings that must be available include special classes, special schools, home instruction, and instruction in hospitals and institutions.

As mandated by IDEA, when determining the educational placement of a child with a disability, each public agency shall ensure that the placement decision is made by a group of persons, including the parents, knowledgeable about the child, and that the placement options are made in conformity with the LRE provisions of the IDEA. The child's placement is determined at least annually and must be based on the child's IEP and be as close as possible to the child's home. Unless IEPs require some other arrangement, students may be educated in any school they would prefer to go.

Procedural Safeguards

The IDEA contains an extensive system of procedural safeguards to ensure that all eligible students with disabilities receive a FAPE. Schools must follow these safeguards when developing special education programs for students with disabilities. The purpose of these procedures is to safeguard a student's right to a FAPE by ensuring that parents are meaningfully involved in the education of their children. These safeguards include (1) prior notice, (2) informed parental consent, (3) opportunity to examine records, (4) the right to an independent educational evaluation at public expense, and (5) the right to request an impartial due process hearing.

One of the most confusing and controversial issues in special education law is the discipline of students with disabilities. The Congress addressed discipline in the IDEA amendments of 1997 by including procedural protections school personnel must afford when they discipline students with disabilities who are covered by the IDEA. The procedures were streamlined when the Congress passed the IDEA in 2004.

According to the IDEA, when a student with disabilities violates a school code of conduct, school officials may discipline the student in pretty much the same way as they discipline students without disabilities. There are, however, some notable exceptions. The primary exception includes any disciplinary procedure that effectively leads to a unilateral change of placement. A student's IEP team determines a student's placement in his or her IEP. Similarly, the IEP team decides on the student's placement. If the school personnel change a student's special education services or placement without involving his or her parents, it constitutes a unilateral change of placement. In situations when school personnel use a disciplinary procedure that effectively changes a student's placement, it may be a violation of the IDEA. The following list includes the major disciplinary provisions and rules of the IDEA:

- An illegal change of placement occurs when a student with disabilities is removed from school for more than 10 consecutive school days (e.g., suspension, expulsion).
- An illegal change of placement may occur when a student with disabilities is removed for a series of short-term removals for more than 10 cumulative days in a school year (e.g., short-term suspensions).
- A manifestation determination, in which a team decision is made regarding the relationship of a student's disability and misbehavior that led to the disciplinary sanction, must be conducted within 10 days after a student with disabilities has his or her placement changed for disciplinary reasons.
 - If a student's behavior was a manifestation of his or her disability, the student's placement cannot be changed via the use of suspension or expulsion.
 - If a student's behavior was not a manifestation of his or her disability, the student can be suspended or expelled, but the school district must continue to make FAPE available.
 - A student with disabilities who is removed from his or her placement for disciplinary reasons, that student must continue to receive educational services and work on his or her IEP goals, although in another setting.
 - When a student with disabilities is removed from his or her placement for disciplinary reasons, the school personnel must conduct a functional behavioral assessment and, if necessary, develop or revise a behavior intervention plan to address the behavior that caused the removal.
 - When a student with disabilities carries or possesses a weapon at school or a school function; knowingly possesses or uses illegal drugs or sells or solicits the sale of illegal drugs at school or a school function; or inflicts serious bodily injury on another person at school or a school function, the student may be unilaterally removed to an alternative setting for up to 45 school days.

Parent Participation

Since the early days of special education litigation, parents of children with disabilities have played a crucial role in helping schools meet the educational needs of their children. Parental participation in the development of a student's FAPE is essential for two basic reasons. First, state and federal special education law requires parent participation. When it passed the EAHCA in 1975, the U.S. Congress recognized that the receipt of special education services by children with disabilities depended, in part, on their parents' abilities to advocate on their behalf. Thus, the Congress created a set of procedural safeguards to ensure that their children would receive a FAPE. In fact, parental participation is so crucial in developing a FAPE that actions of school personnel that result in parents not being involved in the development of their child's special education program are grounds for an impartial due process hearing officer or court to rule that the student was denied a FAPE.

Conclusion

Few parents, educators, advocates, and researchers would dispute the tremendous benefits children and youth with disabilities and their families have received as a result of the IDEA. During the almost 40 years

following its passage, the IDEA has clearly met its original goal: to open the doors of public education to students with disabilities. Today, this right is ensured for all eligible students with disabilities, including children with severe and profound disabilities. The challenge of the law has now turned to increasing accountability and improving educational results for students with disabilities.

Mitchell L. Yell

See also Disabilities and Classroom Management; Government Policy and Classroom Management; Inclusive Classrooms; Individualized Education Programs; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; Schoolwide Positive Behavior Supports; Special Education Laws

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INEFFECTIVE METHODS FOR MANAGING BEHAVIOR AND CLASSROOMS

See Methods, Ineffective

INEQUITIES AND CLASS DISCUSSIONS

Equitable classrooms are learning environments where every student has access to key educational resources,

including expert teachers, personalized attention, high-quality curriculum, good educational materials, and plentiful information resources—resources that support learning at home and at school. This entry focuses on one of those resources, namely, opportunity for active participation in class discussions with a teacher. Whatever the relative importance of this resource, it should be taken seriously—because those students who readily engage with teachers in discussions about what is being taught have an advantage over those who do not. Many of those who do not readily engage with teachers do not do so despite considerable effort on the part of teachers; others, however, do not engage because they are overlooked. The discussion that follows is about those who are overlooked and what can be done to provide them with the same opportunity to engage in discussions that is afforded to students who are not overlooked.

The Problem: Unequal Participation

Most teachers perceive that they are calling on students equally when in reality they are not. Teachers do not intentionally call on particular students more often, but the reality is that students who are active and eager, even shouting out with enthusiasm during lessons, are the ones getting a teacher's attention and being called on to speak. However, having only a few students dominate classroom talk can interfere with other students' learning.

Other inequities in participation occur as well. For example, one research study reported that teachers call on and interact with boys more than with girls. Whereas another study contends that shouting out or not abiding by cultural norms of the classroom can cause certain students to be unequally targeted for discipline referrals, eliminating their opportunities to participate altogether. Some students may be perceived by teachers as not wanting to fully engage in the classroom due to certain behaviors they display and therefore are overlooked as an equal participant or they can be excluded from the class entirely.

A study conducted in an urban U.S. high school by Russell J. Skiba and colleagues concluded that students of color, and particularly African American students, received overwhelmingly harsher punishments for misbehavior than did their White counterparts. Pedro A. Noguera adds to the literature of this phenomenon with his impressions of disciplinary practices in schools and prisons:

Disciplinary practices in schools often bear a striking similarity to the strategies used to punish adults in society. Typically, schools rely on

some form of exclusion or ostracism to control the behavior of students . . . the assumption is that safety and order can be achieved by removing “bad” individuals and keeping them away from others who are presumed to be “good” and law abiding. Not surprisingly, those most frequently targeted for punishment in school often look—in terms of race, gender, and socioeconomic status—a lot like smaller versions of the adults who are most likely to be targeted for incarceration in society. (2003, pp. 342–343)

With specific regard to race, teachers are predominantly White and students are increasingly non-White. As White teachers and students of color, in some ways, possess different racialized and cultural experiences, and different repertoires of knowledge and ways of knowing both inside and outside the classroom, incongruence may serve as a roadblock for academic and social success (and for effective classroom management in the classroom). At times, teachers subconsciously make decisions in the classroom that can have a lasting negative impact on the students they teach. As Herbert Grossman noted:

Teachers praise African-American students less and criticize them more than European American students. The praise they give them is more likely to be routine, rather than feedback for a particular achievement or behavior. And when teachers praise them for specific behavior, it is more likely to be qualified (“Your work is almost good enough to be put on the board”) or, in the case of females, more likely to be for good behavior than for academic work. (1995, p. 142)

Sometimes management decisions can create inequitable interaction patterns. For example, action zone theory explains that in each classroom there are zones that provide for more teacher–child interactions. In 1990, Gail Jones conducted a study that investigated how students who had seating placements in the action zone of the classroom were called on more frequently. Findings indicated that students sitting in front and central areas in conventionally arranged classroom often experience more intensive verbal interaction with teachers and other students. These planning decisions around seating are often made unconsciously and may create inequitable participation and interactions in the classroom.

Methods for Promoting Equal Participation

When attempting to equalize participation in classroom discussions, teachers must first throw out their

preconceived notions of what students can or cannot contribute to the group. Making assumptions about students’ ability based on their class, race, or gender sets the immediate tone for inequality in the classroom.

It is critically important for teachers to take an introspective look at their own personal assumptions and biases. Taking time for personal reflection is important both personally and professionally. Individuals tend to gravitate toward others who look similar to themselves, who are like-minded, or who they find visually pleasing. The students of our classrooms are extremely diverse, and that diversity is ever increasing. Yet, our teacher population remains uncannily homogeneous, with a high majority of teachers being White, middle class, and female.

Educators must be conscious of the diversity within their classrooms to promote equity. Attending courses, workshops, or seminars focused on multicultural sensitivity would increase teacher awareness of the topic, granting the opportunity to improve their understanding of the diverse student population in which they teach. Schlosser (1992) claims that teachers must develop a relationship with their students by increasing their knowledge about the students’ home lives and cultural backgrounds. Teachers should engage with students on deeper levels rather than distancing themselves. Continuing to deepen their own knowledge about the developmental needs of their students is also recommended for increasing equity in the classroom.

To help with this process of throwing out preconceived notions, teachers can see if students from different groups are achieving at that same level on their classroom assessment. They can also look at the various participation grades given for homework, labs, and class participation and analyze the data to see if there are systematic differences in the grades they award.

Additionally, teachers can create and consistently utilize methods in their classrooms that assist them in ensuring equitable participation. One simple, inexpensive strategy to ensure that all students are called upon to participate during a lesson is for teachers to keep a container close to their instruction space that holds frozen dessert sticks with each student’s name. Instead of selecting students to answer questions by having them raise their hands to be called upon, the teacher can select a student to participate by simply pulling a random stick with a name and placing it outside of the container or upside-down until all students have participated.

Another strategy that can be very effective in increasing teacher awareness of the choices they make in the classroom is by visually recording themselves while teaching. Before watching the recording, they can create a sketch of the classroom seating arrangement and a student roster. As they watch the recording, they tally

which students they call upon and where the student is located in the classroom. Additionally, teachers can make note of which students they redirect for negative behaviors during the lesson and document the type of feedback they are giving to each student for his or her participation. Visually recording their own teaching can grant teachers an objective view of what is truly taking place in the classroom. Teachers comparing their perceptions of what they might perceive is happening with what is actually happening can both surprise and lead to changes making for a more equitable classroom.

Conclusion

More and more, the focus in teaching is on equity in the classroom, especially equity around issues pertaining to diversity. One such issue has been the unequal participation in whole-class discussions and teachers' part in sustaining unequal participation. Teachers are strongly encouraged to adopt effective teaching methods that address this particular inequity. By increasing their own knowledge of diversity and by implementing known, effective teaching methods, teachers will better ensure that every student fully participates in and benefits from class discussions.

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See also Choral Response; Democratic Meetings; Democratic Practices in Classrooms and Schools; Managing Classroom Discussions

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INSERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

More than any other school resource, it is teachers who play the most central role and have the greatest effect on student achievement and success. To ensure classroom teachers are effective, schools must offer them ongoing professional learning opportunities that draw from the current knowledge base on research-supported best practices, including those concerning classroom management. In fact, according to the 2009 Teacher Status Report on teacher development in the United States and abroad, classroom management is among the top-rated teacher-requested training topics. It is an important subject, as effectively managed classrooms allow students to successfully engage in learning activities in a safe and supportive environment. At the same time, many teachers feel classroom management is the most challenging aspect of their job. Without adequate inservice education, the prevention and management of disruptive behaviors would be learned solely on the job, as preservice teacher education programs rarely offer courses on behavior management.

Effective Components of Inservice Teacher Education

Effective inservice teacher education aims to create behavioral change in teachers that improves the learning environment for students. That is, inservice teacher education cannot be deemed effective unless the knowledge gained is applied within the classroom to benefit student learning.

Several variables influence the extent to which gains in student achievement and decreases in challenging classroom behaviors are realized. According to the 2009 status report, the variables most associated with student improvement include time spent in professional development, relevance of the topic of practice, specificity of the topic, extent to which the topic connects with school priorities, and emphasis placed on ongoing teacher collaboration related to the topic. In other words, the most effective professional development opportunities are those that are ongoing, connected, targeted, and collaborative. With these variables in mind, it is possible to

evaluate the pros and cons of different types of inservice education.

Types of Inservice Teacher Education

The main types of inservice teacher education include workshops and daylong training and ongoing support by instructional coaches, mentors, and consultants.

Workshops and Daylong Training

Traditionally, the most common type of professional development for inservice teachers occurs in short-term workshops, training sessions, or lectures at conferences. These didactic training sessions, which can occur in a single session or in a series of brief sessions, are frequently offsite and led by experts with no affiliation to a specific school system. In order to reach a wider audience, by design, these programs offer general and broad introductions that are often insufficiently linked to the specific concerns of participating teachers. New information on instructional practices emerging from research is presented with the hope that those teachers in attendance will apply their new learning in the classroom. Unfortunately, there is little follow-up or support for teachers. They are not given the opportunity to discuss and work through barriers they encounter as they practice implementing their new skills. Despite its shortcomings, however, this type of teacher education can be successful, especially when groups of teachers from a single school attend the training sessions together, and there is an explicit connection between the content of the training and the context in which the teachers will integrate their learning.

Instructional Coaches, Mentors, and Consultants

In an effort to extend beyond the quick, one-shot workshop training model in which teachers are expected to apply their new knowledge in isolation, *instructional coaches* have become an integral part of job-embedded professional development. Instructional coaches are often respected veteran teachers who provide ongoing support to other teachers in the building.

Instructional coaches, although viewed as leaders, do not typically hold positions of administrative authority within the school system. Rather, as fellow teachers, they share the expertise and knowledge they gained through their own experience. They have one major advantage over outside people providing professional development, namely, they are familiar with the school's culture, student population, and the curricula.

Much of the coach's role is to guide teachers in reflective teaching practices. Through a collaborative

process, coaches assist teachers in appraising their own practice, identifying areas of potential growth, and setting individualized goals. Coaches ideally work with teachers to plan lessons and units, model instructional practices, conduct observations to monitor progress, and provide performance feedback to ensure teachers meet their goals.

Because the support provided by instructional coaches is sustained over an extended time period, teachers are likely to frequently practice new strategies and skills. Procedural knowledge is developed as the teachers are taught the appropriate conditions under which to apply the skills and how to do so effectively. The teachers can gain a clear understanding of the purposes and uses of instructional approaches when a knowledgeable and supportive coach is available throughout the learning process.

The success of instructional coaching as effective professional development is built upon the assumption that those placed in the role of coach are true experts capable of supporting the learning of other adults. Additionally, knowledge promoted through instructional coaches can be based on individual experiences rather than on research-supported best practices.

Another specific form of coaching might be better termed as *mentoring* as it applies to supporting and increasing the skills of early career teachers. At this time, many states in the United States receive federal funds to support induction programs for new teachers. These programs tend to vary in format. Some include district meetings on targeted topics, which new teachers attend; others include assigning early career teachers to mentors who are often experienced teachers. Ideally, new teachers are matched with teachers at their own schools who teach similar content or grade levels. The structure of mentoring programs varies. In some schools, the onus is on the new teacher to seek help from his or her mentor, whereas in others, there is time allotted for regular meetings, classroom observations, and suggested feedback.

A similar form of professional development where inservice teachers receive support over an extended period is through educational *consultants*. Unlike internal coaches, these consultants are external to the system and often contract with schools and districts to provide specific professional development and technical assistance. Consultants may work independently, through consulting companies, or through university settings. Consultants have expertise in very specific areas and are often hired when schools or districts do not have someone internally with needed expertise. The most effective consultation relationships are developed when consultants can be available over time to define what specific types of development and support are needed, give staff support in acquiring information and practicing new

skill sets, and collaborate in building structures that will enable change to be sustainable.

Professional Learning Communities

A recent trend in school reform related to inservice teacher education is the reconceptualization of schools as professional learning communities (PLCs). Among other experts on this topic, Richard Dufour, Rebecca Dufour, and Robert Eaker have written several seminal books and articles on PLCs and suggest that these communities can be a vehicle for improving teacher collaborative efforts that focus on the academic and behavioral learning of all students.

When schools work as PLCs, teachers are rarely working completely autonomously; rather, they are engaging in professional dialogue regarding student data and are making decisions regarding instructional strategies that fit the particular school context and aim to improve student learning. The work of PLCs is a job-embedded form of professional development and works best when teachers have time to dialogue and reflect, have a process for doing so, and commit to taking action that may include changing their own practices to benefit students.

School/University Partnerships

Partnerships developed between universities and local schools and districts are another way teachers can access professional development. Often, these relationships begin with the objective of preparing preservice teachers by providing them with practicum experiences; however, in doing so, university supervisors develop relationships with inservice teachers, where conversations about practicum students' implementation of best practices may occur.

These relationships can be natural opportunities for teachers to engage in reflective practice. Similarly, such relationships may generate further opportunities for teachers to take courses at the university, participate in applied research projects, and access targeted professional development with university professors. Sometimes, universities and districts develop structures to support purposeful and sustaining relationships. Such structures might include regular university–district meetings that include mapping of all ongoing projects, setting yearly goals and objectives for the partnerships.

Conclusion

As research related to best practices in education is continuously being generated, it is essential that inservice teachers have opportunities to stay informed and

connect new ideas with what is currently happening in their school contexts. In order for teachers to learn and apply new information, it is critical that they have ample time to learn and reflect within the context of collaborative relationships. By providing inservice teachers with the tools and ongoing support to effectively manage their classroom environments, student achievement can be bolstered.

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See also Beginning Teachers and Classroom Management; Teacher Education and Classroom Management; Teacher Teaming and Professional Development; Teaching as Researching

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INSTITUTIONAL RACISM

There is a history of racism in the United States spanning back to the country's founding. Historical examples from the twentieth century include segregated communities, facilities, and services based on skin color and propagandized stereotypes about different groups of people. Then, as those stereotypes became accepted by society, either explicitly or implicitly, policies that reinforced them and privileged specific groups of people over other groups were established. As those policies were implemented and became engrained in society, they promoted institutional racism, which is the use of policies to force specific outcomes—politically, educationally, professionally, or economically—for groups of people based on their race, ethnicity, culture, religion, gender, sexual orientation, or physical ability.

The term *institutional racism* was first used by Stokely Carmichael (later known as Kwame Ture) and Charles Hamilton in the 1960s, as part of the Civil

Rights Movement. In their seminal book *Black Power: The Politics of Liberation in America*, published in 1967, Carmichael and Hamilton explained two types of racism, *individual racism* and *institutional racism*. Individual racism is exemplified by overt acts of White-on-Black violence, such as Whites vandalizing Blacks' property or harassing Black families that moved into a White neighborhood. These individual acts of racism may gain public attention by being shown on television, and generally, both Whites and Blacks abhor them.

Institutional racism represents a more subtle form of discrimination and inequity. For instance, Carmichael and Hamilton point out that as an act of individual racism, the Birmingham church bombing of 1963 gained public attention and condemnation. However, the policies and institutional practices that caused the Black families attending the church to live in abject poverty and struggle to provide their children with food, education, and professional opportunities were not discussed or even recognized. Because of the discriminatory educational and housing policies that existed, those families were never afforded the opportunity to escape the poverty. It is, then, those policies and institutional practices that discriminate against groups but do not get publicized or critiqued by the public that constitute institutional racism.

Institutional Racism in Education

In education, institutional racism is found in multiple, overlapping forms. The varying quality of education provided to students offers a clear example. Affluent, majority students who attend suburban schools often have more qualified and more knowledgeable teachers who expect their students to learn a rigorous curriculum that promotes higher-order thinking skills. Conversely, low-income, minority students who attend urban or rural schools often have less qualified and less knowledgeable teachers who teach curriculum that requires students to memorize facts and follow simple procedures. The outcome of these differences in teachers and in expectations is that students who attend suburban schools score higher on accountability tests and are better prepared to enter college or the workforce. In this way, institutional racism exists in the different curriculums taught to students.

By promoting higher-order thinking skills in their students, suburban school teachers expect their students to converse with each other and construct meaning together. To meet these expectations, suburban school teachers manage their classrooms to be noisy at times and quiet at other times and arrange their students' desks sometimes in a circle or horseshoe and at other times in small clusters or individual rows—all depending on the day's lesson. Inherent in their decision to use

multiple desk arrangements are their expectations for student behavior and how they plan to manage their classroom. Suburban school teachers trust their students to honor their assignments and be well behaved, which reflects their expectations for student behavior and learning in general.

In contrast, because urban and rural school teachers' curriculums often emphasize remembering facts and following procedures, little to no student-student interaction may be expected, and to reinforce those expectations, students' desks are usually arranged in rows. In these and other ways of managing classrooms, as compared to suburban teachers, urban and rural teachers indicate they hold lower expectations for student behavior.

Working to End Institutional Racism

Crucial to ending institutional racism is recognizing its existence. Institutional racism is maintained when it is ignored, downplayed, or not acknowledged. Those who teach in underserved urban and rural schools may themselves be guilty of not recognizing institutional racism, because teachers are typically White middle-class members of society who have either benefited or been unaffected by institutional racism. However, there are methods teachers can use to recognize institutional racism and, subsequently in so recognizing it, initiate reform in their teaching philosophies, instructional activities, and classroom management expectations.

First, for teachers to analyze how they have been influenced by institutional racism, they must reflect deeply on how they came to have their beliefs about teaching, learning, and student behavior. For example, teachers may consider whether their teaching is a reflection of how they were taught; how they may have adopted or practiced stereotypical views of student behavior; and how they used or did not use previously conducted research to guide their classroom actions and carry out their instructional decision-making processes.

Without reflecting honestly on their own teaching, teachers risk continuing, albeit unknowingly, to practice forms of institutional racism rather than initiating reforms.

It takes time for majority teachers to identify how they have been influenced by institutional racism. Moreover, becoming aware of these influences can cause them discomfort, guilt, and feeling ashamed. However, they must engage these emotions if they are to cease using their former instructional practices and begin using ones that honor diversity and include high expectations for all learners. Once teachers become aware and accept how they have been influenced by institutional racism, they can initiate reforms in their own

teaching—and those of their coworkers. To do so, they can use culturally responsive teaching methods in their classrooms, have high expectations for all students, and live a socially conscious lifestyle.

Conclusion

Teachers can lead the movement to end institutional racism by teaching all students rigorous and relevant curriculums. These curriculums should develop students' higher-order thinking abilities and allow them to construct meaning together. To do so, teachers must base their instruction and classroom management on their students' needs and abilities, not on preconceived stereotypes.

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See also Assessment of Teacher–Student Relationships; Caring Approaches; Culturally Pluralistic Classrooms; Promoting Purpose and Learning Environments; Responsive Classroom Approach; Teacher Self-Awareness; Urban Schools

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INSTRUCTION AND COGNITIVE LOAD

Classrooms are dynamic places, with constant noise and interactions. Yet, they are also the places we expect students to learn new concepts and confront new problems. Grounded in research on learning and cognition, cognitive load theory provides insight into how to structure the classroom environment and instructional materials to maximize student learning.

Cognitive Load Theory

Cognitive load theory is an instructional theory rooted in research about how the human mind processes

information. First proposed by Australian educational psychologist John Sweller in the 1980s, its basic premise is that learning and thinking are most effective when instruction respects the limits of the human mind. Psychologists believe that learning requires that we actively process information in our working memory. Importantly, research indicates that working memory is limited in terms of the amount of information it can hold and process at any one time. Cognitive load theory proposes that if the load on working memory is too great, it will overburden working memory, and learning will be ineffective.

Types of Cognitive Load

Cognitive load refers to the total amount of processing demands imposed on working memory in any given situation. *Total cognitive load* is the sum of three types of load: germane, intrinsic, and extraneous cognitive load. Two of these types—germane load and intrinsic load—are necessary for learning. Extraneous load is not. *Germane load* is most relevant for learning. It is the amount of processing capacity that is being dedicated to making sense of the problem and information and transferring new knowledge to long-term memory. *Intrinsic load* is the amount of mental work necessary due to the complexity of the content. It is determined by the difficulty of the information or problem being processed in relation to an individual's prior knowledge or expertise. For example, a multidigit arithmetic problem (e.g., 247 + 38) leads to greater intrinsic load than a simple arithmetic problem (e.g., 7 + 8). However, the difference in the intrinsic load of the two kinds of problems would be greater for a first grader than for an adult. Finally, *extraneous load* is the amount of processing capacity that is being dedicated to managing irrelevant information or distractions. Extraneous load interferes with thinking and learning.

These three types of load compete with each other for finite mental resources. If one type of load is high, it leaves less working memory capacity to be dedicated to the other kinds of load. For example, if extraneous load is high, then less working memory capacity can be dedicated to germane load. Similarly, if extraneous load is high, then the difficulty of the learning task (the intrinsic load) being presented to students must be lower.

Cognitive load theorists maintain that each type of cognitive load can be controlled by how the environment, lessons, and instructional materials are structured. Teachers should strive to minimize extraneous load as much as possible and make the intrinsic load appropriate for students' skill level so that as much processing capacity as possible can be dedicated to germane load. This premise has broad implications for classroom management and instructional design.

Implications for Classroom Management

Cognitive load theory suggests that the classroom environment should be structured to minimize extraneous load as much as possible. In a classroom environment, an increase in extraneous load can be induced by noise, interruptions, or even anxiety. In this view, classroom policies and routines that reduce noise and interruptions are critical for learning. For example, classrooms in which students are instructed to sharpen their pencils at the beginning of each day, rather than when students are engaged in solving problems, should have lower extraneous load and, thus, greater learning. Similarly, teachers who post instructions for group work on the board to avoid interrupting cooperative learning groups with clarifications are maximizing learning by reducing extraneous load. Cognitive load theory also suggests that approaches that reduce student anxiety by promoting better teacher–student relationships or making expectations clear could enhance student learning.

Implications for Instruction

Cognitive load theorists have outlined recommendations for selecting and designing instructional materials to decrease extraneous load, manage intrinsic load, and promote germane load. Most of the theoretical articles and experimental studies have focused on ways of decreasing extraneous load and managing intrinsic load.

Cognitive load theorists argue that thoughtful presentation of content can decrease students' extraneous load. One recommendation is to strip instructional materials of as many irrelevant features and unnecessary steps as possible. For example, cognitive load theorists contend that computer-based learning software with fewer irrelevant visual and auditory features, such as jumping characters or background music, should lead to greater learning than alternatives with more of these features.

Another recommendation for reducing extraneous load is to present students with worked examples rather than having students learn through problem solving. Cognitive load theorists argue that the mental resources students spend generating and testing possible solutions are better spent processing and making sense of the concepts underlying why a solution works. Indeed, numerous experimental studies have found students learn more from worked examples than from practice in problem solving.

In addition to minimizing extraneous load, intrinsic load should be managed in order to maximize the amount of mental resources that can be dedicated to making sense of information (germane load). Two key strategies have been suggested for managing intrinsic load. The first is to select problems and content that

is appropriate for students' knowledge level. This idea aligns with Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development—when children engage with material that is just above what they can do independently, they are more likely to learn from the experience. In terms of cognitive load theory, selecting material with an appropriate level of intrinsic load should allow for greater mental capacity to be dedicated to making sense of the material (germane load).

A second approach for minimizing intrinsic load is to divide a lesson into smaller pieces, reducing the intrinsic load of the overall lesson. Experimental studies testing this approach have found that learners who were allowed to process the individual elements of complex tasks or concepts serially were able to better process the individual components involved and perform better overall than students who were required to process the components simultaneously. One example of this approach is to ask students to outline key points of an essay before writing a complete draft. Another example is to explain a geometry theorem step by step to students rather than presenting the entire solution at once. A last example is to have students analyze a bar graph and then read a corresponding text rather than have them process both at once.

Conclusion

Cognitive load theory provides insight into how to structure the classroom environment and lessons to maximize student learning. It argues that teachers should carefully consider how students' mental resources are being divided during thinking and learning. It further posits that teachers can proactively structure the environment and lessons to ensure that the load placed on students' mental capacity during learning is mostly dedicated to processing and understanding key information rather than irrelevant information.

Elida V. Laski

See also Conditions for Learning; Curriculum and Classroom Management; Differentiated Instruction; Lessons and Lesson Planning; Research-Based Strategies; Zone of Proximal Development

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INSTRUCTIONAL ROUNDS

Instructional rounds (IRs) are a disciplined form of ongoing job-embedded professional development. IRs involve teams of teachers working together to identify and examine problems of professional practice—in order to improve instruction and classroom management. As a systems-level improvement strategy intended to increase student engagement and achievement, groups of educators—usually referred to as *networks*—conduct classroom observations, analyze observation data, and propose plans for implementing more effective instructional practices.

Originally, IRs took place at the interdistrict level, with networks of superintendents from multiple districts (e.g., the Connecticut Superintendents Network, Iowa Leadership Academy Superintendents' Network, and the Ohio Leadership Collaborative). Increasingly, however, IRs are being carried out at the district, school, and classroom levels. At the district level, networks are made up of superintendents, directors, and/or school principals from within a single district; at the school level, networks are made up of principals, specialists, department chairs and the like; and at the classroom level, networks are made up of grade-specific and/or subject-specific teachers.

Many who participate in IRs believe that the process when done with fidelity accelerates school improvement and advances effective teaching on a broader scale than the individual classroom. Hence, the IR process is seen a powerful lever to promote educational equity and excellence so that all children have access to, participate in, and achieve meaningful learning outcomes through schooling.

IRs are conceptually analogous to rounds in the field of medical education, whereby groups of health

professionals (physicians, nurses, residents, students, etc.) examine medical problems and determine new courses of action to improve the welfare of patients. There are four essential elements in the IR process:

- network formation,
- problems and questions of practice,
- observation of practice/data collection, and
- observation debrief/next level of work.

Network Formation

Networks can form at any number of levels within and/or between schools and districts. The key to network formation is that it be made up of educators who share similar professional responsibilities and/or practices, who are willing and able to meet frequently and regularly, and who have the desire and means to make decisions and changes to their professional practice. Groups of educators committed to doing such work might come together to engage in rounds at the interdistrict, intradistrict, school, and/or classroom level. Groups of superintendents from multiple districts from across a state may form an interdistrict network to make rotating visits and observations of teaching practice in each other's districts so as to gain ideas about how to structure hiring practices to improve the quality of teaching in their own school community. Members of an intradistrict network may make rotating visits to observe teaching practice in multiple schools within a single district in order to gain ideas and propose strategies for carrying out a shared districtwide mission for student learning. A network can be formed at the school level whereby a group of administrators, specialists, and/or teacher leaders systematically visit classrooms from across a single school and make plans for enacting teaching and learning strategies intended to address multiple grades and/or content areas. Any number of classroom-level networks can be configured within a single school so that teams of teachers visit each other's classrooms in order to develop a shared understanding of how to improve instruction and increase engagement of the students in their direct care.

If no group already exists through which to engage in the rounds process, a new network will need to be created and convened. However, new groups need not be created in order to carry out IRs. Preexisting teams, committees, and organizational structures can and should be utilized. For instance, district or school instructional leadership teams, administrative councils, and advisory groups can choose to be a network and employ IRs as a significant part of their regular work. Likewise, the IR process can become the core work of vertical teams, grade-level teams, departments, and curriculum committees that are already in place in most schools.

Problems and Questions of Practice

The focus of IRs is the examination of a problem of practice about which a network has specific questions. A problem of practice can be defined as some issue, topic, or idea that the professionals in the group care about, that is specifically related to teaching and learning, and that can be examined and improved. A useful problem of practice is observable and should connect to overarching improvement strategies.

To develop a problem of practice, network members can analyze and interpret student achievement/performance data to determine gaps and areas in need of improvement; discuss what they hope to see taking place in individual classrooms; establish shared understandings about what constitutes effective instructional practice and classroom management; and come to a transparent agreement on the teacher, student, and/or environmental factors that enable or constrain effective teaching and learning.

Often the development of problems and questions of practice will be informed by the review of existing curricular frameworks being used in a particular district. Common frameworks include those such as *Research for Better Teaching* (Saphier), *Understanding by Design* (Wiggins and McTighe), *Enhancing Professional Practice: A Framework for Teaching* (Danielson), *Differentiated Instruction* (Tomlinson), *Bloom's Taxonomy* and/or *Webb's Depth of Knowledge, Toward Excellence With Equity* (Ferguson), *Teach Like a Champion* (Lemov), and *Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports* (OSEP Technical Assistance Center). Network members may use frameworks and ideas from the resources listed above as a means for coming to shared agreements about what they expect and hope to see taking place in classrooms.

Once clarity has emerged about a problem area, network members develop specific questions that guide the subsequent stages of the rounds process. For instance, important questions of practice related to the area of classroom management and implementation of PBIS that a network may want to consider could include the following:

1. Are interactions between teachers and students more positive than negative?
2. Is teacher positive feedback made explicit?
3. Are there visible, noticeable classroom routines and behavioral expectations (e.g., hand in homework at beginning of class, sharpen pencils only during certain times, speak one at a time, transitions)?
4. How do students know when the teacher wants their attention?

5. Do students interact and collaborate in a positive way with one another?
6. Does the teacher have a clear system for providing corrective feedback related to behavior?
7. Are our most vulnerable and/or at-risk students engaged in learning and receiving explicit positive feedback?

Observation of Practice/Data Collection

After a network has established mutual agreement on the topics and issues it wants to examine and address, it will conduct a series of classroom observations where data related to the problem and questions of practice are collected. Small groups of people (up to six) visit a progression of classrooms, with each visit lasting typically between 15 and 25 minutes.

While in the classrooms, observers watch and take notes on what they witness in relation to the predetermined problem of practice; this means observing what students are doing and saying, how students are interacting with each other, and what the teacher is saying and doing. Observers can (and should) interact with students in nondisruptive ways to gather critical information. For example, if a network has defined a problem of practice as “Are students being given clear instruction about how to approach class assignments?,” observers will need to understand what the students are working on, how they know what they are supposed to do, what they do when they get stuck, and how the teacher determines the quality of their work. Observers take written/typed snapshots of what is happening in the classroom related to the problem and questions of practice. They should not attempt to pay attention to or to write down everything that is going on in the classroom. An accurate picture of what is actually happening emerges as a result of multiple teams of educators conducting numerous observations in many classrooms—not as a result of what a single observer is able to capture.

It is essential that network members collect data that is as nonjudgmental, nonevaluative, and as specific as possible. The job of the observer is to take a snapshot of what is actually happening in the classroom, not to make judgments about whether what is happening is effective or good. What makes the IR process valid is its reliance on the aggregation of multiple sets of accurate, fine-grained observations from various observers who then work in collaboration with one another to analyze the value and merit of what took place and to determine next steps; it is not about individual members making determinations. If the data generated through classroom observations are already evaluative in nature or do not

clearly specify what took place, they cannot (and should not) be used during the observation debrief.

Prior to engaging in the process of classroom observation, data collection, and analysis, network members should develop and agree to follow behavioral norms. Typical expectations include no talking in the hallway with one another between visits to classrooms, no cell phones/texting at any time, no chatting with the teacher during the observation, and complete confidentiality including the destruction (shredding/disposal) of handouts and notes that reference or could be attributed to individual teachers, classrooms, or students.

Observation Debrief/Next Level of Work

After a series of classroom observations has been conducted, all network members (all individual observation teams) convene in a large group to engage in a fourfold process of description, analysis, prediction, and proposing. First, observers work to display and share with their team the most salient classroom observation data. Typically, observation team members read through their observation notes and transcribe between 10 and 15 individual data points/specific observations onto large pieces of paper, or onto separate note cards (sticky notes are common) that are attached to large pieces of paper for the group to see. Members will read through all the data points in order to gain a picture or overall description of what is actually taking place in the classrooms. Once the data have been aggregated and visually displayed, members analyze them; they look for trends and patterns that seem to emerge. During the analysis phase, members may move notes around, regroup data, and otherwise reorganize the data in order to tell the story about what is happening in relation to the problem and questions of practice.

Once all observation teams have analyzed their data sets and articulated a story about what is occurring in classrooms, a gallery walk often ensues in which all network members have the opportunity to review the observation data and analysis work that has taken place in all other groups (if indeed more than one group is examining a particular problem or question of practice). Once all network members have had the opportunity to see the results of the work of individual observation teams, the large group can more accurately interpret and predict what students in that particular school will actually learn and be able to do as a result of experiencing the classroom instruction that was observed. In the prediction portion of the debrief, members discuss and seek to answer the original questions of practice. During the conclusion of the debrief, network members generate ideas for how to address the problems of practice going forward. They develop specific next steps and

determine actions that they believe need to be taken in order to improve instructional practice and classroom management.

Barriers to IRs

Given that IRs are considered one of the most professionally rewarding and powerful means for adult learning and large-scale improvement of instructional practice and classroom management, why is the IR process not more common? There are several barriers that stand in the way of the authentic and more universal implementation of IRs. These include *lack of urgency* (districts, schools, and/or classrooms that exhibit high test scores, or other positive outcome data, may not believe they have problems or feel compelled to make significant changes in instructional practice); *culture of autonomy* (most schools are still organized in an egg crate fashion whereby teachers are structured and encouraged to work independently, making the formation of a network seemingly impossible or undesirable); *lack of time* (the typical teacher work schedule does not allocate enough time either in terms of frequency or duration for educators to be able to develop and examine problems and questions of practice); and *event orientation* (IRs are sometimes misconceived as an event where a group of educators—not necessarily a formal network—come together to engage in a stand alone process of observation and debrief that may not be informed by a well-thought-out problem of practice, and does not subsequently lead to action taking).

These barriers explain why there is virtually no evidence that IRs have a lasting impact on teaching and learning. Although the rhetoric of IRs is compelling and theoretically sound, and educators routinely express the view that rounds provide a profound form of professional development, there is little, if any, empirical evidence at this time of a relationship between IRs, changes in instructional practice, and student learning.

Conclusion

IRs are a promising adult learning process and instructional improvement strategy that includes four essential components: network formation, determination of problems and questions of practice, observation/data collection, and observation debrief. Ideally, educators will use IRs to disrupt certain typical patterns of interaction that take place in the classroom and will leverage the process to make targeted changes in practice that are more likely to engage students in their learning; they will use the structure of rounds to make tough decisions about what constitutes best practice and implement actions to bring those practices to scale. When barriers such as lack of

urgency and time, a culture of autonomy, and event orientation are minimized, educators and the students they serve are more likely to reap the benefits of the rounds process. Teachers who have engaged in an IR process have noted that they consider the network experience exceptionally rewarding and worthwhile. Educators appreciate the opportunity to collaboratively develop a shared professional language and explicitly identify the fundamental instructional practices they hope and expect to see taking place in their classrooms.

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See also Assessing and Promoting Treatment Integrity; Assessing Classroom Management; Assessment of Teacher–Student Relationships; Inservice Teacher Education

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INTELLECTUAL DISABILITIES (MENTAL RETARDATION)

In simplest terms, an intellectual disability manifests itself as significant limitations in intellectual/cognitive functioning and adaptive behavior prior to the age of 18 years. Intellectual disabilities are sometimes referred

to as cognitive disabilities, and in the last decade, the term intellectual disability has replaced the earlier term *mental retardation*. Of course, this definition alone does little to help educators enhance outcomes for students with intellectual disabilities. This entry is intended to provide an overview of common characteristics of and challenges faced by students with intellectual disabilities and to present some specific techniques that can be used to enhance the overall outcomes for students with intellectual disabilities, as well as the day-to-day management of classrooms in which students with intellectual disabilities are served. In the sections that follow, a focus on student empowerment and self-determination will be maintained.

Characteristics of and Challenges Faced by Students With Intellectual Disabilities

One of the most common characteristics of students with intellectual disabilities is their struggle to learn new information and acquire new skills. Although it often takes students with intellectual disabilities longer to learn, they *can*—and do—learn, but they often need explicit instruction. Given that it takes them longer to learn new skills, it is not uncommon for students with intellectual disabilities to fall behind their typically developing peers.

Another common characteristic of students with intellectual disabilities is that they are unlikely to learn adaptive skills simply through experience. For example, children without an intellectual disability will likely learn to dress themselves without being taught and with fairly generic practice as they get dressed in the morning and undressed again in the evening. A child with an intellectual disability will likely need daily practice in the morning and the evening, as well as explicit instruction paired with targeted and repeated practice dressing throughout the school day. As such, teachers of students with intellectual disabilities must target academic and adaptive skills within the curriculum, requiring those teachers to be more creative in their instruction. Both these characteristics require that the students and their educational team be intentional in their instructional planning in order to maintain the greatest educational efficiency possible.

Many students with intellectual disabilities experience limitations in communication. For some, this limitation might manifest as a struggle communicating in social situations. For others, the communication impairment results in the student needing to use an augmentative and alternative communication (AAC) system to communicate. This limitation is particularly challenging for those students who do not have any systematic form of communication, as they must rely on the people around them to interpret what they are trying to

communicate. Without a voice—spoken or otherwise—the possibilities for students with intellectual disabilities are greatly diminished, making communication a top priority for students with such disabilities.

Increasing Potential for Classroom Management

Considering the challenges faced by students with intellectual disabilities, it is essential that teachers implement interventions that will empower all students, particularly those who often have the quietest voice. In doing so, they will not only increase the outcomes for their students with intellectual disabilities, they will also better ensure that the classroom will run more smoothly, that students will be more engaged in learning, and that students will be less likely to engage in challenging behavior. The following sections describe some considerations for educational planning related to classroom management for students with intellectual disabilities.

Individualized Educational Program Planning

The individualized educational program (IEP) is an individual plan for how and when special education services will be provided to a student in special education. A large portion of the IEP is focused on the annual goals and objectives/benchmarks, and this portion of the IEP lays the foundation for each student's annual educational plan. Given the importance of this document—and the challenges faced by students with intellectual disabilities—providing students with intellectual disabilities the opportunity to participate in the development and implementation of the IEP is a meaningful way to empower the students and teach them that their voice is important. There are several ways to include the student in the IEP process. First, the IEP can be developed *with* the student, rather than *for* the student. It is not uncommon that a student's educational team develops the IEP and implements it without any input from the student. One way to include the student is to provide him or her with choices related to his or her future goals and the annual goals.

Another way to empower students in the IEP process is to have them run as much of the IEP meeting as possible. Prior to the meeting, students can prepare a short presentation to introduce all participants at the meeting and to describe their long-term goals. By allowing students with intellectual disabilities to have ownership over their IEP, they may be more likely to be active participants in their education. Although these initial steps may require an additional time allocation, the benefits of including the student in this process are likely to lead to greater efficiency with the implementation of the IEP because the student will have an awareness of his or her educational plan.

Students with intellectual disabilities should also have the opportunity to participate in the implementation of their IEP, which will also increase the efficiency of implementation. One of the simplest ways to include students in the implementation of their educational plans is to have them monitor their own progress. Systems of self-graphing and self-reinforcement can be used; both have been found to be effective in increasing on-task behavior and skill performance. In addition to immediate benefits, having students monitor their own behavior has potential long-term benefits, including increased awareness of personal behavior and goals, increased self-determination, and a potential for requiring fewer future supports.

Communication

As noted, students with intellectual disabilities often have limitations in the area of communication. Communication, in all of its forms, is central to who we are as individuals. It allows us to express our wants, needs, thoughts, and emotions. Without a reliable form of communication, students with intellectual disabilities are severely limited and reliant on others to determine what they want and need. It is not uncommon for students without a reliable system of communication to use challenging behaviors as a way to communicate, resulting in reduced educational programming and the potential for placement in more restrictive environments.

Given that limitations in communication can be pervasive for students with intellectual disabilities, relying on one short weekly session with a speech-language pathologist is not likely to be sufficient to help a student develop a reliable system of communication. In this case, it is essential that the student's entire educational team be part of implementing the communication interventions developed with the speech-language pathologist.

Although it may be difficult for the entire educational team to consider implementing communication interventions throughout the day, they will find that the more communication a student uses, the more educational programming they will be able to deliver and the more engaged the student will be. By paying attention to communication from the outset, the student will experience immediate and long-term benefits, including increased autonomy and self-determination. There are also classwide benefits when all students have a reliable system of communication, including lower rates of challenging behavior, less confusion about what a student is trying to communicate, and increased time to target other educational goals.

Choice and Preference

Given that students with intellectual disabilities are more likely to experience limitations with communication and a potentially higher incidence of challenging

behavior, one of the most powerful tools an educator can use to overcome these issues is to provide the student with choices whenever possible. There is a large body of literature demonstrating that the provision of choices throughout the day leads to impressive decreases in challenging behavior and significant increases in on-task behavior. With a little thought, choices can be incorporated into the entire school day. For example, students can be given some choice in the order they do tasks, the materials they use (e.g., pen versus pencil), where they sit (e.g., at a desk versus on the floor), who they work with, and so on. The opportunities to provide choices are extensive and can benefit both the student and the teacher.

In addition to providing choices, teachers must also consider means of identifying a student's individual preferences. It is not enough to simply provide choices among a few things, especially if the student does not actually like those things. It is essential that teachers consider that students with intellectual disabilities can become bored with a specific item, just like any student without disabilities. Additionally, something the student likes one day may be the least preferred thing the next, and that any shift in preference is not unusual and should be respected. There are several methods available that teachers can use to identify the preferences of students with disabilities who have communication impairments that impede their ability to simply say what it is they like. Helen Cannella-Malone and her colleagues provide practitioners with detailed instructions for conducting various preference assessments with students who have various intellectual, developmental, and physical disabilities.

Expectations

Given challenges in communication and the potential for these challenges to lead to disruptive behavior, it is not uncommon that expectations for students with intellectual disabilities might be diminished, resulting in decreased outcomes, greater dependence on those around the student, and long-term negative impacts for the student. It is essential that the expectations placed on students with intellectual disabilities be high, yet reachable. If expectations are decreased, it is likely that it will take even longer to learn new skills, and the student will be more likely to become bored—and more likely to engage in challenging behavior. Maintaining high expectations requires that everyone on a student's educational team be willing to challenge one another's thinking about what the student is able to accomplish. This may mean pushing each member of the team to identify ways the student can be successful. Several methods to foster higher expectations were described above. It is also important to make expectations explicit to the student so that the student is aware of, and held to, those expectations.

Conclusion

Although students with intellectual disabilities will likely take longer to learn new material and skills, and be more likely to have communication impairments, there is significant evidence that they can be taught innumerable skills, they can learn to communicate in a systematic manner, and they can be autonomous and self-determined members of our society. To reach this goal, their teachers must focus on providing creative and engaging ways to learn efficiently in order to target both academic and adaptive behavior skills. Using the methods and techniques described here, teachers have the potential to improve the outcomes of all of their students with intellectual disabilities.

Helen Cannella-Malone

See also Co-Teaching for Inclusive Classrooms; Disabilities and Classroom Management; Inclusive Classrooms; Individualized Education Programs; Individuals with Disabilities Education Act; Severe Disabilities and Classroom Management

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INTELLIGENCE

This entry provides a brief overview of the two most important perspectives on defining and explaining intelligence. After doing so, the entry considers intelligence through the lens of classroom management considerations, irrespective of which perspective one espouses.

The subject of intelligence is extremely complex; the literature is vast, and the contentious discussions about

intelligence have been around for centuries, so this brief overview cannot possibly offer a full and comprehensive account of the subject of intelligence. Readers, then, should take this overview for what it is, a brief introduction offering a way to frame the discussion about intelligence and its relation to classroom management.

Significance of Intelligence

Irrespective of theoretical perspective, being intelligent is definitely advantageous for achieving significant goals or ends. It is difficult to consider any endeavor where being more intelligent is not beneficial to achieving a particular goal or end. Generally, the more intelligent the person, the better off that person is with regard to realizing important life outcomes, including academic achievement and educational attainment, job performance and occupational status, socioeconomic status and income, and physical health and longevity.

That said, history is replete with examples of highly intelligent individuals who achieve or support evil ends (e.g., engineers contributing their intelligence and expertise to help carry out the holocaust under Nazism), as it is also replete with examples of using particular measures of intelligence to support unjust causes that have done great harm (e.g., forced sterilization of individuals with low IQ). That is, the subject of intelligence is also significant for being tied to moral issues, issues having to do with justice and injustice.

Putting aside these moral issues and considering human problem solving mostly under ordinary circumstances, intelligence is a very good thing, a major factor in explaining academic achievement, socioeconomic status, physical health, even friendship building. That is, intelligence is central for overall well-being. As such, we need to understand how to define, explain, and support the development of intelligence when educating children and youth.

Defining and Explaining Intelligence: Two Points of View

There are many different definitions of intelligence and many different ways of explaining it. However, for the purposes of introducing readers to the problems of defining and explaining intelligence, the differences can be reasonably clustered into two main groups representing two main perspectives.

General Intelligence, IQ, and the Heritability of Intelligence

The first group defines intelligence in terms of very general abilities that coalesce to define intelligence

as *general intelligence* and that are best measured by today's intelligence tests because they meet rigorous scientific standards for defining and assessing intelligence (particularly the standards of reliability and validity), because they are (or are presumed to be) relatively free of cultural or other kinds of bias, and because they yield a single measure—IQ—that has proven to be useful for predicting individual and group differences in their achievements outside the context of testing.

As for explaining intelligence and its causes, members of this first group have often (not always) taken the stability in IQ across time and changing circumstances as evidence that there are powerful genetic factors at work and that intelligence is an inherited phenomenon. For example, Satoshi Kanazawa has pointed out that knowing the mean IQ of a nation's population, with few exceptions, allows an accurate prediction of the nation's gross national product and per capita income, and that ranking the wealth and poverty of nations, with very few exceptions, has not appreciably changed over the last 200 years. One implication that many (again, not all) have drawn from such observations is that there are enduring biological differences that cause and account for the differences noted.

This is, of course, a composite picture of an overall view. Any single scholar might accept some but not all of what is defined in this overall view of intelligence. For example, one might define intelligence as general intelligence but reserve judgment about the genetic basis for intelligence. However, this composite picture seems to serve well enough to define a single, leading perspective on intelligence in today's discussions of intelligence.

Multiple Intelligences and Antireductionism

A second major composite picture or perspective emerges from the many critiques of the first perspective, a picture that features two related themes. The first theme is that there are multiple intelligences, not one single general intelligence—as indicated by the results of intelligence testing itself (one can analyze test results and come to a more multiple-intelligences view of what the data are showing) and by the variety of achievements valued by different cultures and that do not seem to draw on the abilities assessed on intelligence tests. This theme of there being multiple intelligences is also found in references to well-researched phenomena such as the presence of idiot savants and child prodigies who evidence special intelligence in one area but not in all areas and by the specific, not general, cognitive deficits of some stroke patients suffering from damage to specific parts of the brain.

The second theme in this second, major perspective on intelligence is the theme that any explanation of

intelligence as inherited and biologically determined by one's genes is not only premature (without basis in scientific fact) but also dangerous. No one from this group is arguing that there are not genetic factors behind intelligence-related phenomena such as Down syndrome. The argument is more about linking IQ in general to genetics.

Furthermore, members of this second group are apt to be passionately antireductionist, eschewing any effort to explain differences in intelligence in terms of single, isolated causes. So, for example, from this antireductionist perspective, brain activity as a variable might be seen as influencing reading, but reading, in turn, would be seen as influencing brain activity—the two, then, being seen as together developing each other. By seeing cause in this bidirectional way, members of this group are apt to emphasize the enormous complexity when explaining differences in intelligence—and the host of variables (biological variables, family variables, school variables, etc.) that combine to influence one another. From this antireductionist perspective, the stability of IQ in the face of efforts to raise IQ is more easily explained by there being complex interactions between a host of variables that have made past interventions too simplistic to adequately address the complexity.

Intelligence in Relation to Classroom Management

Regardless of the particular theory and definition of intelligence, there are three important considerations when investigating the intersection between intelligence and classroom management: (1) misbehaviors that escalate when children are not instructed at their intellectual level, (2) the antecedents and consequences that influence every student's behaviors regardless of intellectual level, and (3) the need to provide equitable treatment (education) by developing inclusive classrooms with children differing with respect to intelligence and culture.

Matching Instruction to Intellectual Level

Consider the first point about instructing students at their intellectual level. Most students are appropriately challenged by the typical grade-level curriculum. However, there are also students on both ends of the intellectual spectrum who need specialized instruction or accommodations to meet their educational needs. Being instructed at a level that is too challenging for a student's current ability can be frustrating for the student and can lead to disruptive behavior and inattention as well as to negative feelings of being ignorant and incompetent. If continued for a longer time, it can also lead to an overall dislike of school. Being instructed at a

level that is too undemanding for a student's ability can also lead to disruptive or nonattentive behaviors and a dislike of school.

If, then, there is an increase in problem behaviors from a student, one consideration should be whether the tasks assigned are too easy or too difficult. One way to accomplish this is to use alternative instruction and related assignments that are individualized for that student for a period of 2 weeks and to keep data on the student's behaviors and academic performance. For instance, for a student who is currently overchallenged in mathematics, one can analyze the student's background skill set to see if there are gaps in the student's learning. If there are, the focus of instruction can shift to those earlier skills and incorporate tasks the student can take on with success.

For the student who is underchallenged in class, altering instruction can mean allowing for more in-depth learning of the classwide skills being covered or for a faster pace of learning. Students with significantly higher intelligence can learn topics at a faster rate than those with average intelligence. Keeping those students challenged is an important component in preventing or reducing maladaptive behaviors. Using enriched instruction is one way to address this and can include additional, unique projects that extend the learning beyond the standard state curriculum requirements. This is an opportunity for teachers to include learning opportunities that promote analysis, evaluation, synthesis, and application, as described in Bloom's taxonomy (named for Benjamin Bloom, chair of a group of scholars who devised the taxonomy).

Another option is to use a Curriculum Compacting intervention such as the Study Guide method. With the Study Guide method, the teacher creates a study guide with 10 concepts the students are expected to learn for that unit. Students engaging in enrichment work sign an agreement that they will complete mastery of that study guide content on their own and complete additional research on a related topic selected from a list of choices. Use of more advanced texts on the same topic is another means to keeping an underchallenged student engaged in the classroom and thereby preventing or reducing maladaptive behaviors.

Finally, with respect to classroom management and differences in intelligence, the Universal Design for Learning (UDL) framework provides a way to design an instructional environment so that it addresses the needs of all learners, including those with high and low intelligence. Using the UDL framework, educators design instruction with an emphasis on providing (1) multiple means of representing information (the what of learning), (2) multiple ways for students to act on instructional opportunities and express knowledge (the how of

learning), and (3) multiple means of engaging with and being motivated by the learning experience (the why of learning).

As with any effective classroom management system, with respect to accommodations for intelligence, keeping data on the behaviors is important. Once instruction is altered for a student with disruptive behaviors, keeping data on if and how the student's maladaptive behaviors change after accommodations are made can provide needed information about whether or not the accommodation was successful and should be continued or discontinued and another intervention should be found.

Attending to Antecedents and Consequences

The second consideration about the intersection of intelligence and classroom management is that every student's behavior is influenced by antecedents and consequences—no matter what a student's intellectual level may be and regardless of how intelligence is defined. In other words, all students are subject to the influences of behavioral antecedents and consequences. It is up to school personnel to determine what contingencies are operating on maladaptive behaviors—so as to determine the purpose or function the behavior serves: escape, attention, and so forth. Once this is done, a teacher can alter a classwide or individual reinforcement system to positively affect the behaviors for the individual student and the entire classroom.

Providing Equitable Treatment and an Inclusive Classroom

As mentioned, intelligence and how intelligence is treated have ethical implications. With regard to schooling and classroom management, there is a long history of isolating those children with low IQ, and in many countries around the world, that isolating process is the norm. However, in democratic societies the commitment is (or should be) to providing more equitable treatment of children varying in their intelligence as measured by IQ—by developing a more inclusive society. In schools, this has meant adhering to the guidelines laid out in public laws having to do with inclusion and working to create inclusive classrooms.

Equitable treatment has also been the major theme in discussions of cultural and linguistic differences where assessments of intelligence come into play. Aside from the issue of whether IQ tests are truly culture-free, there have been numerous studies and reports on how cultural and linguistic mismatches between teachers and their students can create problems in teachers not seeing

and not supporting the ways certain cultural groups of students show their intelligence and in the ways certain cultural groups of students require different supports if their intelligence is to be developed. In short, the large body of research adopting a sociocultural perspective on classroom management has indicated that there is more intelligence being expressed by students from different ethnic backgrounds than many teachers are seeing and that accommodating cultural and linguistic differences is all part of providing education that is equitable and inclusive with respect to intelligence or at least some measures of intelligence, including IQ.

Conclusion

In sum and with respect to intelligence and classroom management, while there are competing ways to define and measure intelligence, subscribing to one or another is not as relevant to effective classroom management as is understanding how intelligence can affect classroom behaviors. Altering instruction to meet students' intellectual needs as well as understanding that all students are responsive to the influences of behavioral antecedents and consequences allows any teacher to successfully manage maladaptive behaviors. Finally, there are ethical considerations such that regardless of how we define and understand intelligence, there are moral obligations to provide whatever supports are needed to help students reach their potential and to avoid isolating students by developing classrooms that are truly inclusive with respect to cultural and intellectual differences. Using this framework and these suggestions will allow for better classroom management when the issues have to do with students' intelligence and with diversity with respect to intelligence.

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See also Ability Grouping; Assessment of Students; Culturally Pluralistic Classrooms; Gifted Students and Effective Classroom Practices; Inclusive Classrooms; Individuals with Disabilities Education Act; Intellectual Disabilities (Mental Retardation); Learning Disabilities; Learning Styles; Teaching as Researching

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INTERACTIVE TEACHING

Interactive teaching proceeds from the view that learning is a process that occurs *between* teachers and learners, and among learners with the guided facilitation of a teacher. From this perspective, learning occurs by doing, and particularly by doing with other people. Interaction with others has the effect of raising a student's level of performance beyond that which she or he can sustain alone. Students learn as they seize control over novel aspects of skills and understandings that arise in exchanges with others.

To teach interactively, it is important first to identify the specific learning outcomes that one wishes to promote. Thereafter, the teacher can select activities and assignments that will foster the development of identified outcomes. It is not enough simply to *involve* students in such activities; instead, it is often necessary to teach students how to perform them. For example, an effective group presentation involves more than simply

assigning a task and leaving students on their own. It typically requires showing students how to identify and read sources, organize arguments, represent visual data, and engage the class. Interactive learning falters when educators do not provide students with the full range of instruction necessary to achieve learning outcomes.

To know the world is to be able to organize it in terms of existing knowledge. Learning occurs when individuals encounter novel experiences that they cannot readily understand using their existing knowledge. The resulting conflict motivates learners to restructure existing knowledge to reconcile the unfamiliar experience. An effective teacher engages a student's existing ways of knowing by introducing moderately novel experiences designed to prompt successive transformation in knowledge and skills. Because students construct knowledge through action, interactive teaching provides students with opportunities to participate in activities that allow them to construct skills and knowledge *for themselves*. However, to say that students must construct knowledge *for themselves* is not the same as saying that they must do so *by themselves*. Interactive teaching engages the active processes of the student without reducing the structuring role of the teacher.

Engagement

The epitome of interactive teaching is *engaged dialogue*. Through dialogue, students expose their understanding, opinions, experiences, and values. Guided conflict between existing knowledge and novel experience motivates constructive activity in the direction of higher-order understandings. Such dialogue is the essence of the classic interactive method of Socratic dialogue. This is illustrated by the following example of teaching and learning arithmetic skills provided by Kuo-En Chang, Mei-Ling Lin, and Sei-Wang Chen:

T: $81-38 = ?$

S: 57

T: $1-8 = ?$

S: 7

T: $8-1 = ?$

S: 7

T: $1-8$ equal to $8-1$, right?

S: No, They are not equal.

T: Do you think that it is possible to directly subtract 8 from 1?

S: No.

- T: How can you do it for this case?
- S: Borrowing from the next column where the top digit is 8.

As a result of the teacher's guiding questions, the student was able to perform the actions that would lead to the construction of a novel skill. As such, the student's skill was the emergent product of joint action between the teacher and the student.

Engagement is central to interactive teaching. Engagement consists of the active investment of attention and affect toward a given activity. It involves actively adjusting one's own understandings, perspectives, and actions with those of others in order to complete a task or solve a particular problem. The more partners are able to coordinate learning activities between them, the deeper their level of engagement and the greater the potential is for learning. When performing a collaborative writing assignment, for example, little is achieved if students simply split the assignment and work independently. Learning occurs when students influence each other in a joint process of prewriting, outlining, identifying concepts, and composing a paper.

Thus, a major goal of interactive teaching is to motivate and structure student engagement in learning tasks. This requires engaging students intellectually, emotionally, and socially. One way to foster engagement, preferred by many U.S. educators, involves designing learning tasks that draw upon the existing interests of students. This may involve developing learning games that bring together learning, interaction, and emotional engagement (e.g., teaching through drama or art, involving students in selecting learning activities). An alternative approach, often invoked in Asian cultures, involves teaching students to identify with their learning activities and cultivating in students an attitude of perseverance in the context of effortful struggle.

Forms of Interactive Teaching

In addition to Socratic dialogue, other forms of interactive teaching include, but are not limited to, the following:

Feedback

Feedback is a central component of interactive teaching. When provided by teachers, it is helpful to provide specific rule-based feedback about the work's strengths and about what students must do to improve their work. The simple practice of making commentary on student work without also providing opportunities

for revision is ineffective. In this way, feedback feeds forward and provides direction, support, and encouragement for continued growth.

Think-Pair-Share

In think-pair-share, a teacher poses a question and students independently reflect upon and compose a response. Students then assemble in pairs to reflect jointly upon their work. The teacher then recruits volunteers to summarize the results of their joint activity and mediates a discussion on course concepts. This technique requires students to articulate their thoughts in writing and speech and fosters deeper understandings of the topic. It also emboldens students to share their thoughts with an increasingly larger audience.

Jigsaw Classroom

Developed by Elliot Aronson, the jigsaw technique draws upon the adage that students learn best when teaching others. Students are assigned to a series of expert groups. Each group works together on a particular task or assignment. The class is then redivided into a series of teaching groups, each composed of representatives from various expert groups. Using the knowledge and tools produced within their respective expert groups, each member of the teaching group explains his or her area of expertise to others. This technique helps students develop skills for reading and organizing ideas, summarizing, understanding the needs of an audience, speaking, and active listening.

Reciprocal Teaching

Developed by Annemarie Palincsar, reciprocal teaching helps students build skills for higher-order reading comprehension, summarization, and extracting and communicating main points of learning material. The teacher organizes students into groups of four. Students read the same assigned textual material, divided into four segments. For each segment, students assume one of four rotating roles. The *summarizer* points out the key ideas of the segment; the *questioner* poses questions intended to clarify the segment or make connections to other segments, readings, or ideas; the *clarifier* attempts to address the questions raised; on the basis of the discussion of the segment in question, the *predictor* advances a hypothesis about the contents of the next segment. This approach promotes higher-order metacognitive skills necessary to actively understand, interrogate, and reflect upon learning activities and their products.

Constructive Controversy

David Johnson and Roger Johnson have demonstrated that the experience of disagreement and cognitive conflict induces self-reflection in learners, which fosters deeper learning. In their constructive controversy technique, the teacher divides students into groups composed of two smaller groups (e.g., a foursome may be split into pairs). Each subgroup analyzes a different position on a contestable issue. Subgroups receive instruction on how to construct effective arguments supported by diverse forms of evidence. Subgroups then present their case for or against the issue in question. Thereafter, the subgroups may switch sides and continue the debate. To complete the task, the entire group may be asked to develop a consensus on the best position with regard to the problem.

Wikis and Online Discussion Boards

Like Wikipedia, students work together to create webpages on various topics in the course. Students then work together to evaluate, and thereupon edit, add to, and reorganize the entries. Using discussion boards, students can post comments to questions and comments posted by a teacher and fellow students and engage in asynchronous discussions, explorations, and debates with each other on any given topic. Discussion boards are available on Web-based education platforms such as *Blackboard*.

Peer Feedback and Peer Grading

Using a rubric of the teacher's creation, students can evaluate each other's papers, either in face-to-face interaction or anonymously. Using this technique, students develop an articulated understanding of the rules of writing and acquire the capacity to use those rules to modify written work. Further, students gain experience with writing of varying degrees of quality. Higher-quality papers provide models of effective writing; exposure to less skilled writing fosters an understanding of common errors. In face-to-face interaction, peer collaboration helps students become aware of, and articulate the structure of, written language.

Minute Papers

At the end of class, students are asked to write down three things that they learned in class and one question about what they learned. In pairs, students share their responses and address each other's questions. The teacher can use student comments and questions to inform subsequent classes.

Forum Theater

Theater can be an effective learning tool for applying and demonstrating course concepts and engaging the audience. In Forum Theater, developed by Augusto Boal, the actors and audience are asked to imagine different responses and outcomes to common problems. Dilemmas can be tailored to any discipline. Certain portions of a play or skit are prewritten (often a short scene). The play stops at a controversial point, where the *spect-actors* (audience) determine the fate of the actors. There are two variations of this technique: (1) the same actors remain but change their actions according to the audience's will, or (2) the spect-actors join the play by adding themselves as new characters who interact with the actors to construct solutions. The dilemmas presented force students to grapple with complexity and forge novel solutions to target problems.

Flipped Classroom

A flipped classroom draws upon the idea that unidirectional forms of communication (e.g., lecture) that make use of class time can just as effectively be performed by students outside of class. In a flipped classroom, students watch or listen to video or audio lectures, watch films, or engage in other forms of electronically delivered didactic activity outside of class. Classroom activity is devoted to interactive reflections on the material conveyed outside of class.

Conclusion: The Essential Role of the Teacher in Interactive Learning

Interactive teaching is sometimes confused with forms of teaching designed to minimize the role or authority of the teacher in the learning process. However, the teacher plays an essential role in the process of interactive teaching. Interactive teaching is much more than simply placing students in groups and fostering discussion. Without judicious guidance throughout the process of interaction, collaboration among novices can easily result in the creation of underdeveloped, and even flawed, outcomes. Because interactive learning requires the expert guidance of an authoritative teacher, it may be more useful to think of peer-based interactive learning as triadic (peer-teacher-peer) rather than simply dyadic (peer-peer) systems.

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See also Constructivist Approaches; Student Interest, Stimulating and Maintaining; Styles of Teaching; Teaching Philosophies and Approaches; Vygotsky, Lev

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INTERDISCIPLINARY TEAM TEACHING

The term *team teaching* is used in a variety of ways and for a multitude of purposes. Overall, team teaching is a way to organize instruction by giving responsibility to a group of teachers who work jointly to teach the students they have in common. Today, the term may include, but is not limited to, grade-level teams, co-teaching, inclusion teaching teams, and interdisciplinary team teaching. Irrespective of the type of team organization, Susan Trimble suggests there are certain factors that contribute to the effectiveness of teams: ability to (1) successfully fulfill a task, (2) meet the basic needs of those involved (e.g., members feel safe to participate), (3) create procedures and develop skills that support productivity and enhance energy and participation, and (4) adapt to changes with the environment (e.g., changes in resources, demographics). This entry focuses on *interdisciplinary teams*, also known as *interdisciplinary team organization* and *interdisciplinary teaming*. In today's schools, interdisciplinary teaming is most common at the middle school level.

Interdisciplinary Teaming

Interdisciplinary teaming is a unique way of organizing teachers and students so that a group of teachers from different subjects share the same small group of students, schedule, and location in the school building. The

Association for Middle Level Education suggests that interdisciplinary teaming is the foundation for effective middle level education, calling it the heart of highly successful middle schools.

For the past few decades, interdisciplinary teaming has been very popular in middle schools across the United States. In one study, 79% of the principals surveyed reported that their schools organized teachers and students on interdisciplinary teams. More recently, a study of 104 middle school teachers found that 67% of the respondents report that interdisciplinary teaming is completely implemented at their school sites. In recent years, high school reform efforts (e.g., small learning community initiative) have advocated that high school teachers should also be organized into interdisciplinary teams.

Interdisciplinary teams have unique organizational factors that set them apart from other types of teaching teams. First, a group of teachers from different subject areas share the same group of students. At the middle level, although teaching teams typically range in size from two to six teachers and from 40 to 190 students per team, at least one study has suggested no more than five teachers on a single middle school interdisciplinary team for teaching no more than 125 students. Other studies suggest teams with fewer than 120 students, adhering to a ratio of approximately 25 students per team teacher. Research on what schools actually do with regard to the size of interdisciplinary teams and the size of the group of students they serve suggests that principals roughly follow the no more than five teachers for teaching no more than 125 students guideline.

That said, research on middle school suggests that smaller teacher teams of two or three are optimal where, as a group, teachers have the ability to plan, teach, and assess the same students. On these smaller teams, each teacher may be assigned to teach one or more subjects. Subject area expertise of teachers on a single team typically covers the core subjects (social studies, science, language arts, and mathematics) and, on occasion, subjects from elective classes (e.g., physical education) and other specialty classes (e.g., reading). Typically one team teacher serves as team leader. Ideally, students are heterogeneously assigned to teams. In one study, 93% of middle school principals reported organizing students served by interdisciplinary teams in heterogeneous groups.

Teachers on interdisciplinary teams operate on the same schedule and tend to have all their team-taught students at the same time during the school day. This allows teachers to arrange and rearrange instructional time based on team, student, or instructional needs. For example, instead of spending one period in a mathematics class and the next period in a science class, team teachers may decide to merge these two classes into one large group for two periods in order to engage in an interdisciplinary lesson. Simultaneously, the social

studies and language arts teachers may meet with the other team students according to the normal schedule. The classes may then switch, and those students who were in language arts and social studies may come together for a double period of mathematics and science, while the other half of the student team goes to language arts and social studies as normally assigned.

A second example is when a student has trouble grasping a concept or topic and the team teachers use the flexibility in interdisciplinary teaming to negotiate how to best structure the student's schedule so he or she can receive additional support. These special arrangements to provide extra supports are made possible when interdisciplinary teams operate on the same schedule.

Team teachers have at least one common period of the day off from instruction. They can use this time off from instruction to plan together. Optimally, teachers on interdisciplinary teams should meet at least four times a week for a minimum of 30 minutes each session to coordinate team activities along with planning and integrating curricular, instructional, and assessment practices. One study found that the most common use of this time was for talking about specific student needs and coming up with ways to meet those needs.

Teachers also use this time to hold student interventions; schedule parent conferences; collaborate to create consistent expectations, rules, and procedures; develop integrated lessons; and maintain written accounts of all team-based activities. Common time for planning is, then, critical to the effectiveness of interdisciplinary team teaching. Ideally teachers have one individual and one common planning period per day.

Interdisciplinary teams tend to be located (or ideally are located) in the same area of the school building and with their classrooms in close proximity to one another. In this arrangement, students move from one team teacher's classroom to the next in a very short period of time. This type of organization also affords everyone, teachers and students alike, the opportunity to establish a sense of connectedness and identity.

Optimally, teachers on interdisciplinary teams work together for an extended period of time. This affords the opportunity for teachers to develop strong bonds with one another and coordinate quality curricular and instructional practices. While interdisciplinary teaming can be interpreted as merely an organization rearrangement of students and teachers, it is much more in that it includes a great amount of teamwork and dedication on the part of teachers and students. Teamwork is required for students and teachers to foster a sense of community, an essential element of interdisciplinary teaming.

Benefits of Interdisciplinary Teaming

In 2010, the National Middle School Association (now known as the Association for Middle Level Education)

published *This We Believe: Keys to Educating Young Adolescents*. In this book, interdisciplinary teaming is noted to foster a sense of family, safety, respect, and support for both teachers and students. With interdisciplinary teaming in place, students and teachers begin to naturally develop teamwork, and teachers naturally experience numerous benefits from being teamed with colleagues from other disciplines who share similar students. Interdisciplinary teaming can reduce teachers' sense of isolation and foster collegial support, teaching efficacy, and teacher professionalism. Teachers on interdisciplinary teams report increased positive perceptions of school/work climate as a result of being teamed. Teaming can also promote an increase in teacher talk about student needs, and it can help teachers nurture individual student relationships with their students. Additionally, teachers who are teamed are more likely to hold, communicate, and reinforce consistent behavioral and academic expectations.

Interdisciplinary teaming also affords students numerous benefits, including opportunities to establish a sense of community, develop deep relationships with teachers and classmates, and form an affiliation with a peer group. For both teachers and students, then, interdisciplinary teaming has the potential to create a personal, supportive family-like learning environment where members feel a sense of connectedness and purpose.

Conclusion: Challenges

Lessons learned at the middle level suggest there are numerous challenges to creating and sustaining exemplary interdisciplinary teams, ones that create good learning environments for all. First of all, for many, establishing true interdisciplinary teams is very difficult to implement and sustain in today's educational context. For example, in Florida, a recent survey indicated interdisciplinary teaming has been reduced recently because of funding issues and, in some cases, because of issues having to do with accountability and assessment. Further, a lack of leadership with the knowledge of the purpose and procedure for implementing interdisciplinary teams, and inadequate clarity and execution of the overall middle school concept, has further slowed or in some cases undermined the implementation of interdisciplinary teaming in the middle-level education.

However, despite the challenges, the research and reports indicate that interdisciplinary teaming in middle schools is likely to stay because of the positive effects it has on both teaching and learning.

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See also Co-Teaching for Inclusive Classrooms; Ecological Approaches; Teacher Teaming and Professional Development

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INTERPERSONAL ATTRIBUTION THEORY AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Attribution theory is about our answers to the *why* questions we ask ourselves about events in our lives: “Why did that happen? Was it my fault or hers? Should I help? Is she not able to do it or not willing to do it?” Attribution theory points out that what we call our experience is not something that simply happens to us. It also is what we make of it—how we explain it to ourselves and others. Furthermore, the theory shows that understanding attributions and the way they function in classrooms is central to understanding student learning and motivation.

Intrapersonal and Interpersonal Attributions

Why questions and corresponding attributions come in two types. The first type, *intrapersonal* attribution, addresses self-perception, or why questions about the self: “Why did I fail?” “Why did I succeed?” The second type, *interpersonal* attribution, addresses other-perception, or why questions about others: “Why did she do that?” The attribution sequence for both types begins with an outcome or event, particularly one that is negative, unexpected, or important. The event is then interpreted using attributions to explain it, and the attributions trigger emotions that then fuel a response.

The particular explanations or contents that emerge during this sequence—the answers to why questions—are not in the events themselves. Rather, they are learned. This means they can be taught, thereby giving teachers an important role to play in the attribution process, a role that is part of the overall task of instituting good classroom management practices. Indeed, classroom management is a key vehicle not only for teaching the rules and roles in the classroom but also the expectations, regulations, and accountability mechanisms in society—expectations, regulations, and accountability that can be reinforced through teaching and supporting particular ways of attributing. Teachers can assume this role through modeling appropriate interpretations of and responses to events and through explicitly teaching why they are reasonable. As a generalized proactive approach to managing classrooms, through informative tasks, modeling, and guided demonstration, teachers can convey the honor of struggle and realistic yet optimistic self-appraisals.

Attribution theory can help teachers design powerful socialization practices. Among attribution theorists, Bernard Weiner, a professor of psychology at the University of California, Los Angeles, has been the most influential in understanding how attribution theory informs classroom dynamics. Accordingly, we emphasize his work.

Our primary focus in this entry is *interpersonal* attribution theory and what that means for how teachers respond to troublesome student behavior, how students respond to one another, and how both teachers and students can manage their self-presentations for others. *Intrapersonal* attribution theory is addressed thoroughly elsewhere in this encyclopedia. Therefore, we only briefly review *intrapersonal* theory and its implications for students’ personal achievement and peer understandings in order to differentiate *intrapersonal* theory from *interpersonal* theory.

Intrapersonal Attribution Theory: Why Did That Happen to Me?

Intrapersonal attribution theory is the more well-known and studied approach in classrooms. Typically, the focus is on achievement-related success and, especially, on failure experiences: “Why did I do so poorly on that test?” “Why is this so hard for me?” However, there is also what is called *interpersonal*, or *affiliation-related*, success and failure. *Affiliation-related* successes and failures are less studied, but arguably just as important to students and to beginning teachers in particular: “Why don’t you like me?” is one of the central questions stimulating *affiliation-related* attributions.

One implication for classroom management practices to be gleaned from this literature is that all is not what it seems. How students interpret achievement and

affiliation events is as important, if not more so, than the actual, or surface-level, characteristics of an event. For example, consider two students, Chris and Pat. Each receives the same good progress comment on a math assignment. Chris is elated; Pat is troubled. How can that be? Consider each student's point of view and the attribution sequence for both.

The attribution sequence begins with the good progress feedback. Attributional ascriptions are more likely to occur when an event is important, unexpected, or negative. Thus, theory predicts that Chris, delighted with the comment, is probably less likely to ask why questions about the feedback unless it was unexpected (e.g., Chris does not usually attain good progress feedback) and/or important to him (e.g., good progress is the criterion for admission to the STEM club, which Chris wants to join). On the other hand, Pat, who is not happy with this good progress feedback, is theoretically more likely to interpret why this happened.

Thus, attribution theory begins with an event considered positive or not, important or not, that is embedded in the context of personal history and social norms. Events that are perceived by the individual as negative and important are key predictors of attributional search. That search begins with the person's explanation or reason for the event.

Although the reason, or ascription, given for an event varies from person to person, there is general understanding and considerable agreement among attribution theorists that ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck are the most common types of reasons given for achievement surprises and disappointments. There is less understanding and agreement about affiliation explanations (e.g., appearance, personality), though affiliation explanations are assumed to function similarly to achievement explanations. Both types serve as the target for the next phase of the attributional sequence, which involves an analysis of the underlying structure of the reasons given for why things happen.

The attributional, or underlying, structure for why things happen consists of three dimensions: the perceived (1) locus or source of the event, (2) stability or frequency of the event, and (3) controllability that the person has in the kind of situation in which the event took place. The source, or locus, of an event can be internal or external to the student; locus informs self-related feelings such as pride and self-esteem. Stability addresses how likely the event is going to happen again. The event itself can be likely (stable) or unlikely (unstable) to recur; thus, stability informs prediction of similar future events. Finally, controllability considers how much the individual can take charge of or control the situation. A student may believe he or she can or cannot personally control what happened; this belief may inform situational self-conscious emotions such as shame and guilt. These three

dimensions include two affective (or value) components and one predictive (or expectancy) component.

To illustrate how the concepts and distinctions work in classroom settings, consider again the case of Pat, the student who appears disappointed with the good progress math feedback. Pat is more likely than Chris to engage in the attribution process because good progress is subjectively undesirable. Perhaps Pat expected excellent and wonders "Why didn't I get a better comment?" If the answer is "Maybe I should have tried harder," we would expect Pat to put in more effort next time. This is because the underlying structure of a *lack of effort* reason for failure is internal locus, unstable, and uncontrollable. Thus, Pat may think, "It's my fault (internal), and I will do better next time (unstable) because I'll try harder on the next assignment (controllable)." Note that the emotion fueling Pat's future behavior is guilt for not having met a standard of excellence in the first place.

Interpersonal Attribution Theory: Why Did You Do That?

Interpersonal attribution theory parallels the sequence and causal dimensions of the intrapersonal work, but now the focus is on how we perceive and attribute events that happen to others or on the results of others' actions. The introspection of intrapersonal theory is now turned outward; we decide or judge if others are responsible and thus accountable for their actions.

Of the three causal dimensions, controllability emerges as a key determinant in these judgments. Controllability considerations can include the notion of intention as well: "Was the behavior done on purpose?" "Was it the result of carelessness?" "Callousness?" Controllability and intention assessments inform how an individual holds others responsible for their actions. These assessments in turn inform and elicit emotions, which then fuel the consequences that are endorsed or enacted. For example, if an individual is perceived to have acted in a way that harms someone else (a negative outcome occurs) and could have done differently (e.g., she was able to control her actions), others may respond with anger or perhaps sadness, and those feelings would propel them to hold the individual accountable for the damage or harm that occurred. In such a situation, if it is possible, the response is to punish. These basic dynamics apply in the world outside and inside of classrooms.

Teacher-Student Relationships

Mary Rohrkemper identified how teachers' attributional interpretations of student behavior influenced their responses to it. If, for example, a student failed to successfully complete homework, the teacher's response

(whether it be to extend help, withhold help, or administer punishment) depended on his or her attributions of student controllability and intention. Teachers punished student failure to correctly complete homework if the behavior was perceived as controllable and intentional (i.e., the student was believed to be able, but not willing). In contrast, teachers were sympathetic and supportive if the unsatisfactory homework was attributed to uncontrollable and unintentional causes (e.g., the student was believed to be unable to understand the assignment or unable because of illness). What about missing homework believed to be due to controllable but unintentional causes (e.g., not managing time well enough to complete the task)? When this happened, students received behavior change contracts with reinforcement schedules to support desired behavior.

As these examples suggest, interpersonal attribution theory is a powerful vehicle for deliberately teaching the rules and expectations we hold for ourselves and for others, not only in the classroom but also in life in general. However, to effectively do so, teachers must be aware of how interpersonal attributions occur and how they can affect relationships between teachers and students. Students can understand these dynamics as well, particularly if teachers model and explain the linkages in a teacher-student management episode. These management episodes occur in the following sequence: student behavior, teacher attributions, teacher emotions, teacher response, student attributions, student emotions, and student behavior. Even students in the early grades profit from explanations and can understand why seemingly the same behavior is considered irresponsible in one situation but not in another.

Consider Pat and Chris again. The good progress feedback on each of their assignments might have resulted from their teacher's judgments about each student's ability and effort. For example, perhaps the students differ in math readiness, which the teacher believes is beyond student control. Chris generally struggles, and Pat readily excels. In this assignment, the teacher believed that Chris spent a considerable amount of time on the task while Pat spent too little. The teacher then attributes Chris's difficulties to low readiness to learn (uncontrollable), yet Chris expends considerable effort nonetheless, fulfilling the moral imperative of classrooms to maximize one's talents. In response, the teacher feels positive and supportive and provides increased reassurance and support. In contrast, the teacher attributes Pat's performance as the result of a quite capable student who did not bother to live up to that capability (controllable). That controllable and culpable judgment likely results in teacher anger and disappointment. Thus, the same *good progress* feedback was meant to encourage Chris, yet remind Pat that he is not done. Anger is the emotion

fueling the teacher's reprimand of Pat; sympathy is fueling her support of Chris.

In sum, attributional analyses inform our responses to others' actions (as teachers managing groups of students) and others' evaluations of them (as students figure out why the teacher is mad at Alex but not at Jess, when neither of them did the homework). Attributional understanding helps students move beyond simple behavior comparison as students learn that fair consequences are based upon perceptions about *why* behavior occurred.

All this provides perspective on current school policies, such as *zero tolerance* and *three strikes and you are out* policies that are based solely on behavior. From an attribution theory perspective, zero-tolerance policies can be seen as unfair and unjust because they violate our need to understand why when assigning consequences.

Peer Relationships

Interpersonal attribution processes affect affiliation dynamics as well. Students can evaluate and manage others' perceptions of their own behavior. You have probably witnessed the Eddie Haskell (from the vintage television show *Leave It to Beaver*) student who engages in behaviors that the teacher interprets as respectful but that actually are anything but, as the student plays to the peer audience.

Consider also how a quite capable student might juggle the dual goals of impressing the teacher with realized high achievement and getting along with peers by trying not to outshine, tarnish, or be tarnished by others' performance. Imagine that Chris and Pat are friends. Chris notices the "good progress!" on both of their papers even though Pat earned the higher score. Chris congratulates Pat. Pat is unhappy with the good progress feedback and score, but says, "Thanks; I wasn't too sure about it, so I must've gotten lucky this time!" In this scenario, Pat is attributing the higher score to external causes (luck), which Chris then attributes to Pat's modesty. He smiles and thinks about what a good guy Pat is. What if Pat had said instead, "Thanks; I barely tried on this assignment, so I must be pretty good!" How would you expect Chris to think about and respond to Pat now? Although Chris is engaging in social comparison in both cases, the latter scenario of boasting and perceived arrogance is more likely to result in resentment or envy, emotions that hinder friendship.

What about helping classmates? Imagine that a student asks to borrow a classmate's class notes for the upcoming midterm, and this is a classmate who shows up and is attentive in class no matter where else he or she might rather be. Why does the student need the classmate's notes? Consider these possibilities. The help

seeker needs the notes because (1) there were so many great parties this semester, it was hard to study, let alone get up for class; (2) grandmother is dying, and time with her is precious; (3) it is hard to know when one has studied enough, and this is another chance to review. How would interpersonal attribution theory predict when the classmate would lend his or her notes?

Conclusion

Attribution theory, both *intrapersonal* and *interpersonal*, informs how people make sense of what happens to them and what they see others do. However, attribution theory can do more than explain past events. Attribution theory also can be a powerful design tool for the development and implementation of deliberate classroom management practices that proactively teach students the rules, roles, and reasons that are the glue of social relationships and institutions. In using attribution theory this way, classroom management becomes a way to teach life management, and in so doing, teachers have the opportunity to optimize their students' attainment and well-being over the long haul.

Mary McCaslin and Christine Calderon Vriesema

See also Attribution Theory; Teacher–Student Relationships

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INTERPERSONAL SYSTEMS AND PROBLEM BEHAVIOR

Teachers can get stuck when they strictly adhere to individual-oriented approaches, approaches that have value most of the time but in certain cases do not work. Even the best-designed behavioral intervention and a

curriculum tailored to a student's interests can fail to curb a persistent problem behavior. An interpersonal systems approach is meant for just such times—when teachers feel stuck, when methods focusing on the individual student do not work, and when all the usual methods have failed.

With an interpersonal systems approach, instead of viewing problems as being located inside individuals, problems are viewed as reflections of a dysfunctional interpersonal system in the classroom. That is, when using an interpersonal systems approach, you look at a student as if you are looking into a mirror reflecting back something wrong with the classroom system. Doing so not only leads to exploring alternative methods designed to confront the problem behavior indirectly, it also prevents a student from being stigmatized as the bad student, class clown, or whatever.

Background

Surprisingly, there is virtually no research and only one book (by Alex Molnar and Barbara Lindquist) on using an interpersonal systems approach to address persistent problem behaviors in classrooms. Furthermore, the most comprehensive handbook on behavior and classroom management (edited by Carolyn Evertson and Carol Weinstein) makes no mention of an interpersonal systems approach to addressing problem behaviors in classrooms.

The approach itself is an outgrowth of family systems theory and a movement in counseling and clinical psychology during the mid- to late twentieth century. Critical of the then dominant focus on individuals and their pathology, several scholar-clinicians (e.g., Murray Bowen, Jay Haley, Don Jackson, Salvador Minuchin) developed family systems theory to refocus attention on dysfunctional patterns of interaction among family members. They found that doing so provided a better way to understand and treat chronic and serious problem behavior within families.

Classrooms too can develop dysfunctional patterns of interaction, and so the interpersonal systems approach for classrooms is a logical extension of family systems theory. As in the case of family therapy, using an interpersonal systems approach for persistent problem behaviors in classrooms leads to focusing on three things in particular, namely (1) *reframing the problem behavior*, (2) *changing a pattern of interacting so as to change the system*, and (3) *developing better boundaries*.

Reframing the Problem Behavior

When we take a systems approach, we realize that we are part of the dysfunctional system needing changing.

That includes the way we define problems. In particular, the negative ways we define problems can contribute to maintaining the problem. Furthermore, often the problems themselves can be reframed to take into account positive aspects of the problematic situation, thereby helping considerably.

Take, for example, the case of Dennis, a first-grader who before entering first grade had been labeled by everyone in entirely negative ways (as being violent and impulsive, as having ADHD and language delays). Prior to first grade, Dennis had an aide assigned to him, and he and his aide essentially spent all their time together, so that Dennis was never integrated into the kindergarten classroom community. For Dennis, the kindergarten classroom was dysfunctional for not helping him acquire social skills and for preventing him from becoming a contributing member of the classroom community.

In first grade, Dennis's teacher, Kristen Willand, committed herself to changing the schoolwide and classroom system that was so dysfunctional for Dennis. Rather than continuing the pattern of framing Dennis and his behaviors as problems, she found ways to find something positive even in the most bizarre circumstances. For example, here is Willand responding to a time when Dennis did something that others might well have labeled as outrageous, disruptive, or dangerous.

When Dennis made a beeline for the colored pencils by walking on chairs and desktops, teacher Willand, said, "That's a great idea to use colored pencils for your journal. And you got them all by yourself—good thinking." She went on to suggest that in the future, he keep his feet on the floor, which he agreed to do.

By finding positives in Dennis's motivation and in his taking initiative, Willand was changing the interpersonal system to make it a more positive system that worked for Dennis.

Here's another example of reframing used with a student whose problem behavior had continued and resisted conventional ways of intervening.

In one second-grade classroom, Jamie, a boy who had been disrupting the classroom and who wasn't changing despite the usual methods for containing his behavior, started to respond better when his disruptive behavior was reframed. For example, once he suddenly jumped up from a class meeting and started to dance. His teacher, Marion Reynolds, turned to his classmates and in a matter-of-fact voice said, "Jamie likes to dance." Without further

discussion, Jamie sat down and joined the discussion going on in the meeting.

Reframing is especially important for the most challenging children—those with serious diagnoses such as conduct disorder and those whose behavior is so challenging as to warrant their being schooled in segregated programs. Here is Joseph Cambone in his book *Teaching Troubled Children* helping us reframe so as to better serve these children:

We repeatedly use words such as *disordered, impaired, maladaptive, deficient, and deviant* to describe our students; we argue that there is a clear need to *remediate, manage, and train* them. . . . Of course, given the behavior of many of these children, these are logical appellations. But equally logical are labels such as *resourceful, resilient, clever, creative, and tenacious*, especially when we consider how many of these students continue to function in difficult living situations, or, for instance, how they can often talk or work their way out of a jam, or how they can deftly manipulate the classroom behavioral system. We don't readily consider these strengths, because they are too often mustered toward unhealthy ends. Yet, they are strengths nonetheless and, with an effort of thought on our part, can be redirected toward healthier ends. (p. 167)

Most of the positive labels mentioned by Cambone are labels having to do with how troubled children have managed to *function*. Faced with abusive and/or neglectful parents, some come to mistrust adults in general and survive by becoming fiercely independent, to the point that they resist any attempts to control them.

Changing a Pattern of Interacting

From a systems perspective, changing a pattern of interacting is not so complicated as one might expect. In fact, it can be fairly straightforward, even simple. Furthermore, it can lead to a change in an entire system.

Consider the all-too-common pattern in the way teachers communicate with parents in their notes sent home to inform parents about how their child is doing in school. While this pattern does not occur within the classroom, it often can have significant effects on classroom behavior and maintain a dysfunctional interpersonal system. Here is an example reported by one teacher who became aware of the dysfunctional pattern of behavior she had initiated and then went about changing it:

Olivia was a bright fourth grader who was generally uninterested in school. . . . She would read while others were sharing, draw on the desk when she was supposed to be collaborating with classmates, and sometimes she would miss entire math concepts because she had ignored multiple requests to work on practice problems.

Each week, the teachers sent home folders, and Olivia's folder always had positive comments about her academics, but usually one or two comments about behavioral issues, such as her needing to listen better to her classmates, and participate more in groups. The notes home did not help, and Olivia's behavior worsened.

The teacher met with Olivia's mother to discuss her progress and performance a few weeks into the school year. Olivia's mother explained that when Olivia received negative comments, she became very upset and withdrawn, and that these notes exacerbated her anxiety about school. The teacher and mother made a plan to focus only on positive feedback in the weekly folders, and to communicate about problematic behavior confidentially.

The teacher began writing notes home that were completely positive. She made sure to note when Olivia had participated in a discussion. The good reports acted as a self-fulfilling prophecy. Olivia became much more engaged in classroom activities and instruction.

Another method following an interpersonal systems approach leading to a change in some pattern of interacting is assigning a paradoxical role. For example, in one early childhood center, a little boy was constantly getting into accidents that were often caused by his being careless, impulsive, and otherwise acting without enough thought. To combat this carelessness, the boy was assigned the role of class safety inspector—a role that required him to occasionally patrol the classroom to see that everyone was being safe and under control so that there would be no accidents. He relished the role, and his own carelessness causing accidents decreased significantly.

Developing Better Boundaries

An interpersonal systems approach is also concerned with the boundaries separating subsystems. In classrooms and schools, the main subsystems are the

subsystem made up of teachers and the subsystem made up of students. Other subsystems include the special education team (reading specialist, occupational therapist, school psychologist—or whatever team has been assembled to carry out individualized education programs) and school administrators (principal, assistant principal—whoever makes up the administration of the school). In the wings, there are parents who make up their own subsystem.

However, under different circumstances, there are apt to be different configurations of subsystems. So, for example, while the special educators and those serving as supports for classroom teachers may form a subsystem of their own, when special and regular educators work together in the same classroom, they form a single subsystem, a subsystem differentiated from that of the student subsystem. The point, then, is that there are various ways to configure subsystems, and any one way may not be stable.

Subsystems function well or not so well depending, in part, on the *boundaries* that separate them from one another. As one might imagine, not all boundaries are created equal. Some are too *rigid*, making it difficult for subsystems to interact with and support one another, whereas some are too *diffuse*, making it difficult to tell who is in what subsystem. The ideal boundary is *clear*, not too diffuse and not too rigid.

In classroom systems with clear boundaries, teachers are higher in the power hierarchy than students, but their authority still allows for give-and-take discussions between teacher and students, discussions that make students feel known and supported. With clear boundaries, teachers share personal feelings about what is going on in the school and classroom, thus showing their human side, but they do so carefully and without sharing much personal information about their lives outside of school, lest they make students, especially adolescents, uncomfortable.

The development of problematic boundaries most often occurs when teachers adopt roles that create barriers between themselves and students (rigid boundary) or when their authority erodes to be the point that students are in control of the class (diffuse boundary). In classrooms with rigid boundaries, the teacher and the students are apt to become strangers to one another. Communication between teacher and students becomes almost nonexistent, resulting in disengagement by the students from the teacher. In classrooms with diffuse boundaries, teachers have difficulty maintaining the power that their role demands—letting students control the classroom. They may also at times share personal feelings and information about their personal lives that further ensures a diffuse boundary between themselves and students.

In schools, the concept of boundaries can be extended to evaluate relationships between other subsystems, particularly relationships between the administration, special education, parental, and teacher subsystems. Ideally, school administrators (superintendents, principals, vice principals, etc.) provide leadership (establish boundaries) but allow for communication, dialogue, and support for teachers—so that the boundary between these two subsystems is clear, not rigid or nonexistent. When this fails to happen, the overall school system can become dysfunctional—and the trickle-down effect can be behavior problems, especially if there are high rates of teacher turnover.

Rigid boundaries may also describe problematic relationships between the regular and special education subsystems. Returning once again to the case of Dennis, at the beginning of his first-grade school year, Dennis spent a portion of his day in a small group with a reading specialist. Unfortunately, the reading specialist and teacher Willand had little contact with one another, resulting in Dennis going from the classroom's literature-based approach to reading to an entirely different approach. The disconnect upset Dennis to the point that he continually misbehaved when he was in the special reading group. It was only when the reading specialist and teacher Willand began to coordinate their approaches that Dennis's behavior in the special reading group improved.

Conclusion

In this entry, we have seen how stepping back to look at the larger picture can sometimes help us get unstuck.

The larger picture here is about classroom interpersonal systems, systems made up of patterns in the way individuals interact. We have found that often what are taken to be problems *of* students and problems *inside* students are better viewed as problems in the classroom system. Here, too, we have found that systemic problems often have to do with how we have framed problems, how we need to change something having to do with patterns of interacting in order to change the system, and how we need to create boundaries between subsystems that are clear, not rigid or diffuse. By attending to these matters having to do with the classroom interpersonal system, we can better ensure that even the most difficult and challenging children, those who resist help from the usual methods, will have a better chance of changing their ways and beginning to thrive in their classrooms.

W. George Scarlett

See also Approaches to Classroom Management: Types; Dynamic and Relational Systems Theory; Reframing

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J

JAPANESE MODEL OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

The Japanese model of lesson study is now well known in many countries. The core components of lesson study—sharing lessons, discussing a lesson with one's peers, and so on—are seen as a means by which teachers can engage in self-initiated, bottom-up, and collaborative improvement of their teaching. The teaching of subjects, however, is but one axis of the Japanese model of schooling. The other is to develop the nonacademic aspects of the child by building a classroom community in which students feel accepted and are thus motivated. The two axes together constitute the basic principle of school education in Japan—the education of the whole child.

As many countries engage in educational reform for the twenty-first century, developing the social/emotional as well as academic aspects of a child is commonly emphasized. However, in many cases, the former is something *additional* or *informal*, rather than something equal or fundamental to teaching subjects. The characteristic of the Japanese model is that developing the nonacademics is seen as providing the basis for academic achievement and is part of the official curriculum, required of all teachers; the core period in this regard is called special activities (*tokubetsu katsudo*; *tokkatsu* for short).

The goal of *tokkatsu* is to create a caring classroom community. It does so, in part, by bringing together diverse activities such as classroom meetings and cleaning (standard of 34–35 unit hours per year, excluding lunch). The goal of *tokkatsu* for elementary school, as stated in the Course of Study of the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) definition, is purposeful group activities that

aim to develop the whole child and that encourage both interpersonal competence and individuality. It is to help students form proactive and productive interpersonal relationships, as well as develop a positive outlook on life.

The goal for junior high school is similar and so will not be repeated here. At the elementary school level, *tokkatsu* includes (1) classroom activities, (2) children's organization activities, (3) club activities, and (4) school events (similar for secondary school). Classroom management is related to all of these, but most visibly to classroom activities.

Basic Structure

Classroom management, Japanese style, as part of *tokkatsu* has the following features: (1) it provides carefully planned collaborative activities in small groups that operate as semiautonomous units; (2) it cuts across subjects and nonacademic activities, unifying them under the banner of the whole child; (3) it is based on the philosophy of learning through direct engagement in collaborative activities; and (4) it tries to form a win-win situation for the individual and the group.

First, two different types of group roles are usually available in Japanese classrooms. The first type covers chores, which are essential for the well-being of the classroom, such as serving lunch and cleaning the classroom. The classroom is broken down into small groups, which are periodically reorganized. The principle is heterogeneity, bringing together children who might otherwise not interact with each other (e.g., diverse gender, academic ability). Small groups become responsible for cleaning (including the restrooms), and they rotate responsibilities, since all members are equally responsible for the well-being of the classroom and the school. The second type of group roles covers

occasions when children choose activities according to their individual preference, such as taking care of the classroom pet and organizing classroom parties. There are also classroom monitors (e.g., a girl and a boy), who rotate daily, and who are responsible for leading the class for that day.

Not all children are equally engaged or liked by others. Accordingly, the *tokkatsu* asks teachers to become coordinators, encouraging students to interact and solve their own problems, but the collaborative norms of *tokkatsu* are quite clear. The norm of collaboration tries to maintain a delicate balance of encouraging all to contribute in some way to building a classroom/school community, but each in his or her own way. As with the collaborative norms for lesson study for teachers, attacking individuals is discouraged. Though guidebooks by teachers routinely encourage teachers to step back, they are also clear in advising teachers to step in if members of a group start to, for example, attack a certain student. Not all students contribute equally to cleaning the classroom. However, if certain members of the small group try to become free riders, this norm of collaboration serves as a basis for the other members to express their unhappiness. Especially in elementary school, which is seen as spanning the most formative years, disputes in small groups often become the topic of classroom discussion. There are classroom meetings in the beginning and at the end of each school day, led by daily monitors.

Challenge for Teachers

The practice of *tokkatsu* for Japanese students is simply a part of daily school life since it is not contained in any one class. For teachers, it is both challenging and rewarding to design a learning process that occurs throughout the school day, from year one in elementary school throughout the entire school education process.

The yearly goal for *tokkatsu*, as for any other teaching area, is laid out in a yearly plan. Teachers prepare lesson plans for specific activities, such as classroom discussion, as they would for math and science.

The significance of situating classroom management in the curriculum is that it enables networks of teachers to develop locally and nationally, as they do in subject areas. Motivated teachers form their own learning groups, which serve as bottom-up, teacher-initiated, collaborative learning sites. There are learning groups for *tokkatsu* at the local and national levels, which hold meetings periodically, where teachers share their lessons on school events and exchange information. Teachers take turns serving on the organizing committee, observe each other's lessons, learn from best practices, and formulate their style for their classroom.

Of course, not all teachers are equally skilled in managing their classrooms, and the composition of the teachers and students in a school change over time. As in lesson study, *tokkatsu* tries to use teacher collaboration to adjust to such differences as part of an ongoing process.

Ryoko Tsuneyoshi

See also Approaches to Classroom Management: Types; Caring Approaches; Character Education; Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning; Cooperative Learning Groups; Social and Emotional Learning

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- Tsuneyoshi, R. ed. (2012). *Tokkatsu: The Japanese approach to whole child education* (a guidebook for teachers), translated by Mary Louise Tamaru, available for download from the Graduate School of Education, University of Tokyo, Tsuneyoshi homepage: <http://www.p.u-tokyo.ac.jp/gs/staff>

Examples of local and national *tokkatsu*-related teachers' learning groups as of October 2012:

- National Research Association of Special Activities (Zenkoku Tokubetsu Katsudo Kenkyukai): <http://www.tim.hi-ho.ne.jp/zentokkatu/>
- Special Activities "Association for Hope" (Tokubetsu Katsudo "Kibo no Kai"): <http://kibounokai.net/>
- Japan Association for the Study of Extraclass Activities (Nihon Tokubetsu Katsudo Gakkai): <http://www.soc.nii.ac.jp/tokkatsu/>
- The Japanese School Event Research Group for Elementary School (Zenkoku Shogakko Gakko Gyoji Kenkyukai): <http://zeshougyouken2009.jp/>
- National Research Association for Morals and Special Activities (Zenkoku Dotoku Tokubetsu Katsudo Kenkyukai): http://www.geocities.jp/dokkatsu_katarukai/index.html

JONES, FRED

Over several decades, researchers have investigated the commonalities and methods that effective teachers use when managing students. Among the pioneer researchers in this area of *classroom discipline*, as it was known in the 1960s, was Fredric H. (Fred) Jones (1940–). A clinical psychologist and expert on the socialization of children, Jones served as a faculty member at both University of California–Los Angeles and the University of Rochester. In 1969, he was asked to consult in a private school for emotionally and behaviorally challenged students. It was there that he discovered that even *problematic* students could behave and participate in academic instruction when the teacher demonstrated certain fundamental skills. This became a launching point for his founding works, *Positive Classroom Discipline* and *Positive Classroom Instruction*. Both writings were based on applying nonadversarial classroom management procedures.

In 2001, Jones published *Tools for Teaching*, with the purpose of enriching and describing over 2 decades of teacher training principles in classroom management. He believes that teachers who did not demonstrate competency in the area of classroom management could be trained to become competent—and this belief led to his numerous presentations, workshops, professional development sessions, and DVDs detailing steps in becoming a more effective classroom manager. (The third edition was released in e-book form in 2014.) This entry outlines Jones’s basic beliefs and describes his suggestions for techniques for better classroom management through integration of discipline and instruction.

Basic Beliefs

Jones believes that every teacher should enjoy teaching and be invigorated by the process of teaching. However, he found that teachers were often exhausted, stressed, and overworked. Through thousands of hours of classroom observations, Jones was able to pinpoint some typical areas of difficulty for teachers. He discovered that large portions of academic time were squandered through procedural tasks (e.g., sharpening pencils, turning in homework, taking attendance). Additionally, lesson instruction was a teacher-directed process, with the teacher being active while the students remained passively seated. Furthermore, he learned that when students were given *independent* work time, they took this as an opportunity not to work but to *goof off*. Consequently, teachers often resorted to nagging students rather than systemically implementing a management system.

Ultimately, when common misbehaviors are prevented or handled efficiently, a teacher can concentrate on instructional practices rather than disciplinary measures. As a result, students are able to work positively and productively throughout the school day.

Integration of Discipline and Instruction

Discipline should be implemented in a positive and unobtrusive manner. Ideally, discipline tactics should benefit students in a constructive way, allowing for maximized instruction time. Jones’s main methods can be categorized into six clusters of teaching skills. They are

- classroom structure,
- limit setting through class agreement,
- limit setting through body language,
- say, see, do,
- responsibility training, and
- providing efficient help to individual students.

Classroom Structure

The most basic factor that governs the likelihood of student misbehavior is the physical distance between the teacher and the student. The closer the teacher is to the student, the less likely the student is to misbehave. Arrangement of classroom furniture is pivotal in allowing the teacher to not only have eye contact with every student but also to reduce the physical proximity to a minimum, at least for those students most likely to misbehave. Jones emphasizes the importance of establishing wide walkways or *boulevards* to allow teachers to freely walk around the classroom at all times. He terms this *working the crowd*.

Limit Setting

Boundaries and limits may be established in the classroom through the use of classroom agreements and nonverbal communication, more specifically, body language. Classroom agreements or classroom rules need to be formed at the beginning of the school year. Discussion with the students about desirable and undesirable behaviors allows student input and fosters a sense of ownership. In addition, incentives and social rewards are paired with proper behaviors to maximize success.

Body language is a powerful tool for limit setting and can send the message to students that the teacher *means business*. Some common nonverbal techniques are eye contact, physical proximity, body posture, and facial expressions.

Say, See, Do

The goal of each lesson is for students to not only comprehend but also store the information in their long-term memory. As discussed earlier in this entry, students learn best by *doing* or becoming actively involved during instruction. Jones has based the *Say, See, Do* cycle on the following pattern: input, output, input, output, input, output. After students have been taught a manageable amount of information (input), they do something with that information (output). Basically, this method allows instruction to be interactive in nature and breaks large chunks of information into smaller chunks. The cycle includes explanation, modeling, and action. In the end, student comprehension and retention of material increases.

Responsibility Training

Responsibility training is based on the assumption that students will behave and do what they are expected to do and cooperate with the teacher's directives. Basically, this training teaches students to make choices about the use of their time and accepting the positive and negative consequences that go with those decisions. Jones highlights a particular incentive system labeled PAT (Preferred Activity Time), as well as backup systems, as a way to teach responsibility.

Providing Efficient Help to Individual Students

It is within this category that Jones defines what he calls the *helpless handraisers*. These are students who constantly demand attention from the teacher and seek individual tutoring sessions after instruction has taken place. Learned helplessness and loss of control of the classroom are two results from this practice.

Throughout his work, Jones describes two techniques in combating helpless handraisers. Through the use of verbal modalities (i.e., Praise, Prompt, and Leave) and visual modalities (Visual Instruction Plans), students can begin to take responsibility and control over their own learning.

Conclusion

Fred Jones's years of research have highlighted the practices of successful and effective teachers, as well as made a case for the intertwining of both instruction and discipline. Embedded in his work and emphasized throughout *Tools for Teaching* is the significance of student motivation/engagement, student involvement during lessons, and the teacher's ability to be proactive. Teachers at any level may benefit from his practical and low-cost instructional materials.

Stacey L. Allred

See also Ecological Approaches; Limits and Limit Setting; Organization of Classrooms: Space; Proximity: Meaning and Uses; Self-Regulation and Sensory-Affective Co-Regulation

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JUST COMMUNITY

In the contemporary classroom, a Just Community is characterized by students and teachers who work collaboratively to clearly identify goals and commitments. There is a focus on both moral thinking and reasoning and moral decision making and behavior. Teachers who work to create Just Communities in their classrooms recognize that with school comes socialization, development, and identity formation.

Creating Just Communities in classrooms allows students not only to be prepared for a job market in a global society but also to develop moral reasoning and the skills to participate fully in a democratic society. It also allows for students to be active participants in the creation of their community, to set the guidelines and norms for the community, and to take responsibility for managing those guidelines. In this way, Just Communities help teach students to self-regulate and critically analyze the moral thinking and behavior of others.

The Just Community Approach: Origins

The Just Community approach is derived from psychologist Lawrence Kohlberg's (1927–1987) work on moral development. In his model, Kohlberg outlines six stages that adolescents and emerging adults encounter before they achieve the highest form of moral thought. In order to experiment with facilitating this moral development, Kohlberg and his research partners created a democratic high school where they encouraged community building with the students. Students participated in discussions and activities that challenged the moral thoughts they exhibited.

After a year, the researchers found that the students had in fact, advanced their moral thinking by as much as a full stage. Students at the school began to see that the actions and behaviors of an individual often had consequences for their larger community. Kohlberg theorized that students who had displayed this moral growth may begin to display more consistent moral behavior. There is some evidence to support the link between higher stages of moral thought and specific behaviors, but of course there are many people who exhibit advanced moral reasoning, but do not behave accordingly.

The Just Community Approach in Contemporary Schools

A Just Community may be bounded by a single classroom or may encompass an entire school. In Just Communities, students and teachers embrace and respect the differences each individual brings to the classrooms. Pedagogical activities such as structured controversies, moral dilemmas, and Socratic seminars are used to allow the students in the community to engage in perspective taking, both of their classmates and in analysis of content. These practices are student-centered and focus on students' moral reasoning and thinking.

Many teachers allow their students to help develop rules and consequences in the classroom. However, few teachers engage their students in class discussions when those rules are not upheld. In Just Communities, students and teachers are expected to support one another in abiding by the guidelines and norms set forth by the group. When a student or teacher is perceived to have broken a rule or abused a privilege, the group initiates a community meeting about if, how, and why consequences should be applied. In this way, students learn to critically examine the rules and structures of their classroom, and eventually society-at-large, in terms of their own self-interest and the interests of the community. Teachers also instruct and model ways in which students can form constructive relationships with others who may be different from them and promote discussions when students feel that they have been mistreated. Teachers may use discovery lessons and role playing to guide students in their examination of norms and perspective taking of others.

Clark Power and Ann Higgins-D'Allesandro illustrate the results of a Just Community approach in their recounting of a particular case:

Consider, for example, the following situation that occurred in the YES (Your Educational Success) Program, a just community alternative school-within-a-school for students labeled as "at-risk" in an urban Midwestern public

school. The teachers noticed that most of the students were coming late to the weekly community meeting, held in a classroom at considerable distance from the previous period's classrooms, because they circumvented the school cafeteria rather than cutting through it. The teachers eventually raised the issue in a community meeting, pointing out that the community-meeting time was precious and the YES rules prohibited lateness. The students reluctantly confessed that they avoided the cafeteria because some students called them "mouts," which was a derogatory name used in the school to refer to the mentally handicapped students who used to occupy the classrooms that now housed the YES Program.

This revelation immediately won the teachers' sympathy and led to a problem-solving exploration of alternative routes to the community meeting classroom. One of the teachers, however, interrupted the meeting with a question: "What does it say about our community, if we simply decide to ignore what is going on in the cafeteria?" All of the students agreed that the name-calling was disrespectful and wrong. One student boldly asked whether it should matter whether or not the students in the YES Program were mentally handicapped.

The more they discussed the issue, the more the students began to believe that the moral course of action was to show solidarity with mentally handicapped students by walking through the cafeteria. They also resolved to confront the issue of name-calling head-on by saying something to those who taunted them and to the cafeteria monitors. The community voted that they should all take the shortcut through the cafeteria. This sense of experiencing obligations to one's group because of the moral character of that group marks the just community approach off from other approaches that also recognize the importance of community-building and student participation in meetings. (2008, p. 237)

Conclusion

Although the Just Community approach is not a curriculum, per se, it is usually implemented as a schoolwide model to be as effective as possible. However, individual teachers can implement particular activities within their classrooms to promote critical thinking, engage students in moral reasoning, and ultimately, effectively manage themselves and one another. Presenting moral dilemmas

can allow teachers to guide students to effectively engage in moral reasoning and evaluate their own moral thinking. Structured controversies allow students to participate in perspective taking and evaluate the moral reasoning of others. Finally, community meetings allow students an open forum in which to express their ideas and explain their moral reasoning.

Hannah Carson Baggett and Heather A. Davis

See also Democratic Practices in Classrooms and Schools;
Kohlberg, Lawrence; Moral Development Theories

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KINDERGARTEN AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Kindergarten classroom management is important, and somewhat unique, because kindergarten marks many children's first formal learning experience. A teacher's classroom management skill is necessary for helping young students learn to navigate a formal instructional environment and school-based relationships that support learning. The purpose of this entry is to discuss how kindergarten teachers can help young students acquire requisite classroom skills—such as navigating interactions with teachers, cooperating with peers, and understanding and meeting school expectations—that support academic performance.

Relationships

As children enter kindergarten, they tend to create relationships that mirror those of the home. Young students will approach teachers and peers in ways that mimic interactions with their caregivers and siblings. Yet, the purpose of relationships in a school environment is to support learning. Kindergarten teachers are essential for helping young students learn to develop appropriate school-based relationships.

Teacher–Student Relationships

The teacher–student relationship is essential for helping kindergarten students connect to a school environment. Students benefit most from a warm, affectionate relationship with specific boundaries and consistent interaction patterns. Teachers develop close relationships with each student daily by talking one-on-one,

making positive comments, getting to know preferences and strengths, communicating with families, and attending to overall school experiences. Each student should be treated as if he or she is special and loved—as parents would treat their child. When students and teachers have close relationships, students are more likely to succeed academically and socially at school.

During classroom activities, successful teachers strive to care for all children equally and differentiate interaction patterns appropriately to meet individual children's needs. For example, teachers need to be aware of praise patterns. Many teachers decide early in the school year which children they like, and their preferences remain stable over time. These preferences may be apparent when teachers provide more negative comments toward children they like less and more positive comments toward children they like more. Teachers are strongly encouraged to be aware of these biases and engage in classroom behaviors that intentionally balance interaction patterns and support all children.

Peer–Peer Relationships

Early peer relationships contribute to later child development, and effective classroom management in kindergarten supports successful peer interactions. Teachers can create opportunities for peer interactions with social problem-solving exercises. For example, teachers can create work groups for assignment completion, pair peers for classroom chores, arrange desks to facilitate relationships, and identify students who appear to be rejected by or otherwise isolated from their peers and structure positive peer experiences. Teachers can foster interactions through these activities, but the most valuable support a teacher provides to promote positive peer relationships is prompt mediation of naturally occurring conflicts.

The kindergarten teacher must be able to provide a range of support strategies to match all students' social skill levels. It is important to observe peer interactions and intervene when support is needed, encouraging students to consider different ways of handling conflict. To help resolve peer conflicts, the teacher may (1) supply a student with a neutral response (e.g., "Wanda, you could tell Jack, 'I am playing with this. You may have a turn when I am done.'"); (2) urge a student to consider the peer's perspective (e.g., "Wanda looks upset. Do you think she was playing with that toy?"); and (3) provide support simply by standing near the students.

Classroom Structure

The ways in which a teacher organizes and structures a kindergarten classroom has bearing on student behavior and performance. Teachers must be attentive to the physical space of the classroom, as well as to the routines, rules, and transitions.

Physical Space

The physical organization of the classroom is essential in managing student behavior. Each student benefits from assigned spaces within the classroom. Most reasonably, each student should have his or her own cubby or hook for personal items and a labeled work space at a table or desk. Defined personal areas can reduce conflicts over missing items and reduce transition times in and out of the classroom and between classroom activities. It should be clear to students which materials and supplies are personal (and those should be labeled with the student's name) and which are for group use. For instance, often students will use their own labeled markers, but scissors and glue will be placed in a community space for all to access.

Any materials that students use independently should be placed at student level. Similarly, any materials that are not for student use should be placed at a higher level. All materials should be visible or in transparent bins and labeled. Conflicts over classroom materials and spaces can be avoided when teachers manage access.

Management of the space of the classroom is also important for supporting learning. Learning centers that require independent work should be placed far enough apart so that students do not disturb one another. A relatively loud center (e.g., math manipulatives) should be placed a distance away from a quiet center (e.g., reading area). Teachers should also attend to student desk placement and travel patterns in the classroom. All students must be able to see the teacher with ease, attend without peer distraction, and access all areas of the room without having to travel around obstructions.

Routine

Classroom management relies upon well-defined, consistent routines that function at multiple levels across activities, days, and weeks. The predictability of regular routines helps young students to feel secure and comfortable. Moreover, the kindergarten student who understands and participates in classroom routines will likely adjust to school expectations and be better prepared to participate in routines in subsequent grades.

The core of classroom routine is the schedule. This schedule offers a balance of activities to best support attention and learning throughout the day. In the kindergarten classroom, the schedule should include both small-group and large-group work, quiet and active tasks, and indoor and outdoor activities. The schedule should also incorporate both teacher-guided learning activities and opportunities for student-initiated choice time.

The classroom schedule should be easy to read and posted in a location accessible to all students. It may be designed in a chart format displaying the day's activities in a way that students can easily follow. Activities should be depicted by both brief written descriptions (e.g., *learning centers* and *snack time*) and images representing each activity. The teacher should review the classroom schedule daily and may do so multiple times throughout the day. The teacher should also direct student attention to progression through the schedule. This can be accomplished by marking each activity as it occurs.

Although the schedule should structure activities to promote predictability, students also need opportunities to practice meaningful choice, which promotes motivation in the classroom by granting children some control. An example of meaningful choice for the kindergarten student is choosing a learning center. The use of a picture board may facilitate this process. For instance, five learning centers may be represented with pictures on a planning board with accompanying slots for student pictures. As students select centers, they place their own pictures in a slot beneath the chosen center. When a center's slots are filled, the remaining students recognize that they must select a different center. This process encourages student choice while maintaining order.

Rules

Beyond the schedule, general expectations must be conveyed clearly through classroom rules or explicit statements that define behavior expectations and help establish a predictable learning environment. The kindergarten teacher does not need to create an extensive list of rules. Most classrooms function well with three to five rules. The instruction of rules, like that of routines, requires frequent discussion and practice because

young students who have continual exposure to and experience with rules are less likely to engage in problem behavior.

To be effective, rules should be (1) age-appropriate, (2) specific and observable, (3) easy to understand, (4) stated positively (i.e., avoid use of the word *no* to keep focus on what children should be doing rather than what they should not be doing), and (5) enforceable. Rules should be age-appropriate in language and in expectation. For example, a rule regarding active listening is written straightforwardly as, "Listen when talked to." The teacher's expectation for the child's listening should also take into account how listening may look at this age (e.g., the child may fidget when listening). To enable student understanding, rules should be kept short and specific. In addition, written rules should be accompanied by pictures as many students may not yet be able to read (e.g., the rule "Listen when talked to" could be paired with an image of an ear).

Perhaps most importantly, classroom rules should be directly observational so the student can see when a rule is broken. A rule about respecting peers would be best worded as, "Keep hands to self" rather than the more difficult to observe, "Be respectful." Finally, rules need to be enforceable. Rules, and the consequences for not following them, should be posted in a location visible to all students. The effective teacher immediately responds to student rule violations and examples of rule compliance to demonstrate the constancy of the classroom rules.

Student input should be incorporated in rule development to encourage understanding of rules and personal connection to classroom expectations. This process should take place on the first day of the school year. The teacher must guide this discussion so that the rules suggested by the students align with the teacher's anticipated rules (e.g., expectations for respect, responsibility, and safety). The teacher should also request that students act out or verbally explain rules and the consequences of rule compliance and violation to prove comprehension.

Transition

Transitions occur every time an activity changes, which means there are many transitions on any given school day. The very nature of transitions makes them susceptible to disorganization, lost instructional time, and loss of classroom control. Therefore, transitions must be well planned.

Auditory or visual cues that mark the end of one activity and the approach of a transition period can be used to prevent problem behaviors and increase preparation for the upcoming transition. To illustrate, 5 minutes before a transition, the teacher may quickly switch

the lights off and back on one time to signal to students to begin activity cleanup. Then, 1 minute before transition, the teacher may switch lights off and on twice to indicate that students must finish cleanup. Use of song, specific hand-clapping patterns, or peer buddies can also be employed to decrease time spent in transition.

Conclusion

The kindergarten experience is foundational for young students learning about formal education. When teachers construct and present a classroom environment that promotes positive relationships and offers structure, routines, and clear expectations, students are likely to succeed. Teachers who are mindful of the details of classroom management and organization that support instruction are actively helping to prepare their students for first grade and beyond.

Kristen Missall and Nicole Hendrix

See also Attachment to Teachers; Beginning the School Year; Early Childhood Education and Classroom Management; Play, Learning, and Classroom Management; Social and Emotional Learning for Young Children; Spaces for Young Children; Spatial Activities and Manipulatives for Early Education Classrooms

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KOHLBERG, LAWRENCE

Born in Bronxville, New York, the youngest of four siblings, Lawrence Kohlberg (1927–1987) went on to

earn his doctorate in psychology at the University of Chicago. He became a leading theorist in moral development and a faculty member at Yale, the University of Chicago, and, finally, at the Harvard School of Education. He is known widely for his work on moral stages and on bringing the subject of moral development into discussions about progressive ways to educate children. During his later years, Kohlberg worked to create democracies or *just communities* in schools and prisons—by having everyone in a community involved in making decisions about how to make their community both just and caring. It is this work that made its mark on education and classroom management and that forms the basis for the discussion that follows.

Education and Development

In his seminal essay “Development as the Aim of Education,” Kohlberg points out that basic assumptions about human nature influence all aspects of the educational process, including the culture of the classroom and teachers’ approach to classroom management.

If one assumes that children are by nature infinitely malleable and learn primarily through the direct instruction of social and behavioral norms transmitted by adults, then classroom management will focus on creating well-ordered places, emphasizing rules and compliance. Such has been the conventional notion of a good classroom. Teachers typically make the rules explicit and use incentives and punishments to encourage compliance.

If, on the other hand, one assumes that children will spontaneously become cooperative and responsive in an appropriately supportive social milieu and that an open and stimulating environment will itself foster learning, then classroom management will focus on creating rich and varied opportunities to interest every student, will eliminate sources of personal frustration, and will impose few if any restraints.

Kohlberg saw each of these approaches to classroom management as incomplete. He thought that children learn best when exploring their environment, but that they also need guidance and facilitation in negotiating social problems when these emerge. Social and moral development, he argued, occur within the context of the social and moral atmosphere of the school and classroom. Children subjected to tight control and expectations for compliance from adults will not develop the capacity to take the perspective of others or to recognize competing interests. Children expected to naturally develop the social impulses necessary for promoting social harmony will not be provided with the guidance they need to adapt to the expectations and claims others make upon them.

As an alternative to these two approaches, Kohlberg advocated for a *progressive view* of teachers making classrooms into places that actively stimulate children’s development by encouraging children to solve the social problems and conflicts that inevitably occur as they work, play, and learn together. In so doing, Kohlberg believed teachers would help children develop new ways to think and feel that would be increasingly mature and responsive to the social and moral dilemmas they encounter.

Creating Just and Caring Classroom and School Communities

From this progressive view, *classroom management* becomes the ongoing project of creating a just and caring classroom and school community in which children and adults, through shared deliberations, set goals for their social relationships, support each other in fulfilling their mutual responsibilities, and, when these goals are not met, examine their actions and the community’s reaction. Kohlberg felt that it is the daily work of the teacher and of the students to build a community in which every member of the classroom participates, and that out of this participation will grow a sense of trust and belonging and the opportunities to learn and be competent, whatever the subject matter. Classroom management, Kohlberg told us, requires making the social life of the classroom visible and responsive, as well as being integrated with the broader goals of child development and learning.

The budding field of prosocial education is compatible with Kohlberg’s argument for this progressive view of education. The basic tenets of prosocial education are that the goals of learning and development should be united and that schools and classrooms should foster positive development rather than guard against bad behavior.

At the heart of progressive classroom management are the questions teachers and students ponder together as they create their classroom culture: What do we want our classroom to look like? What are the primary purposes of this classroom? How do we want to be with each other? Why do we have these expectations? What will happen when a problem occurs? What kinds of authority and responsibility do we each have for making this classroom safe and welcoming as well as for responding to problems? How will we help each other when someone is having a hard time?

The answers to these questions will depend on the particular learning goals of each classroom, the social context of the school, the age of the children, and the cultural backgrounds and prior school experiences of the classroom’s members. We have much to learn

about the forces that shape the quality and identity of each school and its specific needs, but there is adequate research to demonstrate to students and teachers the benefits of their active participation in the decisions that shape their school experiences. Kohlberg, emphasizing the importance of social context and school culture in students' social and moral development, called this the creation of *just communities*.

Though his work in education spanned all age groups, Kohlberg worked primarily with groups of teachers to create just communities in high schools. In these schools, students and teachers created self-governing democratic communities. By encouraging students to think critically about their social relations, vote, decide, and live with the consequences of their decisions as a community, the teachers facilitated students' social development. Perspectives of justice and community explicitly guided classroom and community discussions and were infused into curricula. Students in just community programs, whether in well- or poorly functioning schools, developed abilities to solve social and personal issues by taking the perspectives of others and of the group.

Research Findings and Conclusion

Contemporary research on school and classroom climate has shown the effectiveness of this progressive view of learning and development for students of all ages, regardless of the specific intervention. The major factors contributing to a positive, effective school climate are transparent rules and expectations that students and teachers perceive as fair, a safe environment, caring relationships, and participation in decision making, as well as adequate teacher support, instructional innovation, and student commitment. Most importantly, research has found that in schools with positive climates, teachers are more attuned to what students need to thrive and learn and that they employ more effective ways of teaching and addressing student needs.

When classroom management is seen as the task of creating a classroom culture that nurtures the development of each child through supported cooperation and facilitated engagement during moments of conflict rather than as the elimination of conflict (either by strict control or unfettered tolerance), teachers will have achieved Kohlberg's progressive vision. As Kohlberg said, development *is* the aim of education.

Laura Rogers and Ann Higgins-D'Alessandro

See also Caring Approaches; Climate: School and Classroom; Constructivist Approaches; Democratic Practices in Classrooms and Schools; Developmental Approaches; Just Community; Moral Development Theories; Progressive Education; Prosocial Behavior; Sharing Authority

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KOUNIN, JACOB

Jacob S. Kounin (1912–1995) was an educational psychologist, researcher, and classroom management theorist. He is best known for his theories and research on teachers' ability to affect student behavior through instructional management. Jacob Kounin was born in Cleveland, Ohio, in 1912, received his doctorate from Iowa State University in 1939, and worked as an educational psychologist at Wayne State University in Michigan. He first became interested in classroom discipline, and his research evolved to focus on preventative classroom management techniques.

Prior to Kounin's research, classroom management theories and practice emphasized disciplining students

following incidences of misbehavior. Teaching and discipline were considered separate entities of education. Teaching was that aspect of education that helped students to acquire information and skills, whereas discipline referred to actions that teachers took after students misbehaved. Kounin's work provided a major impetus to integrate teaching and discipline. He and his colleagues conducted numerous studies in various classrooms, and in 1970, he published his findings and theories in a book titled *Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms*.

Kounin's Research

Kounin's interest in classroom management began when he publicly reprimanded a college student during a lecture he was giving. During his lecture, Kounin noticed a student reading a newspaper in the back row of his class. He reprimanded the student, who immediately stopped reading the newspaper and began to attend to the lecture. Interestingly, Kounin also noticed an increase in attending behavior of students seated near the reprimanded student. Seemingly, the behavior of other students who had not been reprimanded changed owing to the reprimand delivered to the newspaper-reading student. He later described this phenomenon as the *ripple effect*.

As a result of this incident, Kounin became interested in discipline in schools and how teachers handled misbehavior. His research took place over several years in various types of classrooms ranging from preschool to college. He and his colleagues videotaped classroom instruction and then analyzed the tapes. Kounin hypothesized that differences in the disciplinary techniques that teachers used would account for differences in their ability to successfully manage and influence student behavior in their classrooms. He believed that in the well-run classrooms, the teachers were more effective disciplinarians.

Kounin was astonished by what he found: The disciplinary techniques that teachers used made no differences in how students behaved in classes! Teachers who were successful classroom managers and those who were inept managers were responding to student problem behavior in very similar ways. Thus, the disciplinary procedures used were the same for good and poor managers.

Kounin and his colleagues reanalyzed the videotapes to find out if there were any instructional differences between the successful and the unsuccessful classroom managers. They were interested in finding which specific teacher behaviors made a difference in how children behaved. Their reanalysis showed that there were specific categories of teacher behaviors that correlated with their success in classroom management.

These teacher behaviors, however, did not occur after students misbehaved. Rather, the behaviors prevented misbehavior from occurring. This led Kounin and his colleagues to conclude that successful classroom management is linked more directly to the teacher's efforts to prevent problems rather than to the teacher's reaction to a problem after an incident has occurred.

Kounin's research showed that teachers who approach classroom management as a systematic process of establishing and maintaining an effective learning environment are more successful managers than those teachers who place more emphasis on their roles as disciplinarians. Thus, Kounin's pioneering research clearly showed that the teacher behaviors that prevented problem behaviors from occurring were a vital part of classroom management strategies.

Proactive Strategies

Kounin proceeded to identify a set of proactive strategies that were characteristic of effective educators. He called these strategies *valence*, *smoothness* and *momentum*, *withitness*, *overlapping*, and *student accountability or group alerting*.

Valence

In his seminal research, Kounin found that successful classroom managers developed more interesting and varied lessons than did those who were less successful managers. That is, the lessons that were well planned, interesting, and included a variety of activities attracted and maintained students' attention, resulting in more on-task behavior and less problem behavior. Kounin referred to this as *valence*. Conversely, teachers who taught uninteresting lessons and had students do repetitive tasks tended to lose their students' attention. Kounin called this *satiation*, and he observed that it led to decreased work quality and increased off-task and problematic behavior.

Smoothness and Momentum

Kounin found that the most effective classroom managers taught their lessons at a brisk pace and maintained good lesson momentum. That is, the lessons moved ahead with no breaks in the flow of the lesson. On the other hand, Kounin reported that the lessons of poor classroom managers were characterized by fragmentation and overdwelling. *Fragmentation* refers to breaking a lesson into several unnecessary steps, thus slowing the momentum of the lesson. Having a student complete a problem or task in front of the class is a way of creating fragmentation,

because one student is engaged while the others simply watch and wait. *Overdwelling* refers to spending too much time on one aspect of a lesson or repeating part of a lesson. If a teacher dwells on an aspect of the lesson for too long a time, students will become bored.

Withitness

The most successful classroom managers displayed a trait that Kounin termed *withitness*. Withitness is exhibited when teachers communicate to their students that they are aware of all events going on within the classroom. Teachers demonstrate withitness when they deliver behavioral desists (i.e., when a teacher does something to stop student misbehavior). Four specific ways in which teachers can deliver desists in ways that communicate withitness to their students are to (1) choose the correct target or targets when delivering a desist, (2) stop the most serious misbehavior first when two misbehaviors are occurring simultaneously, (3) stop the misbehavior before it spreads to other students, and (4) stop the misbehavior before it becomes more serious. Kounin found that teachers who displayed withitness had higher rates of student involvement and lower rates of misbehavior in their classrooms.

Overlapping

Kounin found that when teachers effectively deal with two or more matters at the same time, they achieved higher rates of involvement and lower rates of misbehavior. He called this teacher behavior *overlapping*. For example, a teacher is doing small-group work in reading and the other students in the classroom are working independently, when two students in the larger group begin talking loudly to each other. The teacher attends to both the misbehavior and group work simultaneously. She might remain seated with the group and ask a student to read orally, while communicating to the misbehaving students that they must stop the problem behavior.

Kounin found in his research that there were many situations that occurred every day in which a teacher was confronted with situations that called for overlapping. He also found that teachers who frequently displayed overlapping behavior were more successful classroom managers. Thus, effective classroom managers could deal with more than one thing at a time.

Student Accountability or Group Alerting

Kounin also found that teachers who maintained high levels of student attention and involvement

throughout the lesson were more successful classroom managers. Effective managers accomplished this by involving all students in a learning task. Kounin and his colleagues also observed that students were more likely to remain engaged in learning activities when they knew they might be held accountable for attending to the lesson. Kounin observed that effective classroom managers used a procedure to maintain student attention that he called *group alerting*. When using this procedure, teachers alert students that someone will be called on to answer a question or perform a skill—and that it could be anyone in the class. Thus, according to Kounin, group alerting keeps the students *on their toes* by asking questions and calling on students in a random rather than an obvious manner. If students never know when their teacher may require them to respond to questions or perform a task related to the learning activity, they are much more likely to attend and remain engaged.

Applications of Kounin's Research

Kounin's model of classroom management is based on preventive discipline. Teachers can become effective classroom managers by applying these principles to their daily instruction. The following suggestions provide examples of how teachers may implement Kounin's strategies.

Valence

The teacher provides well-planned and interesting lessons in which a variety of activities are used to maintain students' interest. The teacher encourages students by providing information on their progress and by challenging them to higher achievement. The teacher attempts to spark the curiosity of students to get them to be more involved and excited. The teacher should

- use a variety of presentation styles;
- use a variety of materials and integrate technology;
- allow a variety of engagement opportunities;
- allow a variety of ways for students to demonstrate knowledge and skills;
- encourage goal setting and offer choices;
- incorporate student interests into lessons; and
- encourage and support partner and group learning.

Smoothness and Momentum

The teacher maintains direction in the lesson and does not lose focus, go on tangents, or get diverted by irrelevant information or incidents. The teacher avoids *flip flops* (i.e., closing one topic, beginning another, and

then jumping back to the previous topic again), *dangles* (i.e., the teacher is interrupted, leaves the topic unfinished, and finally returns to it at a later point), and *truncation* (the teacher is interrupted and leaves the topic and never returns to it).

The teacher should

- preplan the lesson to deal with extraneous matters ahead of time;
- organize materials before class begins and have them readily available;
- let students know what is going to happen in class on that day and stick to it;
- not distract students once they are doing their work and are engaged; and
- move from one activity to the next without forcing students to wait for each other.

Overlapping

The teacher effectively multitasks by dealing with two or more events in the classroom at the same time. The teacher has routines set up so that students know what to do when they finish activities before other students. The teacher addresses problem behavior without disrupting the class. The teacher should

- establish routines so that students know what to do when they finish activities before other students; and
- when interruptions occur, give students a task while dealing with the interruption.

Withitness

The teacher is aware of what is going on in the classroom at all times. It seems to the students that the teacher has eyes in the back of his or her head. The teacher should

- always be alert to sights and sounds in the classroom;
- arrange the seats so that students are always within eyesight;
- scan the room constantly;
- never have her or his back to the class, particularly when helping an individual student; and

- briefly acknowledge misbehavior at first detection to let the students know that he or she is aware.

Student Accountability or Group Alerting

The teacher communicates expectations to the students and holds them responsible for their actions in order to encourage attention and engagement. The teacher should

- give points, grades, or reinforcement for participation;
- call on students randomly or require responses from all students simultaneously, using choral responding or response cards; and
- use cooperative learning strategies (e.g., jigsaw) in which students are accountable to the group and groups are accountable to the class.

Conclusion

Jacob Kounin's research showed that effective classroom management is a systematic process of establishing and maintaining an effective learning environment. Kounin's theories on classroom management are still held in high regard by educators today. Effective classroom managers understand and utilize the theories of valence, smoothness and momentum, overlapping, withitness, group alerting, and accountability.

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See also Approaches to Classroom Management: Types; Desists; Ecological Approaches; History of Classroom Management; Off-Task Behavior; Preventing Behavior Problems

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LANGUAGE DIFFERENCES

The purpose of this entry is to describe how teachers can structure their classroom and use explicit instruction to help students with language differences—students who have a first or home language other than English—succeed both academically and socially. With schools becoming increasingly diverse, it is important for all teachers to know how to use classroom management and instruction to provide students with language differences the optimal environment for them to succeed.

An estimated 21% of the students enrolled in K–12 public schools speak a language other than English at home. This number has more than doubled since 1980. It is estimated that 67% of public schools in the United States have students who are classified as having limited English proficiency. There are over 450 home languages spoken and some districts have as many as 150 different languages represented. With increasingly diverse classrooms, it is important for teachers to know how to use classroom management to help students with language differences succeed—as the example of third-grader Du Lia is intended to show.

Du Lia’s family recently arrived from Thailand after fleeing their native Myanmar (formerly Burma). His family lived in a refugee camp where he had little formal schooling before arriving in the United States. Du Lia attended a newcomer center where he learned some basic English and school structures. He was recently placed in Mrs. White’s 3rd grade classroom where he receives about an hour of pull-out English as a second language (ESL) instruction daily. Mrs. White reports that Du Lia is either

disruptive or unengaged when he is with her. She reports that during transitions, he is most disruptive, often poking his peers with his fingers. During classroom instruction he is generally unengaged, with his head down on his desk, and appearing to be daydreaming. Mrs. White is concerned about his behavior but is unsure what to do given the language differences. She consults with Ms. Miller, the ESL teacher, to see what strategies may help Du Lia in her general education classroom.

There are several ways in which teachers can use classroom management to ensure students with language differences are able to participate and learn in their classrooms. Through this intentional process, teachers are able to create a safe and secure environment for students with language differences and reduce students’ anxiety, thereby enabling them to learn. These include (1) using predictable structures and routines, (2) using visuals to provide language support, and (3) intentionally building vocabulary and understanding.

Establishing Predictable Structures and Routines

Using predictable structures and routines allows students with language differences to experience a stable and predictable environment (see Table 1). For some students with language differences, this is the first time they have a predictable schedule. When students know what to expect they are able to focus their attention on the instruction and not on worrying about what will come next. In addition, repeating classroom routines using consistent language allows English language learners to learn new vocabulary and concepts through the repetition.

Table 1 Examples of Routines and Their Benefit to Students With Language Differences

| <i>Routine</i> | <i>Benefit to Students With Language Differences</i> |
|--|---|
| Morning check-in with assigned buddy | Establishes a sense of belonging |
| Beginning-of-the-day activity such as a classroom job or familiar learning activity | Establishes a sense of success as the students begin the day performing a task that is easy for them |
| Consistent areas for instruction (e.g., the small table at the front of the room is always where reading instruction occurs) | Students know what to expect when they move to different areas of the room |
| Classroom schedule is posted and reviewed | Provides students with visual reminders of what to expect each day |
| Consistent use of signals for students to use when they need help or do not understand what to do | Students are able to use a nonverbal way to show they need help that does not draw attention to the fact that they do not understand what is going on |

Source: Adapted from Herrell and Jordan (2004, p. 16).

Not only do teachers need to establish routines, they also must teach these routines to students with language differences, using modeling, guided practice, and independent practice in order to ensure students understand the routines structures of the classroom. Teachers can use an *I do, we do, you do* structure to teach classroom routines.

Ms. Miller (the ESL teacher) suggested to Mrs. White that she teach Du Lia the routines and structures of her classroom and suggested she especially focus on the routines for transitioning from one activity to another. Mrs. White first showed Du Lia how she wanted him to move from his desk to small group work. She then showed him the hand signal she would give when she wanted him to transition. She asked a student in the class to show Du Lia how to do this. After Du Lia had seen what she expected, she asked him to practice the transition with the other student and then by himself. Mrs. White then taught him how to line up for lunch, using the same routine where she modeled what was expected, and another student modeled what was expected. Du Lia practiced with another student, and then practiced by himself. By the end of the week, Du Lia was able to transition from one activity to the next. Mrs. White paid special attention to Du Lia so that when she saw him becoming disruptive, she would reteach the routine and structure for that time.

Using Visuals to Provide Language Support

One way to make language understandable for students with language differences is to use visuals to provide language support (see Table 2). Teachers can identify vocabulary they frequently use in their classrooms and form a collection of photographs, drawings, symbols, and real objects to use to provide visual support for directions that they often give in class.

When teachers consistently use visuals to provide language support for students with language differences, they not only increase students' understanding of classroom expectations, they also increase students' vocabulary as students begin to associate new words and phrases with their visual counterparts.

Now that Du Lia was appropriately transitioning, Mrs. White wanted to focus on his engagement in classroom instruction. He continued to daydream and put his head down during instruction. Ms. Miller suggested that Mrs. White use visuals to provide language support during her instruction and especially when she was giving directions. Ms. Miller observed Mrs. White's instruction and made a list of directions that she used frequently. She helped Mrs. White collect objects, pictures, signs, and symbols to use during instruction and when giving directions. Mrs. White started with her math instruction. Prior to instruction, she showed Du Lia the book she would be using and made sure he knew where his book was. Then she showed him some of the other pictures and symbols she

Table 2 Examples of Visuals to Provide Language Support for Classroom Directions

| <i>Visual</i> | <i>Benefit to Students With Language Differences</i> |
|--|---|
| Math book | By holding up the math book you signal to the students exactly which book to take out |
| Posting of page numbers and assignments on the board or on a sticky note for individual students | Allows the student another chance to locate the correct page or understand the assignment without having to ask |
| Model of completed assignment or task for the student to use as a guide while completing independent work | Allows the students a model of what is expected of them during independent work |
| Color-coded system for turning in work with a picture of the type of work (e.g., math always goes in the blue box) | Allows the students to know where to turn in work without having to ask |
| Pictures of students lining up, working quietly, working in groups, etc., to show when giving directions | Students are able to look at the picture for cues about what they are supposed to be doing |

would be using and matched them with what she wanted him to do when he saw these visual supports. That day Du Lia did not put his head down during math instruction. When Mrs. White showed her math book, he took out the math book and when she turned the page, he turned to the page that was written on a note on his desk. He then used the model she gave him to complete his independent work, and he placed his assignment into the box with a picture of similar work on the front. Mrs. White was encouraged by Du Lia's participation during math. However, after a week she noticed he was again daydreaming and not following along with her instruction. She consulted with Ms. Miller again, and Ms. Miller suggested she intentionally build Du Lia's academic vocabulary in order to continue to increase his understanding of the concepts she was teaching.

Intentionally Building Vocabulary and Understanding

As the previous discussion is meant to show, for students with language differences, teachers can help by using predictable routines and structures as well as by using visuals to teach classroom expectations (see Table 3). However, teachers cannot stop there. They also must intentionally build the students' *academic* vocabulary.

To do so, teachers should thoughtfully plan their lessons in order to identify key vocabulary and concepts. Once these have been identified, teachers can use routines and structures to establish a consistent format for preteaching and reviewing these concepts for students with language

differences using visual supports. Preteaching involves identifying what information a student will need to know in order to benefit from instruction. This may include activating students' prior knowledge about a subject and teaching them any unfamiliar vocabulary meanings. Reviewing includes a purposeful return to important concepts at a later time in order to ensure students were able to grasp the concept and to correct any misunderstandings.

Preteaching and reviewing important vocabulary and concepts can increase the engagement of students with language differences during classroom instruction by providing them with opportunities to make connections, increase practice, and increase motivation. Additional practice with peers allows students with language differences to interact with peers and practice language in a safe environment.

First thing in the morning, Mrs. White established a consistent time to preteach important math vocabulary to Du Lia. She used math manipulatives to explain subtraction to Du Lia, and during the lesson, she used the same manipulatives to model for the whole class. During independent work she had all the students work in pairs in order to allow Du Lia extended modeling from a peer. At the end of the day she returned to Du Lia and asked him to show her what subtraction meant. Using this process of preteaching and reviewing with extended practice, Mrs. White was able to keep Du Lia's attention during all of her instruction. He no longer put his head down or daydreamed; instead, he became an active participant in classroom instruction.

Table 3 Examples of Ways to Intentionally Build Vocabulary and Understanding

| <i>Way to Build Vocabulary and Understanding</i> | <i>Benefit to Students With Language Differences</i> |
|---|---|
| Establish a consistent time to preteach important vocabulary and concepts using objects and pictures | Students develop background knowledge to use with the actual lesson |
| When teaching the lesson, make references to the objects and visuals used during the preteaching time | Allows students the chance to make connections between the lesson and the visual supports |
| Establish a consistent time to review important vocabulary and concepts with realia and pictures | Allows students a chance to review the vocabulary and concepts used during the lesson |
| Provide additional practice using peers to support the learning | Allows the student to practice using the vocabulary and concept with a peer |

Conclusion

When teachers purposefully use classroom management and instruction, they are able to create environments in which all students are able to succeed. Predictable structures and routines, visuals to provide language support, and intentionally building vocabulary and understanding are all effective strategies for teaching students with language differences. In our increasingly diverse classrooms, it is important for teachers to use these strategies and instruction to help all students succeed both academically and behaviorally.

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See also Bilingual Education; English Language Learners and Classroom Behavior; English Learners; Immigrant Children and Families

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without sufficient support, those students with language disorders may present particular challenges for effective classroom management. Therefore, both for the sake of the students themselves and for managing classrooms effectively, it is important that educators understand the nature of language disorders, their potential impact on both academic and social development, and how best to assess and treat them.

Expressive and Receptive Deficits

Language disorders include expressive and receptive deficits, which are types of communication impairments. These impairments can be recognized at any age and may be present in varying degrees. As a result, social as well as academic skills may be impacted. Specifically, listening and reading comprehension difficulties fall into the category of receptive issues, whereas deficits in written language and speech are expressive concerns. In addition, an individual can have both receptive and expressive problems; thus language disorders can be global in nature and have significant impact on academic progress.

According to the American Speech-Language-Hearing Association, problems in the form and function of language stem from expressive and receptive deficiencies. Phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics are the subtypes of form and function. These terms are defined below:

Phonology—sounds of a particular language and their relationships with letters (e.g., rhyming of letter/sound associations).

Morphology—smallest portions of words that convey information (e.g., tallest).

Syntax—rules governing the sentence structure of a language system (i.e., grammar).

Semantics—the study of meaning and the relationship between meaning and form; relates closely to

LANGUAGE DISORDERS

Having a language disorder can seriously undermine a student's ability to learn and thrive in school. Furthermore,

vocabulary knowledge (e.g., word- or phrase-level meaning).

Pragmatic language—the social skill aspect of communication (e.g., conversational turn taking, topic maintenance).

Overall, receptive language disorders can be described with the following examples judged relative to age level: inability to comprehend nonverbal gestures, follow one-step through multiple-step directions, understand word-level vocabulary; and impairments in listening and reading comprehension. Expressive language disorders include impaired ability to speak in full sentences, use appropriate vocabulary, and remember words.

Academic and Social Impact

Language disorders affect individuals both academically and socially. With respect to the educational process, often the main aspects of education that are most affected are reading (comprehension and fluency), writing, and vocabulary. Reading is at higher risk of being negatively affected because language skills are the main support for the development of reading. Therefore, many individuals with language disorders evidence reading problems, including text comprehension. Not surprising is the fact that most of the learning-disabled population falls in the area of reading, and out of those, many have language issues.

In addition, language disorders often co-occur with social-emotional issues that can affect an individual's behavior. An example of this reciprocal relationship is that if a person's behavior is frequently disruptive, the person may have trouble following directions in a classroom. Students with language disorders may be involved in bullying or victimization scenarios. There also may be other mental health issues co-occurring with language disorders, most typically issues related to depression and anxiety. One example not often thought of in practice is when language problems co-occur with mental health issues and stuttering. In this case, there can be comorbid anxiety, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, obsessive compulsive disorder, Tourette's syndrome, and/or depression. Further adding to this complex relationship is that stuttering can occur during normal language development, usually at ages three and four, when there are critical periods when language is rapidly developing and possibly creating temporary dysfluencies. If the stuttering is chronic, it may be related to the above-mentioned psychopathologies as well as to underlying language disorders. However, there are other reasons why individuals stutter, such as physiological reasons.

Language disorders also play a part in individuals with autism spectrum disorder (ASD), because people with ASD often use few words or none at all, as well as

have difficulty deciphering nonverbal communication. These individuals will often not be able to recognize, for example, the communication in body language, facial expression, and expressions of emotion. Language disorders affect individuals socially in many ways. Along with the previously mentioned behavioral problems, students with language disorders may generally have trouble forming and sustaining friendships.

Identification and Treatment

Through formal and informal testing, a conclusion is drawn as to the best treatment practice. The Wechsler Individual Achievement Test—Third Edition is an example of a test that may be used to diagnose language disorders, especially in relation to academic skills and learning disabilities. Additional tests include the Clinical Evaluation of Language Fundamentals—Fifth Edition (CELF5) and the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test—Fourth Edition (PPVT4). The CELF5 provides an overall and in-depth assessment of expressive and receptive language functioning. The PPVT4 is a relatively short test to assess an individual's receptive vocabulary.

Treatment for individuals with language disorders can be implemented in various ways. Overall the treatment approach depends on the characteristics of the person, such as age, problem severity, and nature of the receptive and/or expressive disorder, in addition to coexisting comorbidities.

Professionals who are best suited to address children with language disorders are speech-language pathologists (SLPs). SLPs have the training and expertise to assess expressive and receptive skills, such as grammar, speech, writing, reading, and related underlying phonological skills. A bilingual speech pathologist is particularly helpful for children who speak multiple languages because these children's language skills are often influenced in ways that can affect their phonological processing and other speech skills such as fluency.

SLPs help younger preschool-age children by improving their understanding and expression through play therapy. School-age children's issues are often addressed in the classroom setting or in small group or individual therapy sessions where activities such as theater and puppetry, role playing, modeling, and direct skill instruction are used. The goal of these activities is to improve global language skills, including vocabulary, grammar, written expression, and social skills.

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See also Autism and Inclusion in Classrooms; Autism Spectrum Disorders; Language Differences; Learning Disabilities; Social Skills: Meanings, Supports, and Training for Developing

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LAW AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

The law and its application to students in public and private schools rests fundamentally on the precept that schools must be safe, peaceful, and secure places for students, teachers, staff, and administration to work together to enhance the capability of children to learn and become contributing members of society. Given tragedies such as the shootings in Columbine and New Town, where students, faculty, and others lost their lives, the concept of safety and security for the total learning environment of schools is easier to understand than achieve. In addition, it is necessary to note that students have rights in how they are treated and educated in schools.

The purpose of this entry is to share some of the origins and areas of school law that can affect the safety and behavior of students in schools. While these areas are presented separately, there is overlap in a number of categories. These categories include areas such as freedom of speech, freedom of press, and search and seizure, as well as the commentary on bullying, physical contact, and negligence. A single encyclopedia entry cannot include detailed discussion of these complex issues; further study and involvement of legal counsel is highly recommended.

The Constitution and Federal Law

Freedom of Speech

A number of issues affecting classroom management emerge from the U.S. Constitution. These issues include freedom of speech, concerning which the courts have shared that students do have the right to speak in public schools as long as their actions do not violate the rights of others or materially and substantially interfere with the process of schooling.

This does not mean, however, that the right of students to engage in speech that is lewd and indecent is protected under the law. Further, freedom of speech does not mean that students can wave a banner extolling the use of illegal drugs or verbally harass an individual based on race, color, religion, gender, national origin, age, or disability. Of more current note is the commentary that speeches of hate or what are termed *fighting words* or racial epithets are not free speech if intended to establish a breakdown of peace, order, and safety.

Freedom of Religion

There is perhaps no topic more controversial, problematic, or emotional in public schools than religion. To date, the overwhelming majority of education-related Supreme Court cases center on the intersecting roles of religion and government. Early on in our nation's history, separation between church and state was the way the relationship and intersecting roles were framed. Today, there is less of an absolute value placed on separation, with key concerns being more about whether religious practices of a given faith tradition are seen as coercive to students not of that faith tradition or whether there is inappropriate use of public funds to support religion through direct or indirect spending, which may violate the federal and/or state constitutions. What does remain fairly clear is the admonishment that religious activities in schools that reflect direct government (school, teachers, and staff) sponsorship and/or support and/or intrusion favoring one religious tradition over another are unlikely to be sustained by the courts.

The term *proselytize* is particularly poignant in the issue of religion in schools. It refers to an individual or organization holding one religious view above another religious or nonreligious view and putting pressure (direct or indirect) on the other to adopt the *preferred* religious view. Any act endorsed and/or supported by public schools that serves to advance a particular religious tradition may be considered coercive and invasive (i.e., proselytizing) because students are minors and may be influenced by authority. Therefore, certain activities propagated by schools, directly or indirectly, on behalf of any religious tradition are considered potentially

unconstitutional. For example, teacher-led prayers, bible readings, religious postings (such as displaying the Ten Commandments), religious readings at graduations, and forcing students to say the Pledge of Allegiance (with its *under God* clause), all are activities that have been challenged in the high courts and deemed unconstitutional in violation of the Establishment Clause of the First Amendment to the Constitution.

However, this does not mean that religious expression has no place in public schools. To deny a student his or her liberty of religion is also a violation of the Establishment Clause. Although gray areas and complex issues exist when addressing religion in school, there are some generally accepted guidelines educators should keep in mind. Students are free to independently pray at their discretion, as long as it does not disrupt or infringe upon the rights of other students. If an activity is student-led, voluntary, and held during noninstructional hours, religious meetings may be appropriate, providing that they are not administered by government employees. Furthermore, if a school allows certain extracurricular groups to meet (such as athletic or interest groups), it must allow all groups access to its facilities. Finally, it is acceptable and even encouraged to educate students about the various religious traditions. Religious traditions have played a valuable role not only in American history, but also in world history; the acquisition of knowledge pertaining to diverse cultures is an essential component of a complete and holistic education.

Search and Seizure

The Fourth Amendment was enacted to protect an individual's right to privacy by mandating certain rules for lawful search and seizure. However, do students in public schools retain the same rights regarding unreasonable search and seizure? While convoluted at times, the general answer is *No*. It is the school's responsibility to protect the lives of its students at all costs. Schools are tasked with the tough responsibility of protecting their students' individual rights, while also ensuring the safety of all students.

According to the Center for Public Education, the search and seizure process in schools is different from that of typical criminal cases. In criminal cases, law enforcement is responsible for presenting evidence and establishing a *probable cause* in order to carry out a search, whereas in schools, officials must simply possess a *reasonable suspicion*; no warrant is necessary. This gives schools some flexibility and fewer time constraints than normal. In order to prevent violent incidents like that of the notorious Columbine shooting, the Supreme Court has granted more leeway to schools. The courts are also particularly supportive of schools when there are suspicions of illegal substances on school grounds.

In efforts to preserve the safety of all students, locker searches, the search of personal items such as purses and backpacks, canine searches, and student drug testing for extracurricular activities are acceptable in most cases. Student searches are acceptable providing that the search is justifiable (i.e., school officials have received a reliable tip or have physically witnessed suspicious acts) and reasonable in scope of the circumstance (i.e., pat-downs, and locker, purse, or pocket searches). In addition, when the safety of the school is believed to be in jeopardy, the seizure of suspicious individuals may well be justified.

State Law: Bullying

Schools need to be havens of safety and learning for all children. Bullying impedes both and is a major problem facing schools today. Bullying is repeated behavior intended to cause physical or emotional harm to another person. It ranges from overt physical acts to more indirect acts of relational aggression. Bullying generally falls into four categories: physical, verbal, relational, and cyberbullying. Students may engage in or be victims of just one type or a combination of all types.

Group bullying and cyberbullying are of particular importance in discussions of classroom management. Although cyberbullying may not occur in the classroom, it can substantially disrupt the learning environment and so cannot be ignored. Bullying can also take on a group mentality when fueled by peer pressure. In these cases, there is a diffusion of responsibility, so that someone who may not normally engage in bullying will take part. When students feel less ownership of their own behavior, the classroom environment can become toxic, causing multiple disciplinary issues.

An educator's discipline style and approach to classroom management can affect whether bullying occurs in the classroom. The manner in which a teacher deals with misbehavior and disruptions in class contributes to the structure of the classroom and, ultimately, whether it supports an environment wherein bullying can occur or one where bullying is not allowed.

As of this writing, 49 states, all but Montana, have laws related to bullying, with most requiring school districts to develop a policy to prohibit bullying. Classroom discipline plans should include designated procedures for reporting and responding to incidents of bullying in alignment with the policy. Failure to have or enforce a policy or rules against bullying may be considered an act of omission, resulting in a claim of negligence. Whether in the classroom, hallway, or common areas, educators must respond promptly, consistently, and appropriately to stop any behavior that may be bullying.

Negligence and Supervision

The law places negligence and supervision together since negligence can be construed as lack of supervision. If supervision of students is done well, not only is the safety of the student better ensured but schools and educators are more likely to prevent litigation. Negligence is a broad topic that includes injuries occurring from acting in ways that do not prevent harm, such as leaving the scene of a fight, to acting in ways that cause harm, such as asking a student to carry a metal rod across a playground during a thunderstorm. Negligence can occur out of the classroom if the out-of-classroom activities are an extension of the classroom activities, such as those occurring on field trips.

Although a detailed explanation is beyond the scope of this entry, there appear to be two leading general principles. The first is that the younger the child, chronologically or mentally, the more supervision and planning is needed. Second, the greater the risk of the activity, the greater the planning and organization must be. The doctrine in both is that those in charge of children must act in anticipation of foreseeable danger and plan so as to anticipate and minimize the danger, as well as have an action plan for responding to any incident. If an incident calls for physical contact to prevent an injury to a child, one needs to be careful to use preventive restraint, not battery, in attempts to remediate the problem.

Conclusion

The legal responsibility of educators to create a safe environment that is conducive to learning is clear. Conduct of school officials and others, whether in what they do or in what they fail to do, impacts the safety and behavior of students in schools. Educators must do more than simply read a policy handbook. They need to understand the school district's legal framework established through legal counsel. Although common sense is an excellent guide for most situations, common sense does not replace the need for understanding the laws and legal framework that affect educators and how classrooms are managed. To ignore the laws and legal framework is to be vulnerable to the age-old retort that ignorance is no excuse for breaking the law. Therefore, professional development; open discussion on topics such as discipline, supervision, and field trips; presentations on school law from local experts; and other activities in which the law comes into discussion can provide an excellent background for the management of classroom activities.

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See also Bullying and the Law; Documentation and Classroom Management; Field Trips, Legal Requirements for; Government Policy and Classroom Management; Physical Contact and Classroom Management

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LEARNING CONTRACTS

Learning contracts provide a means of managing instruction by engaging learners and acknowledging differences in learning readiness, rates, and styles. The advantages of learning contracts include providing motivation through choice, long-term differentiation, alignment with the standard curriculum, incorporation of multiple intelligences and learning styles, clarification of expectations, creation of diverse products, and effective use of existing resources.

Learning contracts serve multiple purposes and, therefore, can take multiple forms. A teacher may develop a learning contract to align with a unit of study in order to offer choices of products. These choices might reflect multiple intelligences or learning styles, or even focus on different aspects of a unit. Students are allowed to choose the activities to complete based on individual interests.

A second purpose for a learning contract may be to address different levels of mastery or understanding. For this purpose, the learning contract might be tiered to offer

activities for three levels of mastery: students still struggling to master the concepts, students who have mastered the concepts at grade level, and those students ready to go beyond grade-level mastery. The activities would all be focused on the same concepts but at different levels.

A third purpose for a learning contract may be to provide continued engagement for learners who have demonstrated early mastery of objectives through a pre-assessment. For this purpose, the individual student interests would be incorporated into the choices in order to keep the student actively learning while other students are obtaining grade-level mastery of the objectives. The student(s) would access the learning contract as a component of curriculum compacting.

A fourth purpose for a learning contract addresses the economy of limited resources. If there are not enough books, computers, or other materials for all students to access simultaneously, the learning contract can allow students to manage their own instruction by engaging in other activities until those resources are available on a rotating basis.

The structures of learning contracts vary widely. Some teachers prefer to list a description of activities to be completed. This list might include some activities that are mandatory and others that allow for choice. For example, the first few activities might require students to read the chapter in the text or complete a pre-assessment before selecting from additional activities. Some learning contracts are arranged into blocks resembling a tic-tac-toe board, offering nine activities or products. Still others are weighted by complexity or difficulty and assigned a certain number of points for each activity. For those learning contracts offered to students with early mastery, the learning contract might specify criteria for access, such as the successful completion of specific activities or a minimum score on a pre-assessment.

In designing a learning contract, the following questions need to be answered:

1. Who will be completing the learning contract (all or some, level of student, etc.)?
2. Will the contract be aligned with the standard curriculum and, if so, what objectives need to be addressed?
3. What space and time will be allotted for completing the activities?
4. When in the flow of a unit or study will the contract be used (i.e., to engage students at the beginning of the unit or as a culminating product)?
5. What resources are available to be incorporated and are they available for all students completing the contract?

6. How will the students manage their time?
7. How will the outcomes be assessed?

Two of the complexities surrounding the use of learning contracts entail fairness and assessment. In designing the contract, a teacher needs to consider how the requirements can be equitably specified and accurately measured. If all students are given a choice of activities and some activities require a greater challenge or amount of time, the tendency of students might be to choose the least challenging or time-intensive activities. In addition, because the needs of students differ, what is challenging for one student may not be challenging for another.

One solution is to require that a designated minimum amount of time be invested in the contract, rather than the completion of a minimal number of activities. Students may be required to maintain a log of their time invested both in and out of the classroom. This solution allows students to do one activity in greater depth or several activities that require less time. In addition, equivalent degrees of effort are required, as measured by time invested, for students with differing readiness levels, interests, and access to resources.

Assessment of the activities described on the learning contract needs to be clarified when the contract is developed. If the activities are used to demonstrate mastery of specific objectives, then the assessment should be tied to those objectives. However, in the case of curriculum compacting, greater emphasis could be put on time invested rather than on mastery, since the student has demonstrated required mastery before undertaking the learning contract. Some learning contracts involve the same criteria for assessment for all of the activity choices (e.g., degree of mastery of an objective, time invested, or originality). For other contracts, the assessment may need to differ for each activity.

In summary, because they involve an element of choice, learning contracts engage and motivate students by addressing individual needs while requiring mastery of the standard curriculum. The variety of products resulting from these choices provides novelty when students share their work. Most importantly, learning contracts model the independence and task commitment necessary for lifelong learning.

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See also Curriculum Compacting; Motivating Students; Tiered Assignments

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LEARNING DISABILITIES

Learning disabilities play a role in classroom management, broadly conceived, in several ways. This entry provides an overview of historical, definitional, and legal issues related to learning disabilities and offers an approach to learning disabilities based on a perspective that defines learning disabilities (1) as a developmental phenomenon resulting from a mismatch between the learner's needs and learning conditions and (2) as a challenge to design learning environments that most effectively support the widest array of learning needs.

Historical, Definitional, and Legal Aspects of Learning Disabilities

Learning disabilities comprise the most prevalent disability among students receiving special education services, with 4%–6% of public education students in the United States being classified as having a learning disability. Reading difficulties represent the overwhelming majority of learning disabilities, though difficulties in other academic areas (writing, spelling, mathematical calculations, speaking, and listening) also constitute learning disabilities.

Appreciating the role of learning disabilities in classroom management hinges on understanding what is meant by learning disabilities and how they manifest in the classroom. Although precisely defining the term *learning disability* is among the most controversial aspects of the field, the intended, practical meaning is that of unexpected underachievement in one or more specific academic skills.

Despite initial introduction of the term by Samuel Kirk in 1962 and inclusion of *specific learning disability* in federal special education legislation since the 1975 Education of All Handicapped Children Act, differing perspectives on which students do and do not qualify as having learning disabilities persist and preclude simple explanation. Learning disability might best be understood by picturing an archetypal student; the classic image of a student with a learning disability is one who is successful in many domains but

experiences persistent trouble making meaning from text, performing mathematical operations, or understanding language.

The definition of learning disability shapes the means for identifying students as having such difficulties. Historically, the dominant approach to identification was a literal manifestation of the idea of unexpected underachievement: identification criteria under federal legislation for decades relied on the use of standardized assessments to demonstrate a difference between a student's average or above-average intellectual ability and his or her performance in academic skill domains, and this difference had to be deemed unrelated to other disabilities or environmental disadvantages. The specific distance between these domains, or the *discrepancy formula*, varied from state to state and sometimes from district to district.

The discrepancy approach no longer dominates the identification process. Today, concerns focus both on failure to find meaningful differences between students identified in this way and other struggling learners and on the *wait to fail* approach it fosters in which students are only eligible for special education services once their achievement scores become sufficiently poor to create a wide enough gap. In 2004, reauthorization (under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act) of the Individuals with Disabilities in Education Act (IDEA), which is the federal legislation governing special education, made it possible for districts to use a *response to intervention* approach to identify students as having specific learning disabilities, stating that a discrepancy was no longer required for such identification and opening the door to greater use of clinical judgment. Under this model, lack of improvement in skills despite the use of targeted, evidence-based interventions can play a larger role in diagnosing learning disabilities.

Having a learning disability makes students eligible for special education in the public school system. Students with learning disabilities, like students with other kinds of disabilities, are guaranteed access to a *free, appropriate public education* in the *least restrictive environment* that meets their educational needs. The majority of students with learning disabilities are included in general education classes for most, if not all, of the school day.

Learning Disabilities in Practice: A Case Example

Scott is a sociable, creative ninth-grade student who is well liked by peers and teachers. He excels on the school's basketball team and in lab-based activities in his physics class. Reading has always been challenging for Scott, and in the third grade, he was diagnosed with a reading-based learning disability. He has had an

individualized education program since then and has received intensive instruction in reading; he continues to receive support in a resource room and some accommodations and modifications in his classes.

High school has proven even more difficult than middle school. Teachers write information on the whiteboard for students to take notes, and much of the homework involves readings that contain crucial information. Whereas science and mathematics were previously areas of strength for Scott, even these classes now increasingly rely on text, and so he struggles. Scott has found that if he talks through concepts with a teacher, he readily grasps the information, but this approach is not always practical when trying to keep up with high school-level courses.

A Developmental Phenomenon

Classroom management as the creation of a positive learning environment emphasizes the role of instructional conditions on the manifestation of learning disabilities in the classroom. Learning disabilities can be considered a developmental phenomenon in which there is a mismatch between the particular strengths and weaknesses of an individual learner and the conditions available for learning.

The notion of difficulty with a specific academic skill being sufficiently problematic to be considered a *disability* is specific to certain types of educational environments. If reading, writing, arithmetic, executive functions, and similar skills were less crucial to success in school, what is currently thought of as disabling would be mere variation.

As an analogy, individuals in the population vary in ability to tolerate spicy foods; many relish some kick, while others find spicy foods inedible. If living in a culture in which the only (or, at least, the dominant) food—and source of nutrition—contains large amounts of capsaicin, not tolerating spice could be meaningfully disabling. Similarly, learning disabilities present meaningful, life-affecting challenges because of the requirements in specific learning environments. Some of these requirements are purposeful and appropriately fixed, but others may be flexible enough to lessen the effects of learning disabilities and allow students like Scott to focus on learning the concepts and understanding the lessons without unintended barriers (approaches described below).

Persistent struggle due to learning disabilities affects not only school achievement but often permeates other aspects of life experience. Individuals with learning disabilities tend to experience greater levels of depression, anxiety, withdrawal, and loneliness, compared to peers without learning disabilities. Postsecondary education and employment outcomes tend to be poorer and the rates of delinquency higher. While Scott has shown

resilience in the face of consistent reading struggles, the risk of damage to his self-confidence and self-worth increases as his difficulties become more widespread. Therefore, for students such as Scott, those with learning disabilities, the stakes are high for ensuring that their learning environments provide needed supports.

Designing Learning Environments to Support All Learners

Because the impact of learning disabilities depends on the degree to which a learning environment supports the learner's needs, effective classroom management means creating learning environments that address the specific challenges faced by students who struggle. Focusing on the interaction between learners and learning environment arguably provides more leverage from a classroom management perspective than focusing solely on remediating the learner's skill deficits.

How can the learning environment be designed to support students identified with learning disabilities so as to lessen the impact of specific difficulties? Supporting students with learning disabilities typically involves a combination of targeted, intensive instruction to improve areas of difficulty and designing the general learning environment to be as accessible and appropriate as possible. Targeted remediation tends to be most effective at younger ages, with much of the approach in secondary grades focusing on strategies to compensate for persistent challenges.

Assuming that necessary intensive, skill-specific remediation is outside the concerns of classroom management being addressed here, the focus here is on designing the general education classroom to create a positive learning environment. Different frameworks exist for creating a supportive, inclusive classroom. These generally incorporate flexibility and options so students can access the learning methods and materials that work best for them.

Creating appropriate options in the instructional experience begins by emphasizing the goals of the lesson or activity, considering what barriers might exist for students with different strengths and weaknesses, and building in flexibility, where appropriate, for supporting the goal. In addition, supportive learning environments tend to focus on providing *scaffolding* in instruction. Scaffolding involves support from an adult, a more experienced peer, or technology as needed, particularly early in the learning experience.

As an example, the Universal Design for Learning (UDL) framework provides a model for designing an instructional environment so that it addresses the needs of all learners, including those with learning disabilities. Using the UDL framework, educators design instruction

with an emphasis on providing (1) multiple means of representing information (the *what* of learning), (2) multiple ways for students to act on instructional opportunities and express knowledge (the *how* of learning), and (3) multiple means of engaging with and being motivated by the learning experience (the *why* of learning). Differentiated instruction is another model to actively plan for learner differences and adjust curriculum and teaching to meet the needs of a variety of learners.

Scott's English Language Arts teacher recognizes that Scott has difficulty with decoding and reading comprehension; she also knows that other students struggle to understand the novels they read in class due to limited English proficiency, differences in background knowledge, and difficulty maintaining attention for lengthy reading passages. With a focus on specific learning goals for each lesson, she is able to provide options for the elements of instruction that are not central to the goal.

For example, when the focus is on determining the theme in a piece of literature, she offers opportunities for students to listen to an audio version of the text, use graphic organizers to keep track of characters and details, and work in cooperative learning groups to deeply engage with the text and support each other's understandings. These options support Scott—he can access the higher-level goal of focusing on theme even in a reading-focused course—and, they do so through a classroom management approach that does not single him out.

Conclusion

Classroom management that welcomes, supports, and fosters the abilities of students with learning disabilities not only promotes more positive outcomes for these individual students but also creates a more positive learning environment for all. The concept of learning disability and the system designed to support students identified as such comes from a striving for equity in educational opportunity. Without a commitment to designing instructional environments that are appropriate for all and that promote thriving even for students who persistently struggle, the very concept of learning disability would be largely irrelevant.

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See also Differentiated Instruction; Dyslexia: Individualizing Instruction; Inclusive Classrooms; Individualized Education Programs; Individuals with Disabilities Education Act; Technology for Struggling Readers

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LEARNING STYLES

Teachers are charged with meeting the needs of every child in their classroom. Doing so often requires differentiating instruction to align with the skills, abilities, and interests of individual students. Some teachers also differentiate instruction to align with students' *learning styles*, which refers to different people having a distinct and preferred way to learn information.

Proponents of the use of learning styles in education recommend that teachers assess the learning styles of their students and adapt their classroom methods to best fit each student's learning style. The premise is that if information is presented in multiple ways to meet a range of learning styles, more students will be engaged with the curriculum, and more will benefit from instruction. There is little research, however, to support the idea that individualizing instruction based on students' learning styles increases learning.

Models of Learning Styles

Over the years, various models of learning styles have been proposed. A recent review of the literature related to learning styles identified 71 different models. Although the details of each of the models differ, they all attempt to categorize individuals by their learning preferences, and the underlying claim in all is that instruction that aligns with these preferences will result in the greatest learning. Some of the most influential learning styles models include the Dunn and Dunn model, Fleming's VARK model, and Kolb's Learning Styles Inventory.

The Dunn and Dunn Model

One of the most widely used learning style models is that of education researchers Rita and Kenneth Dunn. They proposed that individuals' learning styles vary on five key dimensions: (1) environmental, (2) emotional support, (3) sociological composition, (4) physiological, and (5) psychological. The environmental dimension refers to individuals' learning preferences related to the physical environment (e.g., temperature, light, seating arrangement). The emotional dimension refers to students' preferences related to the amount of external structure, support, and motivation in a learning context. The sociological dimension refers to the amount and kinds of interactions (e.g., studying alone or in groups) individuals prefer during learning. The physiological dimension refers to individuals' preferences related to movement, time of day, and food intake. Finally, the psychological dimension refers to individuals' preferences for general learning strategies, such as global versus analytic strategies. An individual's unique combination of preferences on these five dimensions defines his or her learning style.

Fleming's VARK Model

The VARK model, developed by Neil Fleming, a teacher and researcher from New Zealand, proposes that there are four distinct learning styles: visual, auditory, reading/writing, and kinesthetic. According to this model, visual learners prefer information in visual form, such as graphs, drawings, diagrams, and highlighting with different colors. Second, auditory learners prefer to learn by listening and benefit from group discussions, oral stories, and verbal explanations. Moreover, reading/writing learners prefer written information and benefit from books, bulleted lists, and writing assignments. Finally, kinesthetic learners prefer to learn by moving, touching, and doing—and so they benefit from hands-on activities, such as performing experiments and role playing.

Few individuals, however, fall exclusively into one of these categories. Approximately 60% of the population is considered *multimodal*, meaning they exhibit preferences in several categories.

Kolb's Learning Styles Inventory

Educational theorist David A. Kolb proposed the Learning Styles Inventory. Using the model implied in the inventory, the assumption is that as individuals gain experience in problem solving, they develop particular strengths for grappling with problems and information, leading to four distinct learning styles: accommodating, converging, diverging, and assimilating. The accommodating

style involves a preference for ideas derived from trial and error. Those adopting this style are good at adapting to changing circumstances but can sometimes be perceived as impatient because of their need to act. The converging style involves a preference for abstract thinking followed by experimentation. Individuals with this learning style are seen as being particularly suited to solving abstract technical problems, rather than interpersonal problems. The diverging style involves a preference for ideas derived from experience and a preference for observing and theorizing about problems. Though individuals with this learning style prefer thinking over acting, their thinking is apt to be practical thinking. Individuals with this style are described as being able to consider multiple perspectives. Finally, the assimilating style involves a preference for abstract thinking and theorizing about problems. Individuals with this learning style tend to create theoretical models and emphasize logical thinking that may not be especially practical.

Learning Styles in the Classroom

Models of learning styles have led to claims that matching instruction to individuals' preferred styles of learning will enhance learning. For example, the claim is that kinesthetic learners—students who learn best through hands-on activities—would do better in classes that feature plenty of experiments, while verbal learners would do worse. Thus, teachers are encouraged to assess their students' learning styles and then adapt their teaching style to accommodate students' learning styles. However, because it is difficult to tailor instruction for each student, some educators have suggested that teachers should do their best to present content in multiple ways, such as including kinesthetic, visual, and auditory components in each lesson.

Evidence for Effects of Accommodating Learning Styles

Evidence in support of accommodating learning styles is mixed. On the one hand, there is a good deal of evidence for differences in people's preferences for ways of thinking about and processing information. Individuals will state preferences for learning information, and these stated preferences tend to correspond with the results of learning style inventories and questionnaires. In addition, individuals tend to have different strengths that they rely on in problem solving and learning. For example, some individuals may have a better visual memory while others have a better auditory memory.

On the other hand, there is no strong evidence that teachers should tailor their instruction to their students'

particular learning styles. Many of the studies used to support the use of learning styles in education have not systematically tested the result of a match or mismatch to students' stated learning preferences. The majority of well-designed studies that have done so find no advantage of matching instruction to students' learning styles.

Rather, the evidence suggests that students of all learning styles learn about the same as long as the teaching approach used is appropriate for the content being taught. For example, consider a geography lesson in which children are being taught the location and size of Belgium relative to Germany. The learning styles concept would suggest that visual learners would learn more from completing a puzzle of the nations in Europe, while auditory learners would benefit most from being given a verbal explanation. Yet, the evidence indicates that in this context, both groups of students would locate Belgium on a map better after completing the puzzle—because what is being taught (size and location) lends itself to emphasizing the visual. Similarly, both visual learners and auditory learners would learn the pronunciation of a word in a foreign language best if they listened to someone pronouncing the word—as opposed to themselves reading the word or having some other visual representation.

Conclusion

Although the concept of learning styles is popular, there is limited evidence for the effectiveness of adapting instruction to individuals' learning styles. Therefore, when organizing a classroom and preparing lessons, teachers may better serve the needs of their students by carefully considering how to match instruction to the demands of the material taught, rather than attempting to teach any given lesson in multiple modalities.

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See also Assessment of Students; Learning Disabilities; Multisensory Instruction; Sensory Integration

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LESSON PLANNING AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Essential to the daily functioning and learning in a classroom are detailed lesson plans. Although the content of a lesson plan is of course important, a teacher cannot ignore the elements of classroom management that are built into the plan. In a productive learning environment, the alignment of classroom management and learning should be seamless.

Beginning teachers often have a misconception of lesson planning. Some say they cannot teach a certain lesson because students are not well behaved; they cannot get to content until they control the class. In reality, classroom management and lesson planning go hand in hand.

When selecting the type of lesson, there are two basic categories of lesson planning: teacher-centered and learner-centered. The demands on the teacher and the learners in regard to management are different, as described in the sections that follow.

Teacher-Centered Models

Teacher-centered instructional models build on the learning theories of behaviorism, social cognitive theory, and information processing theories. According to these various models, knowledge is seen as fixed, and learning occurs from observation. Among such teacher-centered models is that of *direct instruction*.

Direct instruction is often identified with Madeline Cheek Hunter's Eight Lesson Components for Direct Model Instruction. Hunter (1916–1994), an influential American educator, developed a model for teaching and learning that is widely used in schools throughout the United States. There are eight steps that include the following:

- anticipatory set (initial motivation and focus for the lesson);
- objective (teacher clearly identifies the behavior students will be expected to perform);
- presentation of information (teacher presents information);
- modeling (the teacher models the behavior the students are expected to perform);
- checking for understanding (teacher checks student understanding of various parts of what has been presented);
- guided practice (teacher checks student understanding again on the whole idea rather than individual parts of what was presented—the teacher is checking to see if the student can perform the expected behavior);

- independent practice (the behavior stated by the teacher at the beginning is performed by the student without teacher guidance); and
- closure (review with the students what was accomplished in the lesson).

This model of instruction is very teacher-directed, with the teacher being the expert in the behavior.

There are many decisions teachers must make about classroom management while planning a direct lesson. First, they must identify key components to be learned in the lesson and define those through a behavior-focused objective at the onset. From this objective, teachers must determine what real-world connection this skill has for the students to highlight the relevance of the skill for students. Also, based on their prior knowledge of the students, teachers must allot appropriate amounts of time for students to view models and practice the skill. If teachers are not aware of the time required to acquire the new skill or if they allow too much time, it can produce a reduction in student engagement. Finally, teachers must have procedures set in place for student talk and engagement with the information, materials, and each other. This environment is usually tightly managed—while not always authoritarian—and requires students to transition from observers to participants once directed to do so.

Learner-Centered Models

As with the teacher-centered model of instruction, there are a variety of instructional plans considered learner-centered, including cooperative learning and problem-based learning. These instructional models build on the constructivist perspective. For the outside observer, the learning environment may look more chaotic than that of teacher-centered models. Here, the focus is on the *problem-based* learning model of instruction.

Lesson plans for a problem-based lesson are detailed, but in a different way from those of the direct model. Again, the teachers start with the content and objectives they expect students to achieve during the lesson and what it will look like when they achieve it. Specifically, the teacher outlines what students should know and be able to do at the end of the experience. Then the teacher creates a driving question or problem statement that provides a central focus for the students. Since each student may approach the problem or situation differently, from there the teacher creates an assessment plan that defines what is expected of the students. The assessment plan usually comprises rubrics that judge progress in performance. Students work either in teams or individually to solve the problem and then present their information to the class.

With classroom management and planning for problem-based learning, there are some similarities to the direct model, as well as some additional considerations. Again, teachers must create a plan with specific outcomes for the students at the beginning of the planning process. Further, they must create real-world, relevant problems the students will engage with. Teachers need to be aware of the time allotted for specific activities based on the needs of their students. From there, the teachers must create procedures for themselves and the students because there will be a multitude of tasks going on in the learning environment. For example, some students may be on the computer, in the library, or conferencing with the teacher as they work on their planning stages or on their presentation. In order for this time to be productive, students should be taught how to work together and independently without the constant direct supervision of the teacher. As well, there must be procedures in place for how students will start and end their work time each day, including acquiring and returning materials, cleaning up, and storing/saving items—all to maintain a safe environment in the classroom. Teachers must monitor student progress through the process, as well as determine what to do with groups that finish early or groups that lag behind. Although this approach is loosely structured, there are still many rules, procedures, and expectations in place for students to maintain engagement in the learning process.

Conclusion

Although there are various instructional models a teacher can choose from to engage students in learning, one element that remains constant is the incorporation of classroom management to increase academic learning time. A detailed lesson plan focusing on content is necessary, but not sufficient, to engage students in the learning process. A clear focus on students and the environment is needed to meet their learning needs.

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See also Ability Grouping; Constructivist Approaches; Cooperative Learning Groups; Lessons and Lesson Planning; Management of Student Grouping; Managing Classroom Discussions; Managing Groupwork

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LESSONS AND LESSON PLANNING

Devising engaging lessons, as well as participating in careful lesson planning and sequencing, permits teachers to establish a positive and productive learning environment. While lesson planning uses distinct, different, and discrete skills than classroom management, a well-planned lesson can play a large part in supporting a classroom management plan. By planning, a teacher's preparation serves to establish clear and concise answers to a series of questions. These questions focus upon what students should be studying, how they interact with the material, where in the classroom this interaction will take place, when the teacher will be satisfied that students have mastered the material, as well as other concerns. Lesson planning can revolve around a detailed approach that explicitly examines teacher and student behaviors, or it can be informal. Regardless of how lesson planning occurs, lessons and lesson planning play a vital role in a teacher's classroom management. Skilled delivery of lesson plans, in addition to other learning environment factors, also plays a role in teachers' classroom management.

Background

Before the 1930s, little thought had been given to the process by which teachers planned instruction. One of the first who examined lesson planning was Ralph Tyler, an educational psychologist who was prominent in the fields of assessment, curriculum development, and evaluation. Most well known for his affiliations with Ohio State University and the University of Chicago, Tyler headed the Eight-Year Study from 1933 to 1941. The Eight-Year Study was a national endeavor that explored the fit between the curriculum of 30 high schools and more than 300 colleges and universities. As a result of his work on the Eight-Year Study, Tyler became interested in observing, analyzing, and interpreting the educational decision making of teachers and instructors.

Tyler developed what became known as the Tyler Rationale, a means of delivering and evaluating

classroom instruction. The Tyler Rationale focused on four simple questions:

- What educational objectives should the school strive to attain?
- How can learning experiences be chosen that will assist in attaining these learning objectives?
- How can the learning experiences best be organized to maximize effective instruction? and
- How can the learning experiences' effectiveness be evaluated?

This approach radically changed the manner in which many viewed schools and their operations, and the Tyler Rationale proved to be very influential, emphasizing the need for teachers to establish learning objectives before teaching a lesson and then assessing how well students learned these after doing so.

The writing of objectives was greatly influenced by the work of educational psychologist Benjamin Bloom, a student of Tyler's. Bloom is best known for his work on the taxonomy of the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor psychological domains. First published in 1956, Bloom's *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook 1: Cognitive Domain* was tremendously influential and has been used in conjunction with Tyler's educational objectives to help teachers plan instructional activities that help develop children's higher mental processes.

Bloom's taxonomy divided the cognitive domain into six separate levels of thinking skills: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. *Knowledge* refers to information that is largely observed and recalled, such as information related to dates, events, and places. While knowledge certainly is a byproduct of mastery of subject matter, too often it is overemphasized in schools, at least to the extent it excludes other types of thinking skills. *Comprehension* is important as it demonstrates an understanding of information studied. Students who show comprehension of material are able to translate knowledge into a new context and are able to interpret facts and compare and contrast them. *Application* tasks ask students to use information in a manner that allows them to solve problems, using required skills or knowledge to do so. Application requires the use of methods, concepts, or theories in new situations. *Analysis* involves seeing patterns, organizing parts, or recognizing hidden meanings. Analysis is often the first thinking skill referred to as demanding higher order cognition. *Synthesis* requires students to use old ideas to create new ones. Students who demonstrate synthesis can generalize from given facts, relate knowledge from several areas, and make predictions and draw conclusions. Finally, *evaluation* tasks ask students to compare and discriminate between

ideas. Evaluation refers to assessing the value of theories and presentations, making choices based upon reasoned arguments, or verifying the value of evidence.

Once the need for objectives, and a way to think about those objectives, had been established, administrators began expecting more from teachers' lesson plans. Instruction related to lesson planning became part of the curriculum of teacher preparation programs and administrators began to evaluate lesson plans of the teachers under their supervision. Teachers' lesson planning can be thought of in two parts—lesson planning and unit planning. Lessons are the basic component of all instructional planning and usually designate an hour's worth of instruction. The seven-step lesson plan format is used by many school districts to ensure consistency from classroom to classroom. Units develop several weeks' worth of planning devoted to a single theme. The lessons build upon each other and make use of the information covered in a seven-step lesson plan, although the format is somewhat different.

Development of Lessons

The seven-step lesson plan format, developed by Madeline Cheek Hunter, has been widely adopted by schools across the United States. Having served as a teacher, school psychologist, and principal of the laboratory school at the University of California, Los Angeles, Hunter was deeply interested in how exemplary teachers plan instruction. Believing that teachers' primary responsibility was making decisions that affected children's education, Hunter began to study this process. These decisions fell into three categories—those related to content taught, those related to teachers' behaviors, and those related to students' learning. To assist teachers, Hunter developed the seven-step lesson plan format as a means of assuring that each teacher's decisions could as much as possible be effective and successful.

The seven-step lesson plan format comprises the following components: objectives, standards, anticipatory set, teaching, guided practice, closure, and independent practice. While Hunter never stated that each of the seven components must be present in every lesson plan, they are frequently discussed as a group.

Objectives are what teachers decide upon first; they provide teachers with a clear idea of what, specifically, should the student know, understand, and be able to do as a result of the teaching. Objectives can be formal or informal. Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives gives an idea of the terms used in an instructional objective (i.e., knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, or evaluation).

Standards represent the standards of performance that are to be expected and how students will be held

accountable for what is expected. The students should be informed about the standards of performance. Standards were traditionally an explanation of the type of lesson to be presented, procedures to be followed, and behavioral expectations related to it, what the students are expected to do and what knowledge or skills are to be demonstrated and in what manner. Today state content standards are often used. Both objectives and standards are covered during the planning stage, but they should be shared with children as this often reduces off-task behavior.

Anticipatory set, sometimes referred to as set induction, refers to a *hook* to grab students' attention—those teacher actions and statements that relate students' experiences to the objectives of the lesson. This puts students into a receptive frame of mind to

- focus student attention on the lesson;
- create an organizing framework for the ideas, principles, or information that is to follow (see the teaching strategy called *advance organizers*);
- extend the understanding and the application of abstract ideas through the use of example or analogy, used any time a different activity or new concept is to be introduced.

Teaching represents three separate but related actions, including input, modeling, and checking for understanding. Input involves how the teacher provides the information needed for students to gain the knowledge or skill through lecture, film, audio, video, pictures, and the like. Modeling occurs once the material has been presented, as the teacher shows students examples of what is expected as an end product of their work. The critical aspects are explained through labeling, categorizing, comparing, and the like. Students are taken to the application level (problem solving, comparison, summarizing, etc.). Checking for understanding represents how teachers determine whether students have *gotten it* before proceeding. It is essential that students practice doing it right so the teacher must know that students understand before proceeding to practice. If there is any doubt that the class has not understood, the concept/skill should be retaught before practice begins.

Guided practice provides an opportunity for each student to demonstrate grasp of new learning by working through an activity or exercise under the teacher's direct supervision. The teacher moves around the room during this component to determine the level of mastery and to provide individual remediation as needed.

Closure consists of teacher actions or statements that are designed to bring a lesson or presentation to an appropriate conclusion. Process assists students to bring things together in their own minds, to make sense out of what has just been taught. Merely stating,

“Any questions? No? OK, let’s move on” is not closure. Closure is used to

- cue students to the fact that they have arrived at an important point in the lesson or the end of a lesson;
- help organize student learning;
- help form a coherent picture, to consolidate, eliminate confusion and frustration, and so on;
- reinforce the major points to be learned;
- help establish the network of thought relationships that provide a number of possibilities for cues for retrieval.

Closure is the act of reviewing and clarifying the key points of a lesson, tying them together into a coherent whole, and ensuring their utility in application by securing them in the student’s conceptual network.

Finally, *independent practice* serves as reinforcement of the mastered content or skill. It is provided on a repeating schedule so that the learning is not forgotten. It may be homework or group or individual work in class. It can be utilized as an element in a subsequent project. It should provide for decontextualization—allowing sufficiently different contexts so that the skill/concept may be applied to any relevant situation, not only the context in which it was originally learned. The failure to do this is responsible for most student failure to be able to apply something learned.

Conclusion: Interaction With Classroom Management

Lesson planning helps to improve classroom management as well-prepared teachers are better able to deliver quality instruction and provide engaging learning experiences. This reduces off-task behavior on the part of children who do not understand what is occurring in the classroom. Effective planning alone will not ensure a well-run classroom. Teachers must also engage in other behaviors that help ensure that the lesson is effective. Establishing a positive classroom is important, as a nonthreatening learning environment builds student motivation. Clear instructions regarding quality of work, directions, and expectations also assist classroom management, as does the removal of distractions and the reduction of student inattention. Student attention can be maintained through the random selection of students selected to speak, questions that allow multiple answers, frequent praise, and animation and enthusiasm on the part of the teacher.

Appropriate pacing—neither too fast nor too slow—also helps maintain strong classroom management, as does the provision of suitable seatwork, that which is both diagnostic and prescriptive. Teachers

who frequently evaluate how lessons have proceeded, and reflect upon how to improve in the future, often have better classroom environments because the quality of instruction is consistently being refined. Smooth transitions between various parts of a lesson also help maintain classroom management, which includes having adequate procedures for the distribution and collection of equipment, supplies, and completed student work. Finally, positive teacher–student relationships are perhaps the most important aspect of classroom management. Teachers who work to create a positive and supportive learning environment for all students and who quickly correct misbehaviors often benefit from smooth instructional sequences.

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See also Ability Grouping; Curriculum and Classroom Management; Differentiated Instruction; Lesson Planning and Classroom Management; Management of Student Grouping; Managing Groupwork; Reading, Language Arts, and Classroom Management; Writing and Classroom Management

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LIMITS AND LIMIT SETTING

The ability to set limits within a classroom is essential to classroom management, especially because limits and limit setting go hand in hand with setting clear expectations for proper behavior in any school or classroom. Limits create a controlled classroom environment, which leads to a successful learning experience for students as well as teachers. The general and most important way to set limits is by generating clear rules within a classroom. These limits are important to establish immediately so as to reduce confusion and ensure proper behavior on the part of students. This entry outlines the methods by

which proper limits can be established within a classroom, starting with how to create rules and then how to introduce proper consequences, thus creating a controlled and manageable classroom.

Guidelines for Setting Limits

There are many guidelines surrounding the proper implementation of limits and limit setting within a classroom. The seven most important guidelines to setting successful limits include the following: (1) phrasing the rules in a positive manner; (2) establishing explicitly clear rules that are operationally defined; (3) having a minimal list of rules, no more than five; (4) phrased in a statement form; (5) including one compliance rule (e.g., Do what Mrs. Smith asks you to do); (6) making rules observable and in ways that can lead to data collection/measurement; and (7) posting rules so all can see them in the classroom. Examples of positive phrasing are “walk when inside the classroom” instead of “don’t run.” A clear rule of “keep your hands to yourself” states the desired behavior with no room for confusion. A minimal list of rules, no more than five, requires limiting rules to highlight the most important areas. Teachers should typically have an umbrella rule that outlines many specific behaviors. For example, “Hands to yourself” is better than “No fighting. Don’t take your peers’ belongings. No shouting.”

In addition, it is also important to make sure that the behaviors that are expected are also doable and manageable. A *doable* rule means that it is a rule that students are actually able to follow, such as “put all of your belongings in your cubby every morning.” Students are easily able to follow this rule, therefore making it an excellent one to implement.

A *manageable* rule consists of a rule that can be easily monitored by the teacher, such as “Sit quietly and wait for the teacher during carpet time.” This is a rule that can easily be followed by the students and easily monitored by the teacher; it would be simple to see who is not following this rule.

Time is needed to practice the expected behaviors. For example, learning how to transition from deskwork to the carpet will involve knowing what the expectations are and then practicing those transitions until everyone understands the rules. Adding in a chance for the kids to *demonstrate* nonexamples of the behaviors provides some fun and a clear distinction of what is unacceptable.

Establishing Consequences

Once rules have been established, it is imperative that the consequences of not following them be introduced. The incorporation of consequences following the

establishment of rules leads to limits and limit setting. Consequences should be created in a way that shows the students that what they did was wrong and teaches them that they should follow the rules that have been established throughout the classroom. There are also specific guidelines to creating the best consequences in a classroom. Consequences should not be harsh punishments; they should be created in a way that students understand their meaning and fairness and what it will take to avoid them in the future.

Two important guidelines for creating an appropriate consequence are the following: (1) incorporating multiple steps in a consequence, and (2) creating logical consequences. A multiple-step consequence incorporates warnings in the consequence. If students disobey a rule, they receive different consequences that increase in severity the more times they break the rule that has been set. If the consequences are structured properly, the students should learn quickly before the ultimate and most severe consequence has to be enacted. Examples of this include warnings. If a student disobeys a rule, a first warning would consist solely of talking to the student, a second warning would include taking away a privilege (such as limiting free choice activities), and a third warning would include a phone call to the student’s home. The teacher can incorporate as many warnings as he or she feels are necessary, but the consequences should be gradual.

A logical consequence involves a consequence that has to do with the rule that was disobeyed. For example, if students run in the hallway when they should not, a logical consequence would be making them go all the way to the end of the hallway and walk back.

The following example incorporates the process of setting proper limits and the implementation of consequences as a result of breaking the already established rules.

Ms. Akbari is a third-grade teacher. She began her year by clearly writing out the classroom rules on a bulletin board at the front of the classroom. Her rules included “Listen when Ms. Akbari is talking,” “Respect yourself and respect each other” and “Carpet time means quiet time.” Her students understand all the rules, and normally follow them. Ms. Akbari also created a consequence chart; a bulletin board with all of her students’ names on it with pockets underneath. If someone broke a rule, they had to put a ice cream stick in their corresponding pocket. They knew that one stick was a warning, the second meant missing recess, and the third entailed a call home. One student, Ramona, spoke out in class while her teacher was talking. Ms. Akbari calmly made

her put an ice cream stick in her pocket on the consequence chart, and Ramona immediately understood that what she did was wrong. Owing to the clear rules and the even clearer consequences, Ramona's behavior immediately changed and she stopped talking while her teacher was talking.

Positive Reinforcement

Consequences, although important, are not the only element of limits and limit setting. Creating a positive reinforcement system is also a helpful method to incorporate into a classroom. A positive reinforcement system rewards good behavior and proper rule following. The rewards implemented in a classroom encourage students to continue exhibiting good behavior. These rewards can include verbal praise from the teacher to the student for doing something that he or she was supposed to do, as well as a material reward.

There are guidelines to giving out material objects as rewards. The rewards must be (1) desirable, (2) immediate, and (3) limited. A desirable reward involves a reward that the students actually want. Students are more likely to follow rules and exhibit good behavior if they know they will get something they want. An immediate reward includes a reward that the teacher hands out directly after the desirable behavior occurs. If students have to wait a while for their reward after doing something good, they most likely will not be willing to repeat the good behavior. Rewards should also be limited in these situations. Although rewards do ensure the preferred behavior in a classroom, students should not get used to getting something every time they follow the rules. That is why rewards should be phased out over a period of time. Students should grow accustomed to incorporating proper behavior into their everyday life; it should become a normal occurrence.

The following example incorporates the proper implementation of a positive reinforcement system in a first-grade classroom.

Ms. Gomez, a first-grade teacher, uses the "clip system" in her classroom. Each student has his or her own clip on a colored chart that has different levels and consequences. At the beginning of each day, each student starts in the middle of the chart, and moves his clip up or down throughout the course of the day. They move their clips up when making acceptable choices and down when making unacceptable choices. Along with the chart, each student is given a "punch card," a card in which he or she receives zero, one, two, or three hole punches depending

on where he or she ended up on the chart at the end of the day. The students receive the rewards once their punch card is filled up; they are then able to choose a prize from their "Our Best Behavior Prize Pass Catalog," a reward for their good behavior and decision-making skills. These include simple, yet desirable rewards such as bringing a stuffed animal into school for a day, cutting in line, or sitting in the wheelie chair for a day. Due to this system, the students know which behaviors are appropriate and which are not. They are rewarded for the good choices they make, showing them that they are behaviors that should be repeated, and are punished for bad choices, which teaches them that those choices should not be repeated. Also, because the rewards are things that the students really enjoy, they are more inclined to be on their best behavior in order to get something they want.

Conclusion

Establishing clear rules, incorporating appropriate consequences, and implementing a positive reinforcement system are the keys to limits and limit setting within a classroom. Once these rules are established and students understand why they should follow them, what will happen if they do not, and what they will get if they do, the teacher will have full control over his or her classroom, especially because his or her students will understand the limits in the classroom.

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See also Beginning the School Year; Discipline Codes of Conduct; Preventing Behavior Problems; Rules and Expectations

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LINGUISTIC DIVERSITY AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

In spite of the growing linguistic diversity in U.S. classrooms, many teachers are inadequately prepared to work with English language learners (ELLs). As a result, any grade-level teacher may feel at a loss when it comes to teaching ELLs. The usual tried-and-true techniques that function for English-speaking students familiar with the culture of U.S. classrooms may not work with ELLs. This does not mean that a teacher will inevitably fail. It simply means that those teaching ELLs must reflect on the specific needs of ELLs and the implications of teaching ELLs for making classroom management decisions.

Reflecting on the needs of ELLs can reduce the likelihood for linguistic and cultural miscommunication and conflict. It will also better ensure a successful educational experience. When students laugh, the teachers may be quick to respond with a request for silence. However, this laughter may have a very natural and therapeutic function for ELLs who feel out of their element. Moreover, a request for silence may not allow students of similar language background the opportunity to support each other through quick translations of classroom instructions. When students speak their first languages, teachers often demand that they speak only English in the classroom. However, first language use can serve as a vehicle for students to negotiate an assignment and actually help them stay on task. When students' first languages are valued and fostered—either through bilingual education or other first language support—they are actually more successful academically because they are allowed to draw on a richer and larger source of background schemata. These are just some of the examples of reflective practice when teaching ELLs.

Reflective practice with ELLs can make teachers aware of their first and unhelpful responses to ELLs. Often teachers become nervous when students speak their first language, thinking, "They're talking about me." If a teacher acts threatened by or displays resentment for the first language, it is possible that students *will* then speak about him or her. However, if a teacher demonstrates his or her respect and understanding for the support that occasional first language use provides, it is more likely that students will have little motivation to speak behind a teacher's back.

It is when a teacher appears insensitive or unpromising that students may respond with anger. A good approach is for a teacher to discuss his or her reasons for allowing students to use their first language in class with the students. For example, teachers can explain how they understand that native language use can be

helpful in their learning process. At the same time, they can also question students who are busily speaking in their first language, asking if they are on- or off-task.

Teachers need to be especially patient and comfortable with a few moments of silence as they give their ELLs extra time. Similarly, student workloads, course assignments, and due dates may need to be adjusted to ease the demands made on ELLs. Teachers need to be sensitive to the increased cognitive and affective demands when one operates in a second language and plan their classroom management accordingly.

Structuring Classroom Activities and Supporting Language Acquisition

Teachers need to acknowledge that in the case of ELLs, the behavior teachers may interpret as bored, inattentive, or lazy may very well be simply a natural response to an inability to comprehend classroom input. Instead of responding with a disciplinary measure or a change of attitude toward the ELL student, teachers can focus their energy on structuring classroom activities to support language acquisition. It is essential to find ways to engage these students. A Chicago public school teacher mentioned how her middle school ELLs, who as recent immigrants are quiet and no trouble in class, can become troublemakers, the students she needs to worry about, after they have been forgotten or ignored. These students, bored and idle, may turn to making trouble to gain attention and keep interested in what is happening around them.

ELL students are able to follow best when teachers use gestures and visual representations to accompany their speech. Clearly, visual support is essential to help contextualize classroom discourse for the ELLs. Teachers can provide this support by using the chalkboard and other visual aids. In addition, teachers should provide models for classroom procedures and practices for their ELLs. They can either provide models themselves or call on students to model exercises and activities before beginning.

In the same way, routines are especially helpful to ELLs, as they reduce the likelihood that a learner will become lost in unexpected transitions. Because many ELLs come to the United States with experience in different classroom cultures, predictable routines are more easily learned and understood and can help anchor them in the new culture.

Routines are also excellent opportunities to provide comprehensible input, as students repeatedly hear messages such as "Please hand your homework to the front," "Take out your daily calendar," and "Friday is library day." These regular messages, combined with the actions that accompany them, constitute powerful language

learning opportunities (as they hear and see the language in context) for the students. ELLs may rely heavily on these routines, so when there are transitions or changes to a plan, teachers need to provide clear instructions (ideally with visual support). These instructions should be given before students are divided into groups to help eliminate distractions and increase in noise level.

Teachers can also ease new immigrant students into classroom routines by assigning them a personal buddy. Ideally, this buddy would be a student who knows the newcomer's language. His or her job would be to accompany the new student through the day, providing a model for appropriate behavior and a resource for support. For example, the buddy could explain classroom procedures (how to line up for the bus, pay for lunch, etc.) and provide an up-close language model as the ELL observes his or her interactions with other students and the teacher.

All of the above methods and suggestions, the use of gestures and visuals, modeling, routines, careful instructions, and partnering, will not be helpful if ELLs are not considered active members of the classroom community. This means that they must be included in classroom activities and not given other projects—such as a worksheet—to work on while the other students engage in group activities. To signal ELLs' full membership in the classroom community, they should be seated toward the middle and front of the classroom. That way, they will be immersed within the various interactions between the students and teacher. They will have the opportunity to observe their more experienced classmates, while the teacher will also be able to observe and assess their level of comprehension and adaptation.

Another way to include ELLs is to plan collaborative learning and pairwork projects in which students work together in both their first and/or second languages. Allowing students to work in groups provides learning opportunities through social interaction. Second language acquisition specialists have discussed the importance of this social interaction, which provides students with large amounts of comprehensible input. Input becomes comprehensible to language learners when language is used in meaningful ways within authentic contexts. Group projects, unlike abstract teacher talk, may provide rich learning opportunities for language learners as the students observe and engage in communication with a purpose. Moreover, working in small groups with classmates also provides ELLs the opportunity to produce language. The opportunity for speech production is also an important part of the language acquisition process. As students turn to one another to ask for or provide assistance, share information, and check comprehension, their interactions provide the authentic fodder for language acquisition to occur.

Building Community and Affirming Linguistic Diversity

Teachers generally agree that it is of utmost importance to build a strong sense of community among students. Creating a classroom environment wherein students feel safe, secure, and a sense of belonging will help reduce fear and anxiety. This is especially important for ELLs who may have recently immigrated under very stressful or traumatic conditions. Even when a teacher doesn't speak the first language of his or her students, small details, such as learning to pronounce students' names correctly, displaying welcome signs in many languages, and making eye contact with students, can help convey to ELLs that they are important members of the classroom community. Allowing students to work in cooperative groups (especially groupings that remain unchanged for long periods of time) may be another way to help create a sense of belonging to a community.

Making an effort to connect with parents or guardians of ELLs will also send the message that ELLs belong and are an important part of the school community. Because there may be difficulties communicating with ELLs' family members, it is helpful to draw on support offered through schools (e.g., in the ESL, bilingual, or guidance programs) that help direct teachers to appropriate parent liaisons or translation services to aid in communications. If a school does not provide institutional support for communication with the families of ELLs, a teacher may need to assume an advocate role and lobby for this support on their behalf. The existence of these programs causes students' languages and cultures to gain status and, as such, increases the ELLs' and their families' sense of belonging and the likelihood for academic success.

Most importantly, teachers need to learn about their students. Because learning is built on previous learning, it is essential that teachers make an effort to learn about and build on the cultural and linguistic backgrounds their students bring from home. Often these different backgrounds are seen as deficits or problems, while ironically, it is these students who have the potential to leave our school systems as bilingual and bicultural. When teachers learn to see the diverse backgrounds of their students as resources, these students' experiences can serve to promote the multilingualism and multiculturalism of all students and the teacher.

Teachers can find many creative ways to learn about their students. They can foster relationships with community mentors who are willing to share information about their communities. They can watch videos or read literature written by or about the communities of their students. Teachers can familiarize themselves with the countries from which their students immigrate, making it

a point to learn where the countries are, which languages are spoken, and other important information about students' backgrounds. Teachers may have students from many different countries, so they can choose to concentrate on one country or geographical area at a time.

Taking the steps to promote ELLs' positive experiences with regard to their social relations and self-esteem will lay the foundation for their English language acquisition. As is known, if students' social and emotional needs are not met, it is very unlikely that they will be able to turn their attention to the intellectual demands made of them in classrooms. This necessitates making the inclusion of ELLs a deliberate priority in the curriculum.

In addition to fostering a sense of community, it is important for all teachers to promote the affirmation of diversity in their classrooms. Teachers need to model a respect for all languages. One of the most powerful ways a teacher can do this is by learning and using a second language. This will demonstrate the teacher's respect and openness for languages other than English and provide the teacher the opportunity to undergo the process of learning another language. This may move the teacher beyond seeing linguistic diversity as a threat or problem to be avoided or feared in the classroom and sensitize the teacher to the needs of language learners. The hope is that teachers will make their classroom management decisions based not on fear or ignorance with regard to teaching their ELLs but on a culturally responsive classroom management model. This will reduce the chances that management decisions are guilty of perpetuating *linguicism*, or discrimination on account of language. Linguicism (lesser known than its cohorts racism, sexism, classism, etc.) refers to anything used to promote an unequal division of power and resources between groups defined on the basis of language.

There are many cases of linguicism. For example, a middle school Spanish teacher told about a conversation at one of his faculty meetings. A monolingual English-speaking teacher had complained about the use of Spanish in their school, citing an occasion when a group of boys had been teasing a girl in Spanish. The teacher feared that something inappropriate had been said to the girl. She told her colleagues that she hadn't known how to handle the situation and suggested that the school ban the speaking of Spanish.

If the teasing had occurred in English, the penalty contemplated would not likely have been to ban the speaking of English for these students. Why then would a disciplinary measure be appropriate for Spanish-speaking students, but not English-speaking students? Moreover, this differential treatment appears to punish students for speaking Spanish, instead of for teasing.

Linguicism is also evident when teachers ignore their newly immigrated students, seating them at the

back of the room to fill out worksheet after worksheet "because they just don't understand," while the rest of the class engages in cooperative learning activities. Linguicism is also seen when notes to parents go home only in English when many students come from communities largely populated with Spanish, Hmong, or Chinese speakers. These examples show how classroom management decisions can discriminate and reduce the likelihood of inclusion, learning, and achievement because of students' language backgrounds.

To counter linguicism, teachers and schools need to take an active role in implementing antiracist pedagogy in the curriculum. Teachers need to be aware that ELLs, especially post-September 11, may meet racism or anti-immigrant sentiments in the classroom and elsewhere.

Educational administration can support the achievement of ELLs through its support of linguistic diversity as well. For example, school districts can engage in affirmative action to promote the hiring of a linguistically diverse faculty. They can ensure the translation of important documents into the students' home languages. They can offer programs that support first and second language maintenance and growth. And, they can foster their relationships with communities for whom English is an additional language.

Conclusion

In conclusion, it is possible that teachers may encounter learning and behavior difficulties among their ELLs. This can be expected as part of the normal linguistic, cultural, and academic learning process required of ELLs. Being aware of students' natural responses to this process, using strategies to make classroom activities more comprehensible, and creating a linguistically affirmative classroom climate are ways in which teachers can successfully manage ELLs' learning environments. Furthermore, the suggestions made here for managing classrooms of linguistically diverse students hold for *all* students as well.

Mary Elizabeth Curran

See also Bilingual Education; Cultural Diversity; Culturally Pluralistic Classrooms; English Language Learners and Classroom Behavior; English Learners; Immigrant Children and Families; Language Differences; Urban Schools

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LOCUS OF CONTROL

How people interpret their environments and make sense of their successes and failures shapes their motivation to persist or the decision to give up. This is true for students as they work in the classroom setting and teachers as they design and implement lessons. Students make judgments about the control they have to bring about certain outcomes such as completing a task and obtaining a *good* grade. Similarly, teachers' judgments of how *in control* students are of their behavior, actions, and outcomes also affect teachers' motivations to persist with a given course of action or to implement a new instructional or management plan.

Teachers' and students' judgments of control can be described in terms of either internal or external locus of control. Locus of control is one type of attribution students and teachers make when processing and interacting with their environment. When attempting to manage a classroom of diverse learners, it is important to understand how behaviors are related to the different interpretations of control and how teachers' own and students' judgments of control can affect classroom motivation and behavior and how teachers can support students in making judgments to encourage more adaptive, productive classroom behaviors.

Internal and External Locus of Control

Locus of control, a concept first developed by Julian Rotter (1916–) in the 1950s, is defined as the judgments individuals make about the source of their control over the outcomes of their actions. If students feel the outcomes of their actions are a result of their choices and traits, then they have an internal locus of control. Their successes and failures at certain tasks are due to something within themselves that has created the outcome, hence the internal focus. However, if students feel the outcomes they experience are the results of other factors and not their actions, they have an external locus of control.

Consider Susan, a 10-year-old girl in an urban fifth-grade classroom. Susan is an average student in terms of ability level, yet she scores below average on classroom tests and benchmark assessments. Susan is not interested in taking her time on her work and tells her friends that all the work is too difficult and that she does not see the point in it. Ms. Parker, Susan's teacher, deduces that Susan avoids engagement with her work because she sees her effort as useless. Susan thinks all schoolwork is too difficult for her and feels she cannot change that. Susan has an external locus of control in regard to her schoolwork.

Table 1 shows some examples of different sources students might perceive to cause certain outcomes. The internal locus of control is composed of cognitive elements and personal traits. However, the external locus of control is composed of aspects of the activity and elements that are out of the control of the individual, such as task difficulty, which is seen in Susan's case. Also, as shown in the table, perceived control can be viewed as stable or unstable. For example, students who think they are always good at math and that their ability is what allows them to do well on the math test, consider the cause of their success to be an internal source that is stable. Understanding that there are differences in how students attribute their successes and failures is the first step to recognizing the links between behaviors. These behaviors are often the cause of class disruptions and classroom management issues.

Locus of Control and Links to Student Behaviors

Students with an internal locus of control have an overall sense that they can control their outcomes on class activities and assessments. With this sense of control, they are more motivated to apply themselves and take pride in their accomplishments. If they do face difficulties, they think they can overcome them by increasing their effort or changing something that is within their control. Students with an internal locus of control are typically less likely to cause classroom disruptions and do not require disciplinary consequences to provoke certain behaviors.

Students with an external locus of control, however, feel their actions are not associated with their success or failures, and there is little they can do to change their situation. As a result, students with an external locus of control are not generally motivated to persist when faced with challenges in their schoolwork. They feel that success or failure in certain areas is due to outside influences and therefore do not attribute their effort or skills to their success. In Susan's case, she finishes her work hastily and then distracts her friends by making funny faces and sharing silly stories. Each day, Susan receives numerous warnings and continues the same pattern of behavior.

Further, if students with an external locus of control fail or experience setbacks, they often blame an outside source such as the teacher or the weather. If they do not see themselves as causing negative outcomes, such as a poor grade, they do not attempt to make changes to better their grade, such as study or practice. Susan sees the task itself as the controller of her grades. She makes judgments about the assignment difficulty level and her own ability to complete it. She does not see her effort or skill as having control over her grades.

Table 1 Locus of Control

| Stability | Locus of Control | |
|-----------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|
| | Internal | External |
| Stable | Intelligence | Task difficulty |
| | Ability | Teacher characteristics |
| | Personality | |
| Unstable | Effort | Luck |
| | Knowledge of a certain area | Feelings of others |

Sources: Adapted from Schunk et al. (2013); Weiner, B. (1986). *An attributional theory of motivation and emotion*. New York, NY: Springer Verlag.

As a result of a lack of motivation to excel in the classroom, students with an external locus of control are likely to be distracted in the classroom and disrupt others. If they are experiencing poor academic performance, this may increase the disruptive behavior due to the lack of motivation to change behavior and a disregard for the need to change. Understanding the root cause of the behavior helps teachers to accurately address students' needs with a knowledgeable perspective. Teachers can then implement interventions to help students develop more internal attributions of control.

Strategies for Increasing Student Motivation in Regard to Locus of Control

Student experiences and the influences of trusted adults are able to alter students' perceptions of themselves and the world around them. This premise is based on the work of psychologist Albert Bandura and other researchers in regard to social cognitive theory. Students learn from their experiences with people around them and what they observe in their surroundings. Therefore, the actions and consistent messages they witness from their teachers are powerful. Teachers have the opportunity to influence student motivation by directly addressing how students perceive their control in the classroom. By explicitly discussing how students feel about their work and behavior, a teacher can open the door to other possibilities for students. Teachers can also serve as verbal persuaders to help students think of things in a new way.

Ms. Parker strategically reviews Susan's records and pinpoints a particular strength of Susan's as being her mastery of her multiplication facts. Ms. Parker uses this as a constant point of reference for discussions with Susan. Through discussions, Susan shares that her mom made her practice every night when she was in the third

grade. Ms. Parker aims to explicitly link Susan's practice and effort to her success with multiplication facts. Throughout the week, she continually makes direct connections aloud that Susan's practice has helped her know these skills quite well. As a result, Ms. Parker begins to ask Susan whether, if she practices her science vocabulary, she thinks she can learn it.

As the weeks pass, Susan begins to practice and study her science vocabulary with the tips from Ms. Parker and her mother. Susan's science vocabulary scores increase. Ms. Parker acknowledges her progress and continues the process of recognition and explicit connections to effort and practice.

In addition to bringing a locus of control to the forefront of students' minds and using verbal persuasion, teachers can provide mastery experiences for students to reconstruct their understanding of the control they have in the classroom. To provide these mastery experiences, teachers must be knowledgeable of the student's readiness level and provide consistent feedback with a focus on internal attribution of control. As the student experiences success, the precedent is set to help increase the student's motivation. Over time, students will begin to develop more ownership of the outcomes that result from their effort and ability. This occurs with Susan as she begins to practice and her science vocabulary scores

increase. Over time, Susan begins to see the value in practicing and effort. If asked why she did well on an activity or lesson, she will respond, "Because I practiced" or "I tried hard and spent some time on it." She even scored high on a quiz on which most of the class did poorly; Ms. Parker directly commented on Susan's effort and practice. Susan began to comment that her schoolwork was not always as difficult as she thought. Overall, Susan's behavior transitioned from disruptive to on task. It was a slow process with obstacles and successes, but now Susan views her work and practice as the cause of her improving grades.

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See also Attribution Theory; Motivating Students; Motivation, Intrinsic and Extrinsic

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M

MANAGEMENT OF STUDENT GROUPING

In today's classrooms, there are typically students with diverse intellectual, academic, language, and social abilities; consequently, there are often times when traditional whole-group instruction will not meet the needs of all students. To effectively include and support all students in the learning process, student grouping is used as an alternative approach.

When a teacher chooses to use student grouping in the classroom, a number of students are placed together to work toward a common goal, each student making an individual contribution to the group. Managing student grouping can be challenging for teachers. However, there are strategies that teachers can use to make student grouping an effective tool for meeting the needs of all students in the classroom. These management strategies are described below, along with a description of three different grouping types: cooperative groups, ability groups, and peer tutoring.

Cooperative Groups

Cooperative groups are designed by the teacher to include a heterogeneous mix of students. These mixes typically include boys and girls, higher functioning and lower functioning students, English speakers and students for whom English is a second language, students of different races and ethnic groups, and students with and without disabilities. By putting diverse students together to work toward a common task or goal, students are able to provide natural supports for one another. Higher functioning students are able to assist students who might struggle. English speakers are able to provide language support for those who need assistance with language demands of the task, and so on.

The students work cooperatively to complete the assigned task by sharing materials and by participating with one another throughout the process.

By having been placed together to work cooperatively, students tend to produce higher level work and build relationships with each other. They tend to be more motivated and involved in the learning process. Their participation and learning increases as does their skill in decision making. Opportunities to practice social skills increase as well.

Cooperative grouping can be used for many different types of tasks. For example, teachers can use cooperative learning when the objective is to create a group report, complete a short or long project, complete a test review, conduct a laboratory assignment, or study for an upcoming test.

In order to facilitate successful cooperative grouping, the teacher should clearly think through and pre-determine the procedures that will be required during group time. Procedures include communicated expectations for behavior from students in a given situation to complete a certain task. Expectations for talk, movement, asking for help, individual contributions, and so on should be considered and developed beforehand, as they are most likely going to be different from what is expected during whole-group instruction time. By determining the procedures and expectations ahead of time and then teaching them to the students, cooperative groupwork will likely function more effectively for both the students and the teacher. After determining the expectations and procedures, teachers then instruct the students in exactly what is expected of them and exactly what the procedures are for cooperative groupwork.

In addition to development and teaching of expectations and procedures, the teacher should clearly understand his or her role during this type of instructional arrangement. In cooperative grouping, the teacher's

role is not to provide direct instruction during groupwork time. Rather, it is to be a facilitator. The teacher circulates through the classroom, monitoring progress, checking for issues or misunderstandings, redirecting students as needed, and answering questions. The teacher does not stay with any one group for long but rather checks in with each group in the course of making rounds throughout the room. Active teacher monitoring during cooperative groupwork time aids in the effectiveness of student grouping.

Ability Groups

In contrast to cooperative grouping, teachers may choose to group students on the basis of ability. In ability groups, teachers group students who have similar skill and knowledge sets in the content area being taught. For example, in a second-grade classroom, the teacher may choose to group students who read at a similar level. Students reading above-grade level would be in one group. Students developing at a typical pace would be in another group. Students slightly behind in reading progress would make up another group, and students struggling with reading would make up a final group. Some instructional levels may require more than one group, depending on class size.

Ability grouping has received much attention in research. Some research presents evidence that ability grouping has negative effects on self-esteem and academic progress of students. Other research presents evidence of gains that students make. The purpose of this entry is not to support one side or the other. Rather, it is to describe how ability grouping might be used by classroom teachers and then how to manage those groups. For those who wish to research this controversy further, see the suggested further readings at the conclusion of this entry.

To facilitate effective ability grouping, the teacher typically works with one group at a time in a rotation style. For example, in an 80-minute block for reading time, the teacher may work with each reading ability group for 15–20 minutes. While the teacher provides direct instruction to one of the ability groups, the other groups have reading stations to progress through. In these stations, they practice skills that they have learned from working with the teacher. In the example explained here, each group would rotate through each of four reading stations (one of which being work with the teacher).

Use of additional adults in the classroom can be very helpful during ability group time. A paraprofessional, teaching assistant, or student intern could work with groups that rotate through a given station. Or, that additional adult could float throughout the room monitoring student progress in each station, redirecting student effort, and answering questions as needed.

As described earlier with cooperative grouping, to effectively manage the use of ability grouping, the teacher needs to proactively plan the expectations for ability groupwork time. The teacher needs to think through the procedures for transitioning between stations, which stations students start at and then progress to, and what a student should do when he or she has completed the work at a given station. After determining the expectations and procedures for this type of instructional arrangement in the classroom, the teacher should teach those expectations and procedures to the students, model them, and have the students practice. By clearly identifying for the students what is expected, the students are more likely to comply with the expectations and follow the procedures.

Peer Tutoring Groups

Peer tutoring is another method of student grouping that allows for students to practice both social and academic skills. This form of student grouping allows higher-functioning students to assist lower-functioning students, such as students with cognitive or learning disabilities. Peer tutoring can be arranged such that everyone in the class is paired with a peer. Teachers can pair a student who has mastered a concept with a student who has not, so that support can be provided. The student who serves as the tutor is able to strengthen his or her knowledge of the content through supporting another student. The student who is receiving the tutoring is able to benefit from the one-on-one support in an area of difficulty. During peer tutoring time, teachers circulate throughout the classroom, checking on student progress and providing assistance to those who need help.

As with cooperative and ability groups, students in peer tutoring groups must be taught what the teacher's expectations are and any procedures that will be in place for peer tutoring. This means that the teacher will need to think through and be able to clearly articulate what procedures will be used during peer tutoring. Additionally, tutors should receive instruction on how to provide tutoring support to another student. In particular, the tutors need to be shown how to demonstrate tasks, answer questions, and ask questions in order to gauge understanding.

Teachers must consider which activities are appropriate for peer tutoring and which are not. Some activities lend themselves to peer tutoring, while others would be a significant challenge for the tutor. Additionally, the teacher needs to be thoughtful in determining who is to be a tutor. The tutor needs to be a student who has mastered the concept(s). Tutors need to be students who are willing and able to support other students in

their learning efforts. Knowledge of the students in the classroom is the key to determining who to partner with whom.

Conclusion

Use of student grouping can be effective in successfully reaching and including each student in today's classrooms. By using student grouping, teachers are able to involve students, use natural supports, and meet the needs of all students in their classrooms. A number of student grouping types exist, and by learning about the different types of grouping, teachers can select and use the grouping type that is most effective for a given goal. Cooperative grouping, ability grouping, and peer tutor grouping are grouping types frequently used in classrooms. To effectively manage student grouping, teachers should predetermine the procedures and expectations that will be used for the specific grouping type. These expectations and procedures should be taught and practiced with the students so as to ensure successful student grouping. Through consideration of each grouping type, procedures, and expectations, teachers can prepare themselves to more effectively manage and facilitate student grouping.

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See also Ability Grouping; Classwide Peer Tutoring; Cooperative Learning Groups; Managing Groupwork

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MANAGING CLASSROOM DISCUSSIONS

Classroom discussion is a powerful instructional tool that is effective across all grade levels, kindergarten through college and beyond. The complexity of content and sophistication of students' ideas may vary, but the core elements of respectful interaction during a discussion are the same for all groups. Discussions are an engaging way to promote students' enthusiasm for learning.

Importantly, discussions bolster students' academic *and* social competencies. Student-to-student discussion improves comprehension of content matter and exercises students' argumentative reasoning and academic language skills, which transfer to improved literacy and overall reading comprehension. These capacities are beneficial not only in English Language Arts classrooms but also in Science, Social Studies, and Mathematics. Beyond improved academic competence, classroom discussion helps students develop empathy, perspective taking, and self-regulation skills that are necessary to foster healthy relationships.

This entry describes effective techniques for managing classroom discussions. It begins by defining the construct of classroom discussion and then describes management techniques teachers can use to effectively facilitate productive classroom discussions.

What Does Typical Talk in the Classroom Look Like?

A lot of talking happens in classrooms. However, not all classroom talk involves interactive *discussion*. There is a wide spectrum of talk activities that occurs within a classroom and that falls along a continuum of teacher-dominated lecture all the way to student-led collaboration. The most common form of classroom talk can be located somewhere in the middle of that continuum. It includes both student and teacher voices and takes the shape of an Initiation–Response–Evaluation (IRE) pattern in which (1) the teacher first poses a question in hopes of *initiating* student thought or reflection, (2) the student *responds* to the teacher's prompt with some sort of claim or input, and then (3) the teacher *evaluates* the student's claim as correct or incorrect. Consider the following transcript excerpt from a fourth-grade English Language Arts classroom:

Teacher: What is an example of Mamie's short-term goals? *INITIATION*

Jeremy: To finish college. *RESPONSE*

Teacher: Yes, we know she wanted to finish college, right? *EVALUATION*

What is another short-term goal? *INITIATION*

Eglantine: To have a family. *RESPONSE*

Teacher: Great. Yes, to have a family someday. *EVALUATION*

In this excerpt, the teacher controls the direction of talk; she asks students questions for which there is a predetermined correct answer, then the students offer a reply that must be validated by the teacher. While there are times when this pattern of classroom talk is necessary (e.g., to review answers to homework or to quickly assess students' knowledge), experts have found that more open-ended forms of dialogue are better suited to promote students' deep comprehension of academic material.

How Do Classroom Discussions Differ From Typical Classroom Talk?

Classroom *discussions* differ from other types of classroom talk because they are open-ended in nature and move away from a teacher-dominated IRE pattern. A *classroom discussion* involves two or more students—and sometimes, but not necessarily, the teacher—discussing an educational topic that is supported by academic materials (e.g., a book, short story, chart, graph, explicit instruction from the teacher). The talk is dominated by students and involves open-ended inquiry, fueled by evidence- and logic-based claims. For example, the following excerpt shows a small group of fourth-grade students debating whether or not people should learn to speak a second language at school:

Eglantine: If you and your friend keep on speaking Spanish, maybe all other students will feel left out. *PRESENTS A CLAIM ACCOMPANIED BY LOGIC*

Robbie: Can you give an example? *PRESSES FOR EVIDENCE*

Eglantine: Um, like you see two students outside at recess talking Spanish, then you come and try to communicate with them, but you can't because you don't understand Spanish. *ELABORATES REASONING*

Jeremy: What do you mean by that? *PRESSES FOR CLARIFICATION*

Eglantine: You would feel left out! That's what I'm saying! *CLARIFIES*

Jeremy: Oh. Right. It's not good to use two languages at school. *AGREES AND REPHRASES*

Robbie: What makes you think that? *PRESSES FOR REASONING*

In this exchange, the teacher's voice is not present. Instead, the students are driving the discussion. The students use open-ended questions to challenge each other's arguments; they hold each other accountable for logical claims and evidence that supports their reasoning.

Descriptions of Discussion-Based Activities

Discussion-based activities vary in the number of students present, the degree to which the teacher's voice is present, and the amount of scaffolding necessary to prepare students for the activity. Listed below are five discussion-based activities that can be used to scaffold students' discussion skills. All of these activities are effective in bolstering students' comprehension of content as well as their prosocial capacities. Furthermore, all of these activities require practice in order for students to learn how to engage productively in a discussion. As a general rule, as students become familiar and proficient with different discussion formats, teachers should gradually transfer management and interpretive authority to students.

Think–Pair–Share

In this activity, teachers pose a content-related question to the whole class and give students 30 seconds to reflect on their own thoughts. Next, they allow students approximately 1 minute to share their ideas with a partner. Following this brief exchange, they reconvene the whole class and ask students to share aloud their partner's idea. This activity provides opportunities for students to practice reflection, listening, and perspective-taking skills. A think–pair–share activity typically takes a total of 4 minutes of class time.

Fishbowl

Teachers ask a group of three to five students to sit in a circle in the center of the classroom, making sure to include one empty seat in this inner circle (for observers who will want to join in). The rest of the class should form a standing ring around the outside of the inner circle. The teacher will pose an open-ended, content-related question to the inner group (e.g., Were the Pharaohs of ancient Egypt grand rulers or cruel oppressors?). While students in the inside circle discuss the prompt, students in the outside circle should listen carefully to the ideas being generated. If a student in the outside circle has something to say, he or she may join the conversation by taking a seat in the available spot in the inner circle.

When a new student joins the inner circle, another student must leave and join the outer circle. This activity allows students to practice directing their own conversational flow, maintain interpretive authority of the material, and sharpen general listening and reflecting skills required by discussions. A fishbowl can take anywhere from 10 to 30 minutes of class time.

Structured Debate

Depending on the size of the class, teachers divide students into two to four groups. They then introduce an open-ended topic in which more than one plausible solution or answer is evident (e.g., Who should be responsible for getting students to do their homework—the student, the teacher, or the parents?). The teachers next assign a stance to each group and let them know it will be their responsibility to (1) justify and defend that stance and (2) rebut counterarguments. Students are given time to prepare their arguments and their rebuttal to the other team's argument. This activity provides students with opportunities to engage in complex reasoning about a shared text, as well as chances to formulate evidence-based arguments and practice strategies for respectfully disagreeing with others. A structured debate can take anywhere from 20 to 45 minutes of class time.

Whole-Class Discussion

Typically, whole-class discussions are started when the teacher poses an open-ended question to the group (e.g., How does Jeremy know that the farmer was left with seven apples?). Then, students are encouraged to share their ideas and to respond to each other's thinking. It is ideal to encourage students to simply speak out when they have something to say, rather than raising their hand to request permission from the teacher. Over the course of the academic year, the management of the whole-class discussion can shift from being predominantly facilitated by the teacher to being driven by students (who will feel more and more comfortable questioning each other and sharing ideas). This activity provides an opportunity for students to learn how to manage large multiparty conversations, while at the same time deepening their comprehension of content and exercising prosocial discussion skills. A whole-class discussion can take anywhere from 3 to 45 minutes of class time.

Small-Group Discussion

In groups of three to six, students are asked to contemplate academic content. They may be provided

with an exploratory prompt (e.g., What types of metal are attracted to magnets?); they may be requested to discuss a chapter from a text (e.g., Why did the lead character choose to run away from home?); or they may be asked to solve a complex problem (e.g., How much money does Coach Selman need in order to purchase enough food for the team?). Typically, the entire class breaks into small groups at the same time and then reconvenes at the same time to report their findings to the whole class. Small-group discussions offer students the most interpretive control over content and are best suited for students who have had some modeling or practice engaging in discussion. The teacher may circulate throughout the room to monitor that students are on task. Over the course of the year, students will become more autonomous about setting their own goals and engaging in academically productive conversations. This activity provides an opportunity for students to learn how to manage large multiparty conversations, while at the same time deepening their comprehension of content and exercising prosocial skills. A small-group discussion can take anywhere from 5 to 20 minutes of class time.

How Can Teachers Promote Effective Classroom Discussions?

Establish Ground Rules

It is important for teachers, together with their students, to set and enforce effective ground rules for classroom discussions very early in the year. Students will feel more dedicated to a set of rules if they have had a hand in creating them. The teacher can start by asking students to reflect on positive conversations they have had with their friends or family members. Following are a few suggested prompts to get students thinking:

- What makes a good conversation partner?
- What are the differences between a fight and a discussion?
- How do you feel when others interrupt you when you are talking?
- How does it make you feel when others laugh at your ideas?
- How do you know when what is said in a discussion is a fact versus an opinion?

The questions listed above will get students thinking about the importance of empathy and perspective taking during discussions, as well as the need for logic- and evidence-based contributions. After challenging students to visualize what constitutes a friendly and productive discussion, teachers ask them to think of a few rules that would ensure respectful talk. Listed below are

recommended ground rules. Having just a few rules is more effective than having a long list.

- Actively listen to your peers' ideas.
- Wait for an appropriate moment in the discussion to speak.
- Use evidence or reason to support your ideas.
- Ask for clarification when you are confused.
- Do not speak too much—give others a chance!
- Use kind words, not insults.

The purposes of student-generated ground rules are that (1) they are more likely to be adhered to and respected by students and therefore will reduce the likelihood of misbehavior and (2) introducing respectful standards will contribute to the overall harmony of the classroom climate and naturally create an atmosphere that is conducive to collaborative learning.

Instructional Techniques

During any type of discussion activity, the teacher has the important job of making sure the talk remains academically focused and productive. While students should be allowed considerable interpretive authority, the teacher may intervene when necessary. Listed below are ways the teacher may gently get students back on track:

- Question how statements are related to the academic content or topic.
- Review or repeat central points when students seem confused.
- Remind students that differing opinions are okay.

Talk Moves for Productive Classroom Discussion

No matter the structure, there are both student and teacher talk moves that are conducive to productive classroom discussions. Talk moves, whether used by teachers or students, help to improve the quality of conversations by helping to clarify, link, invite, and extend contributions. These moves promote both *academic* and *social* understanding at the same time because they repair and extend the discussion in an inclusive and respectful manner. Therefore, students who are engaged in a discussion about an academic topic will be practicing prosocial behavioral tendencies while also deepening their comprehension of subject matter.

Teacher Moves

Teacher moves encourage students to externalize their thoughts and press students to deepen their reasoning. These teacher moves can be used during any

discussion format. These talk moves help the teacher to achieve the following:

- Ensure that students can hear one another: “Say that louder,” or “Can you say that again so that everyone can hear?”
- Prompt students to support contributions with evidence from the text: “What evidence in the book supports that position?” or “Where in the text does it say . . . ?”
- Prompt students to provide general reasons for their contributions: “Why do you think that?” or “Can you explain your reasoning to us a little more?”
- Encourage students to clarify their contribution: “Can you say more about that?” or “What do you mean when you say . . . ?”
- Prompt students to respond to other students' reasoning: “Who agrees or disagrees with X?” or “Who can add to what Y just said?”

The teacher moves listed above are subtle ways for the teacher to hold students accountable for maintaining quality dialogue that promotes content understanding. Sometimes, the teacher will need to use more direct moves to achieve the following:

- Ensure that students pay attention to one another: “Who can put that into their own words?” or “You need to listen to Alice.”
- Guide students back on topic: “How does that relate to X?” or “Let's remember that our topic is X . . .”
- Remind students of the classroom rules for discussion: “Jeremy, please rephrase that using kind words,” or “Don't interrupt your classmate.”

Student Moves

Desirable student moves involve extended talk in which students provide evidence or reasoning for their ideas. Respectful disagreements, requests for peer elaboration, interrogation of sources, and attempts to gain clarity are key indicators that the discussion is going well. Students' use of these moves should be highlighted and encouraged:

- Provide general reasons to support a contribution: “I think the sum is nine *because* when you put four with five . . .”
- Refer to specific evidence from the text to support a contribution: “On page 7, it says that water freezes at 32 degrees Fahrenheit.”
- State that they agree or disagree with another student: “I disagree with Eglantine. I do not think copper will stick to magnets.”

- Acknowledge multiple perspectives in the discussion: “Robbie thinks that the Pharaohs were kind, but Jeremy thinks they were oppressive.”
- Ask another student a question about his or her contribution or the topic: “Eglantine, what makes you think that the copper will stick to the magnet?”
- State that he or she had changed his or her mind: “I used to think that we shouldn’t use two languages at school, but now I think it’s okay.”

Not *all* teacher and student talk moves need to happen during a single discussion in order to view the activity as a success. Rather, these moves will fluctuate depending on the activity structure and how advanced students are in their discussion skills.

In order to make clear how to scaffold and encourage productive talk early in the year, this entry has differentiated between teacher and student moves. As students’ discussion skills become more sophisticated, they can be expected to appropriate teacher moves to manage and extend discussions. Similarly, the teacher can borrow student moves to model effective discussion techniques.

Throughout the course of the year, it is important for teachers to explain the significance of each of these moves to students and to highlight with applause students’ effective use of these moves. Sharing with students why and how a particular talk move is important will help students understand the social and communicative purposes of each move and will help them learn to use talk moves effectively and independently.

Conclusion

In summary, classroom discussion is a powerful instructional technique that serves to strengthen students’ academic and social skills. The versatility of discussion allows it to take on many formats within the classroom. Teachers can scaffold students’ discussion skills throughout the year by enforcing ground rules, modeling effective talk moves, and integrating frequent discussion-based activities into the routine of the students’ school days. Classrooms rich with discussion can expect to experience a more harmonious overall climate with reduced behavior concerns and increased student engagement. The fostering of this positive classroom culture encourages deep comprehension of academic content and profound respect for diverse perspectives, resulting in greater content knowledge, improved test scores, and healthier interpersonal relationships among students and their peers.

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See also Cooperative Learning Groups; Democratic Practices in Classrooms and Schools; Fostering Classroom Engagement; Management of Student Grouping; Managing Groupwork; Sharing Authority; Social and Emotional Learning

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MANAGING GROUPWORK

Groupwork has been promoted as a useful pedagogical strategy for academically and linguistically heterogeneous classrooms. Evidence for the academic, social, and affective benefits of this instructional approach is well established. Students who work collaboratively in small groups have opportunities to grapple with important disciplinary ideas, discuss and debate substantive questions, and practice socially beneficial skills. Most importantly, groupwork has the potential of helping teachers build equitable classrooms.

In equitable classrooms, all students have access to challenging curricula and age-appropriate learning tasks; students participate actively and interact with equal status; and they are recognized publicly for their many different ways of being *smart*. Equitable classrooms result in narrowing of the achievement gap,

allowing advancement to higher levels of education for more students. An ethic of care pervades equitable classrooms.

The following section explains the value of framing classroom management in sociological and structural terms rather than in terms of the psychology of individual students. Next, proven methods for effectively delegating authority to groups of students are presented, including recommendations for ensuring the optimal composition of groups and a discussion of what constitutes a group-worthy task. The importance of shared evaluation rights between teacher and students is considered, and the final section of the entry focuses on the pitfalls of unequal participation in groupwork and specific ways in which the teacher can intervene to foster productivity, improved performance, and learning gains by all members of the group.

Managing Groupwork— A Sociological Framework

Often, classroom management is about correcting and preventing disruptions caused by the *difficult* students and about reinforcing positive comportment of the well-adjusted ones. Relationships are conceived as single and frequently unidirectional interactions between the teacher and individual students, controlling students when the teacher is lecturing or ensuring that students are attentive and complete assignments in a timely manner. Rules and routines include a few *do's* and many *don'ts*, sanctioned by dire consequences such as referrals or detention. When troublesome behaviors are attributed to severe psychological or social impediments, teachers are to diagnose and counsel as if they were social workers or trained therapists.

Framing classroom management in sociological terms renounces *fixing* the student. Viewing the classroom as a social system rather than a collection of 30-odd youngsters led and supervised by an adult acknowledges that in addition to unique personal characteristics, dispositions, and attitudes, students' and teachers' behavior and performances are influenced by structural features of the situation in which they operate. It allows the exploration, first, of the ways in which teachers can use the authority of their role to empower students to manage themselves. Second, it leads to an analysis of the relationship between features of the learning task and peer interactions. Third, it facilitates recognition of the potential of sound evaluation of group and individual products and of social processes for enhancing learning. Finally, it serves as an alert to the detrimental educational consequences of unequal participation and helps in devising effective interventions.

Teacher Role and Authority

The teacher's authority derives from her institutional position. She assigns tasks, monitors students' activities, and evaluates their performances. She helps, admonishes, supports, approves, and disapproves. She supervises students' work to prevent mistakes and to minimize wasting of valuable instructional time. In short, she manages.

However, when the goal of instruction is the development of conceptual understanding, critical thinking, and creative problem solving, interaction is essential. Elizabeth Cohen claims that when the teacher chooses groupwork to increase peer interaction, direct supervision becomes unrealistic and delegation of authority is necessary. As the teacher delegates authority to the students, she shares her power and responsibilities. She delegates authority to students to manage the groups, to realize the intellectual potential of their task, and to enforce accountability by evaluating the products of their work.

Delegation of Authority for Managing Groups

Successful delegation of authority is reflected in smoothly running groups, productive student interactions, quality group products, and significant individual accomplishments. Of course, it does not happen by magic. Teachers need to teach social skills explicitly so students can learn how to work in groups and how to serve as intellectual resources for one another, how to address interpersonal conflicts that impede the group's productivity, and how to use helping behaviors that enhance its functioning. Students need to become accountable to and for each other. Clearly, they need to learn new rules and new norms for behavior in this new situation.

"You have the right to ask for help. You have the duty to assist" is one of these new norms. Students will rely on each other's expertise and intellectual contributions. They will take responsibility for engaging all members of the group and supporting them in completing the group task as well as the individual assignments that follow the work in groups. "No one is done until everyone is done" is another example of a group norm that, when followed, supports productive interdependence and thus learning.

These new behaviors do not emerge automatically. They are to be explicitly introduced, recognized, labeled, discussed, practiced, and reinforced. Using principles of social learning, Cohen offers a collection of exercises called skill builders to introduce the new norms and make sure students internalize them to make social interactions more productive. Particularly important is the norm that *everyone contributes* and that no single member dominates the interaction.

When the teacher delegates authority, assigning specific roles to the members enhances the smooth functioning of groups. A *facilitator* or *team captain* makes sure that everybody understands the task and that all group members get a turn and the help they need. A *resource provider* or *materials manager* secures the scissors, dictionaries, test tubes, and so forth and supervises the cleanup. A *peacekeeper* or *harmonizer* identifies and addresses sources of conflict and looks out for the social and emotional well-being of group members. When time is of the essence, a group member can act as the *timekeeper*. The *reporter* oversees the group's presentation and organizes the summary of the group's activities. Depending on the task, the teacher's priorities, and the students' needs, additional roles can be invented.

Each group member plays a role and roles rotate. That way, all members develop the skills needed to perform each role. Because some roles are perceived to be more powerful and prestigious than others, roles should be assigned rather than assumed by *natural leaders* or usurped by students who have higher status in the group. These roles are different from *content* roles such as theorist, questioner, summarizer, or explainer—roles that reflect metacognitive functions everybody engages in. They are also different from *professional* roles such as artist, musician, poet, or director—roles that potentially lead to a strict division of labor and curtail interaction.

Many teachers, novice and veteran alike, struggle with delegating authority. They worry that without constant supervision, the classroom might deteriorate into chaos: Students will not understand what needs to be done, will make mistakes, and will not complete their assignments.

Indeed, groupwork can exacerbate management problems. It often requires higher tolerance for purely social interactions that are only tangentially, if at all, related to the task and a reasonable comfort level with unexpected events. Delegating authority, sharing with the students the power to make decisions about how to accomplish the task, how to work together productively, how to evaluate and enhance the quality of the group product, and how to recognize the contributions of individual members of the group does not mean relinquishing authority. Strong delegation of authority leads to increased levels of student talking and working together on the challenging group tasks. Consequently, the more students talk and work together, the more they learn.

Delegating authority and installing norms and roles allows the teacher to provide specific feedback to groups and individuals as she observes the groups closely and listens in on the conversations. When groupwork is successful, teachers roam around the classroom, clipboard in hand, take notes or engage in brief but pointed interactions with the groups. This constant, precise, and

formative classroom assessment of students' work contributes to the students putting out more effort toward improved performance.

Composing Groups

Composing the *perfect* group can be a time-consuming and anxiety-provoking task. If teachers create homogeneous groups based on similar levels of previous academic achievement, the costs outweigh the benefits because they recreate in the classroom a pernicious tracking system. Alternatively, when teachers form heterogeneous groups based on test scores, grades, or perceived academic ability, they create a situation certain to activate damaging status problems.

Often teachers feel that groups need to be balanced and mixed as to its members' gender, race, ethnicity, linguistic proficiency, being with or without close friends, or potential to act disruptively. Mechanically and bureaucratically planning that each group has equal number of male or female students—or equal number of students from the different ethnic or racial groups represented in the class—will quickly reveal the teacher's explicit or hidden rationale for group assignments. As a result, students will tend to interact with their fellow group members as stereotypical representatives of their respective racial or ethnic backgrounds rather than as individual persons.

Given students' awareness of the intellectual importance and the social value of the different group members, teachers may wish to form groups through *controlled randomness*. *No hidden agendas* would be the motto of this seemingly oxymoronic method. An open and near-random assignment to groups signals that the teacher sees students as being competent and able to contribute to the task in many different ways.

Crafting Group-Worthy Tasks

An important predictor for successful groupwork is a well-crafted, *group-worthy* task. Features of the collective task affect the interaction among members of the group and their rate of success in contributing to and completing the task. Group-worthy tasks have the following five features. They are anchored in important disciplinary content; they are open-ended and require complex problem solving; they include multiple curricular representations to provide students with multiple entry points to the task and multiple opportunities to demonstrate intellectual competence; they rely on positive interdependence among group members and require individual accountability; and they include clear criteria for the evaluation of the group's and the individuals' products.

A card containing the instructions to the group's task, the questions to be discussed by the group as they refer to the resources and materials, and the evaluation criteria for the group's product can be seen as the physical symbol of the teacher's delegation of authority. Students understand that they are to grapple with the task on their own, assume full responsibility for its completion, and create a group product that reflects their joint efforts. Reports to be completed individually are part of the package for each group. These individual reports ensure and enforce individual accountability through written assignments.

Group-worthy tasks are radically different from the traditional, recipe-like activities designed to prevent unexpected answers. They allow students to share their experiences and require that they justify their opinions and beliefs. Students analyze, synthesize, hypothesize, interpret, imagine, and evaluate. Assigning a group-worthy task means that the teacher is ready to accept potentially unforeseen solutions. Given the intellectual diversity of a group and the students' varied repertoires of problem-solving strategies, group members use each other as intellectual resources to explore alternative solutions, to examine issues from different perspectives, and to assess their groupmates' assertions and dissensions. By assigning such tasks, teachers *delegate intellectual authority* to the students, thus supporting and acknowledging their intellectual autonomy.

Delegation of Evaluation Rights

The power to appraise, to judge, and to grade—in short, to evaluate students and their work—has traditionally been solely the teacher's prerogative. However, teacher evaluations have direct consequences for students' self-perceptions and for their evaluations of each other's intellectual and academic competence. Teachers' overt and covert evaluations are significant determinants in the creation of perceived academic and social rankings in the classroom.

When teachers use previously established evaluation criteria during group presentations, their feedback is concrete and specific. Sharing the power to evaluate the work of their peers openly and legitimately, as well as the opportunity to practice self-evaluation, contributes to a further redefinition of the traditional classroom roles of teacher and student. It indicates *delegation of evaluation rights*.

As argued previously, this redefinition of roles and the restructuring of the classroom environment necessitate explicit preparation of students. They need to learn how to be a genuinely attentive audience and how to use evidence from their peers' presentations to support the feedback and evaluations they give. Just as importantly,

they need to become adept at using the evaluation criteria to monitor their own group process and to judge the quality of their own products. More beneficial than group grades and individual or group points, feedback based on clear criteria and standards supports student engagement and learning.

Unequal Participation and Its Educational Consequences

While groupwork is a recommended strategy for heterogeneous classrooms and its benefits are convincingly documented, many educators, students, and their parents complain about its widely recognized pitfall: the unequal participation of members of the group. Unequal participation can be observed when one or two students dominate the interaction in the groups, handle the materials, solve the problem (correctly or incorrectly), complete the task, and make the decisions that ultimately determine the group's performance. Unequal participation also manifests itself in the complete and painful exclusion of some members of the group who remain silent and unobtrusive, reluctant to make suggestions or to offer their ideas. Often, they are labeled as *being shy*. Alternatively, some students, barred from productive interactions, become resistant and disruptive, in addition to deliberately undermining the group's efforts.

Cohen has consistently documented the detrimental consequences of unequal participation in small groups: Because participation is related to learning, unequal participation translates into distressingly unequal learning outcomes. The more students participate in small-group interactions, the greater are their learning gains.

In addition to academic shortfalls, unequal participation creates difficulties for the social-emotional well-being of group members. Hard-working and well-prepared students who worry about their performance and their grades grudgingly invest effort but resent being *the suckers*. They blame the ones who do not participate for being social loafers. Unequal participation causes teachers to worry about evaluating students' work and performance in small groups. If unequal participation is seen as a matter of personal choice or as stemming from unequal levels of motivation, how are teachers to evaluate group products or group processes?

Cohen relies on *expectations state theory* to explain the phenomenon of unequal participation. Members of small, on-task groups develop expectations for self- and others' competence based on so-called status characteristics. Examples of status characteristics range from race, gender, socioeconomic status, and physical attractiveness—to perceived academic status and peer status. Attached to status characteristics are expectations for competence: Individuals with high status are expected to

be more competent than low-status individuals and thus take and are given more opportunities to exert power and influence. Unequal participation, then, is not the problem of the individual student but rather a problem created by the status ordering and the subsequent expectations for intellectual competence in small groups.

Cohen and her associates designed specific interventions to disrupt the relationship between status and participation. The first of these interventions, called the *multiple-ability orientation*, rests on the premise that for group-worthy tasks, many different intellectual abilities are needed. By convincing the students that no single group member has all the abilities to complete such tasks successfully but that everyone has some of these abilities, students will create a mixed set of expectations about themselves and others. As a result, they will take and will give more opportunities for interaction to more of their groupmates. The challenge is to present a credible analysis of the learning task as a multiability task and to convince students of the relevance of different intellectual abilities for the task's successful completion. The teacher needs to persuade students that each member of the group can make valuable contributions from his or her repertoire of problem-solving strategies.

The second intervention designed to weaken the relationship between status and participation is called *assigning competence to low-status students*. For this intervention, the teacher pays particular attention to the performance of the low-status student in the group. The teacher watches attentively for those moments when the student shows competence on one or some of the abilities previously identified. Then the teacher describes to the student and to the groupmates what he or she did well and how the intellectual contributions are relevant to the successful completion of the task.

Skillful management of groupwork is a cornerstone of teachers' pedagogical repertoire. It requires not only a physical but also a conceptual reorganization of the classroom. While promoted for its affective and social rewards, the most important benefit of well-managed groupwork is its potential as equitable pedagogy.

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See also Ability Grouping; Authority and Classrooms; Caring Approaches; Constructivist Approaches; Cooperation and Competition; Cooperative Learning Groups; Democratic Practices in Classrooms and Schools; Management of Student Grouping; Monitoring; Power and Classroom Management

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MATERIALS IN EARLY CHILDHOOD CLASSROOMS

Early childhood classrooms are planned, in part, to allow children opportunities to experience and interact with materials—tools, items, and equipment placed in the setting and with which children can engage themselves. These may be toys or commercially available supplies that have been recommended as useful or supportive of children's learning. Unit blocks, a sand/water table, dress-up clothes, puzzles, books, play dough, crayons, and paper might be considered classic items in this group. Materials can also be taken from sources beyond the classic. Sticks, rocks, compact disk cases, logs, egg cartons, wire, nuts and bolts, milkweed seed pods, scrap wood, apple peels, O-rings, dried leaves, bottle tops—many items one might find in a recycling bin or on an outdoor walk—can serve to support experience and learning.

The importance of all of these materials is their capacity for connection with children's critical thinking, hypothetical questioning, reasoning, testing, and ultimate understanding and growth. This potential for materials to support children's learning through connection and engagement is strongly dependent on a child's or a group of children's current thoughts, motivations, and freedom to explore and express. The specific interaction of the children with constructive resources can impact how children behave, singly or in social settings. Certain materials, when combined with a child's ongoing wonder, have the capacity to move the child beyond simply being kept busy to meeting the child's learning needs and curiosities at a deeply supportive level.

Teachers' understanding of the capacity of the materials offered to the children also influences learning and behavioral outcomes in the classroom. Quite often, children use materials in ways adults might not have personally experienced; so teachers' understandings of why

a child might use a material in a certain way, particularly in a way not commercially or standardly *intended*, plays a huge part in classroom management, impacting both the connection of children's thoughts and interactions with various materials within the class as well as the organization of the spaces for the display of and access to the materials offered.

Two Illustrative Stories

Jack and the Tricycle—Adding Materials to Offer New Experience

Jack, aged 4 years, came to school every day. He was typically very busy in the classroom and moved quickly from one preset activity to the next, generally finishing the activities as expected. Often, he tried to combine the materials in each activity, which resulted in disorganization and chaos for the teachers, necessitating that one of the teachers had to hover and redirect or constrain Jack while re-sorting the materials until snack time or outdoor time arrived.

Once outside, Jack was always one of the first at the small, paved oval in the backyard where two tricycles and a small bench stood waiting. Jack almost always got onto one of the trikes right away and began pedaling very quickly around the oval—so quickly in fact that at the tightest turns in the oval, the inside back wheel on the trike would lift off the ground. Jack consistently delighted in this—it was intentional work to him. He would look down and back and at times would pedal even faster, which made the trike tip further to the outside of the oval.

In general, when a teacher saw him doing this, he was corrected—“That is not the way we use a tricycle safely. You are going to make the tricycle tip over.” The implication, of course, was that Jack would hurt himself, and that was not acceptable.

Jack put the third wheel back on the ground until he saw the teacher looking elsewhere, and then he sped up, until the teacher looked again in his direction. He was given two more chances to ride the trike *correctly*. Unfortunately, he was unable to restrain himself. His curiosity about the lifting wheel always won out, and he was eventually removed. This scenario occurred every time Jack managed to get on the trike. As weeks passed, Jack was reprimanded and redirected often, yet he never tipped the trike over.

How could the teacher have managed to meet Jack's need to understand the action of the tricycle, rather than standing in the way of his need to know? Could the teacher have introduced other opportunities for Jack to experience similar situations? How

could the teacher have learned more about Jack's persistent questions and investigations? What other materials and tools could have been offered to Jack to expand his study?

Rather than simply shutting Jack down, it might have been productive for Jack's teacher to begin by watching him for a bit, which would have given her more information about Jack's investigation. Acknowledging his experimentation and attempting to draw focus to what, in particular, was capturing Jack's attention rather than assuming, from the start, that Jack was going to tip the trike over, would have validated Jack as a competent and curious individual.

“Jack, I see that you are going around the turn just fast enough so that the wheel lifts off the ground. You look so interested in this! I have to tell you that my *first* thought was that you were going to tip over, but I'm also guessing you understand that that might happen, too, since I haven't actually seen you tip over yet. I'd love to know more about what is so interesting, and I'd also like to know what we'll do if you do actually tip over.”

Opening a conversation in this way also validates the teacher's anxiety about possible injury, which reassures Jack that she cares about his safety while honoring Jack's intentional work—his experimentation with physical properties—and shows respect for his curiosity and thought processes. In this case, it also validates that learning and experimentation can be both fun and a bit risky.

The teacher might add materials to the classroom or outdoor space that offer other opportunities to investigate circles, rolling, and speed. Spinning strings with different weights on the ends might give Jack comparable experiences. Changing the length of the strings might alter responses. Maybe she can find ways for Jack to create tops that spin. Perhaps placing a couple of Lazy Susans with blocks or toy cars nearby could engage Jack in further (and safer) exploration.

At some point, the teacher may want to grow her own understanding of the physical properties of things that move in circles or things that have a pivot point or maybe things that roll. Certainly speaking to Jack about his curiosity would help the teacher to know how to move ahead, but perhaps there is also a person in the adult community right at the school—a parent or grandparent—who has experience. Certainly books, Internet queries, and professional development opportunities could jump-start the teacher's learning. Perhaps a teacher from a nearby high school would welcome the opportunity to support both Jack and his teacher.

Ultimately, reaching out to others who have a deeper understanding of what Jack is doing could enrich the teacher's understanding of Jack's inquiry and the ability to help him with his, and perhaps future, investigations to come—thereby helping her to grow.

The Wear—Cardboard Blocks Communicate and Expand Thinking, Support Social and Emotional Development, and Offer Growth and New Perspectives for Teachers

Noah and Oscar had been constructing on one side of the room with classic rectangular cardboard blocks manufactured to look like bricks. After some time, they walked away from their work, leaving a somewhat haphazard pile, and headed to another part of the room. They became engaged in another project.

Anna happened to walk by the pile of bricks. She began to gather and move some of the bricks to an open area adjacent to the pile. She put one on the floor in front of her, laying it flat, length running side to side. She put another in back of that, which made something of a flat square. She took the third and stood it up on its side, tucked it behind the second one and began to construct height. She balanced the fourth on top of the third, and then a fifth on top of the fourth.

About this time, Noah and Oscar decided to revisit the blocks. They saw that Anna had taken some and started complaining loudly to the teacher.

“We were using them first! We weren't finished! We had them *before* she did!”

The teacher began to intervene.

“Anna, Noah and Oscar say they were using those.”

Anna became agitated, excited, and annoyed.

“It's not *fair!* I'm almost finished! I want to finish my wear! I just want to finish my wear, and then I will give them back.”

A second teacher had been watching, silently, and quietly engaged the first, letting her know that the boys had left the blocks earlier. She reminded the first teacher that they (the teachers as well as the students) were working on pausing, listening, and observing so as to better understand.

“Hey guys,” she directed to the two boys, “Anna says she needs just a little more time and then she'll be done—she wants to finish her *wear* and then she will be finished with the blocks. Is it possible for you to wait just a minute?”

The boys discussed this, and agreed to wait, although reluctantly. The first teacher looked at the second teacher and quietly asked, “Do you know what she

is saying? Did she say *wear?*” She looked back at Anna. “Anna, what are you making?”

“A wear.”

Anna continued to work.

The boys were becoming antsy. The teacher reminded them that they had agreed to wait.

Anna stacked up the rest of the blocks, higher and higher behind the two on the floor. When she was done, she took three steps backward and reviewed her work. She then walked forward and stepped onto the flat block on the floor that was closest to her. She said, “one, two, four, five, eight, ten, eleven, twelve.” She looked over at the teachers, smiled, and announced, “I weigh twelve.”

The boys looked at each other and smiled. Each then took a turn checking his poundage. When they were finished, Anna began to deconstruct the weigher and return the blocks to the original location. The boys helped her collect what she could not carry by herself.

The first teacher looked at the second teacher, and said sheepishly, “Amazing. She was saying *weigher*, not *wear*. She was building a scale. I kept hearing *wear*.”

Later, when the teachers had an opportunity to talk about all that had happened in that very short amount of time, they came to see the blocks as a catalyst for engagement, problem solving, verbal development, creative design and construction for the children, and use of numeral practice, and more. They also helped the teachers to step back and listen, to wait, and to help the children work together to resolve the tension that was building among them rather than fixing the problem without their involvement. The *materials*, in this case the simple cardboard bricks, brought together many elements of learning for both children and adults.

Conclusion

Relationships between and among children, teachers, materials, organization of the environment, and expectations influence the ways in which days evolve in early childhood classrooms. The active hum of a class engaged, visiting and revisiting what is known, and investigating and experimenting with the unknown is reliant, to a great extent, on what materials are available to the children. It is also dependent on whether or not the teachers are knowledgeable about the materials and what the expectations and understandings are in how children use the materials.

Connecting materials with children's thinking, ideas, and sense of wonder helps to promote ongoing interaction and animated engagement. Meaningful and intentional

use and organization of materials work to productively manage classrooms and move all members, children and teachers, toward new growth and understanding.

Questions to Consider

- Are the children able to investigate the materials in an open-ended manner, without an end product in mind?
- Do the materials adapt and change with the child as the child learns and creates new awareness and understanding?
- Do some of the materials in the classroom have the capacity to connect with the children's real-world (outside of school) experiences and questions? Are the child's experiences out of the classroom apparent in the way he or she uses the materials?
- What is the child communicating about his or her interests through his or her use? What additional items might be collected and offered that would relate to or grow the child's thinking, exploration, experimentation, and construction of understanding?
- Are teachers comfortable about taking risks in how materials are used? Do teachers have the opportunity to research and learn about properties of the materials offered in the classroom setting? Do teachers understand the affordances and potential of materials offered?
- Do materials support critical thinking and design? Will they connect to the child's thinking as he or she experiments and constructs?
- Do the materials help to create and enhance dialogue and conversation? Do they help to create narratives and build stories?
- Will the materials offer group activities and opportunities to think together? Will they create situations for social and emotional problem solving and conflict resolution?
- Are the materials or the expectations of the materials limited in any way?
- Are the materials organized in a way that makes sense? Are they readily accessible to the children?
- Can the space be adapted for materials so that children can fully engage and experiment? In other words, is *messiness* discouraged, tolerated, or highly valued and supported?
- Is there an understanding that most young children have the capacity to readily adapt most materials to meet their needs for curious engagement, experimentation, and symbolic expression and communication?

- Can the space be organized for movement with materials?
- Can the teacher interpret the children's thinking by the way the children use the materials?
- Do teachers have plenty of opportunity to watch children's use of materials?
- Do the teachers have opportunity to talk together about what the children might be considering when they use the materials? Is there enough opportunity for conversation to analyze and assess the use of the materials?

Laura Friedman

See also Creativity and Classroom Management; Fostering Classroom Engagement; Play, Learning, and Classroom Management; Promoting Purpose and Learning Environments; Teacher Knowledge, Beliefs, Attitudes; Teaching as Researching

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MEDICATION FOR EMOTIONAL AND BEHAVIORAL PROBLEMS

This entry aims to give educators an overview of the process of psychiatric assessment and medication

treatments, including information about medications and the diagnoses for which they are given. We begin with a brief overview of the most common psychiatric syndromes common to childhood and adolescence, syndromes often requiring medication to ensure adequate treatment and to help maximize a student's ability to learn and function well in school. The entry continues with an overview of common medications and their side effects. We conclude with a discussion of the centrality of the psychiatrist-educator partnership for providing adequate treatment for students needing medication.

Psychiatric Syndromes Common to Childhood and Adolescence

Child psychiatry relies on a system for categorizing and diagnosing various psychiatric conditions adopted by the American Psychiatric Association's *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual* (DSM), which is currently in its fifth edition, referred to as DSM-5. The psychiatric conditions are referred to as *syndromes*, which are patterns of signs and symptoms (e.g., extreme hyperactivity and inattentiveness are symptoms of ADHD). If the syndrome persists over time and causes harm to the child, others, or both, it is called a disorder. DSM is, then, a system of defining syndromes that are also disorders. The following are the most common disorders that undermine a student's ability to function in schools or respond to medication.

Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD)

ADHD is characterized by difficulty, beginning in early childhood, in regulating impulsivity, bodily activity, attention, or organization. It must be present in multiple settings. ADHD is often misdiagnosed, since children with most other disorders appear hyperactive, impulsive, and inattentive. Treatments include stimulants and alpha-agonists. ADHD is the only psychiatric syndrome for which medication without any other therapy may be appropriate, only if the family is doing well. In contrast, the following disorders should all be treated with therapy, regardless of whether medication is used.

Anxiety Disorders

Many childhood worries are developmentally normal. In some cases, childhood worries become extreme to the point of impairing normal functioning. Extreme anxiety may be generalized and impair function in most settings (generalized anxiety disorder), or it may be specific to one or more settings or situations (separation anxiety, phobias, and panic disorder).

The choice of medication depends on the severity of a child's anxiety and whether the child's anxiety is predictable and extreme. Antidepressants and buspirone are used when the child needs constant coverage. Benzodiazepines, alpha-agonists, and antihistamines are used for episodic or context-specific anxieties.

Depression

Characterized by a widely varying array of presentations, depressed children may seem primarily sad or irritable. Antidepressants are quite effective and well tolerated for depressed adolescents. However, they tend to cause more side effects in young children and should therefore be used judiciously in preadolescents.

Posttraumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD)

PTSD applies to increased arousal, reexperiencing, and avoidance developed in response to a severe, frightening event. Serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SRIs), alpha-agonists, anxiety, and sleep medications are used.

Bipolar and Mood Disorders

Also widely varying, children diagnosed with a bipolar or mood disorder may have a euphoric or irritable, hyperactive, and sped-up quality to their overall way of behaving. These patterns may also apply to depressive disorders with an agitated rather than lethargic quality. Childhood mood disorders may become adolescent or adult depression, rather than bipolar disorder. Mood stabilizers and second-generation antipsychotics (SGAs) are used, perhaps in combination with antidepressants. Antidepressants may cause increase in agitation or activity in bipolar and mood disorders.

Obsessive-Compulsive Disorder (OCD)

OCD is characterized by intrusive worries and/or debilitating rituals, which may include cleaning, checking, counting, lining things up, or repetitive sayings. Such symptoms may also occur with anxiety. Treatment is with high-dose SRIs or clomipramine.

Eating Disorders

For eating disorders, a team with both a nutritionist and a therapist is necessary. Therapy involving the family is usually necessary. Medications are primarily used to target co-occurring disorders, as there is not much evidence that medications help the eating disorders themselves.

Psychotic Disorders

Although schizophrenia is exceedingly rare in preteens, psychotic symptoms (such as hearing or seeing things that are not there, or believing something despite evidence that it is not true) are quite common in children with other disorders. Antipsychotics may be used to treat such symptoms, in addition to medications for other disorders causing psychotic symptoms.

Autism Spectrum Disorders

Autism spectrum disorders consist of atypical development of social, communicative, or cognitive skills. They vary remarkably in presentation and impairment. There is no medication treatment for autism itself, but there are effective treatments for some concomitant emotional and behavioral features.

Because autistic children have limited coping skills, they become stressed easily, which may cause them to appear anxious, to have increased repetitive behaviors, to be unable to learn, or to become aggressive. For rigidity and inflexibility, SRIs are often used. For aggression, aripiprazole and risperidone have been proven effective, and other atypical antipsychotics are often used.

Oppositional Defiant Disorder (ODD) and Conduct Disorder (CD)

ODD and CD are addressed through therapy involving the child's family. There are no medication treatments, but co-occurring disorders should be treated.

Other Dysfunctional Behavior Patterns Not Labeled a Disorder

Severe aggression is treated primarily by treating the underlying disorder, though antipsychotics and mood stabilizers are often used to supplement treatment.

Sleep problems are also treated by addressing the underlying disorder. Use of medications for sleep should be temporary, and behavior modification around sleep is critical.

Assessing the Need for Medication

Medication is but one aspect of comprehensive psychiatric care. It is almost never sufficient by itself. Furthermore, it is often not as effective as parents, clinicians, and educators wish it would be. Since educators are often an integral part of the process of referring a child to child psychiatry, educators are in an excellent position to help families understand the process and develop realistic expectations.

Most psychiatric medications are prescribed by pediatricians or general practitioners, followed by psychiatrists and nurse practitioners. In most states, nurse practitioners can prescribe medications under the supervision of a psychiatrist. Psychiatrists are medical doctors who have 5 to 6 years of training in adult and child psychiatry (including therapy), and nurse practitioners are at least master's-level nurses with further training in psychiatric prescribing.

A thorough psychiatric assessment includes a review of patterns of symptoms likely to respond to therapy and medication interventions. It also considers the psychosocial factors that may obstruct a medication response or confound the results of any treatment. A psychosocial history must be thorough and include family structure and functioning, quality of relationships among family members, safety and stability of the child's past and present environments, a review of the family history of psychological problems, and the child's capacity to endure adversity.

A medical evaluation may include basic vital signs, laboratory studies including head-imaging studies, electroencephalograph study looking for seizures, or electrocardiogram study evaluating heart rhythm. Taking a thorough medical history may uncover medical causes for emotional problems or the potential for side effects from medications.

Psychiatrists diagnose disorders based on genetic family history of psychiatric illness, knowledge of the child's inherent style of dealing with his or her world, information from collateral sources about the history of the problem, and symptoms described by the child and endorsed by those around the child. Multiple diagnoses commonly overlap, and the similarity of observable signs of various illnesses may lead to differences of opinion between clinicians (Figure 1).

The diagnoses themselves have been created based on scientific studies of typical symptom clusters and responses to specific treatments, but we do not yet understand the biological causes that contribute to psychiatric illnesses. Expert panels revise the diagnostic criteria according to studies of diagnoses and treatment efficacies, the use of clinical theory in practice, and the logistics of providing care to a population. It is an imperfect system.

Brand name drugs usually do not differ from generic drugs in their effects. Exceptions are as follows: (1) pills that are dyed specific colors can cause side effects due to the dyes, whereas other forms may not have dye; (2) different versions of a drug may have different amounts of effective drug per pill, causing erratic effectiveness. Such reactions are difficult to predict. Also, brand name drugs may be prohibitively expensive.

Regarding dosing, only general guidelines can be offered here for how much medication will be effective

Figure 1 Symptoms, Diagnoses, and Medications

| | <i>Diagnoses</i> | | | | | | | | <i>Medications</i> | | | | | |
|--------------------|------------------|-------------------|----------------|-------------------------|----------------------|------------------|------------------------|------------|--------------------|------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------|
| | <i>ADHD</i> | <i>Depression</i> | <i>Anxiety</i> | <i>Bipolar disorder</i> | <i>Posttraumatic</i> | <i>Psychosis</i> | <i>Autism spectrum</i> | <i>OCD</i> | <i>Stimulants</i> | <i>Antidepressants</i> | <i>New antipsychotics</i> | <i>Old antipsychotics</i> | <i>Mood stabilizers</i> | <i>Antianxiety medicines</i> |
| Overly active | • | | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | | • | • | • | |
| Impulsive | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | | • | • | • | • | • | |
| Disorganized | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | | • | • | • | • | • | |
| Inattentive | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | | • | |
| Avoiding work | • | • | • | | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | | • | • |
| Shutting down | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | | • | • |
| Unmotivated | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | | • | • | • | | • | |
| Crying | | • | • | • | • | • | • | | | • | • | | • | |
| Expressing sadness | | • | • | • | • | • | • | | | • | • | | • | |
| Irritable | | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | | • | • | | • | |
| Aggressive | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | |
| Violent | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | | • | • | • | • | • | |
| Suicidal | | • | • | • | • | • | • | | | • | • | • | • | |
| Expressing worry | | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | | • | • | | • | • |
| Controlling | | • | • | • | • | | • | • | | • | | | | • |
| Needy | | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | | • | | | | • |
| Obsessive | | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | | • | • | • | • | • |
| Repetitive | | | • | • | • | • | • | • | | • | • | • | • | • |
| Socially awkward | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | | • | | | | |
| Seeking sanction | | • | • | | • | | • | | | • | • | | • | |
| Oppositional | | • | • | • | • | • | • | | | • | • | • | • | • |
| Cheating/stealing | | • | | • | • | | | | | | | | • | |
| Insomnia | • | • | • | • | • | • | • | | | • | • | • | • | • |

for a child. All children are different in their tolerance to medication, the amount needed to show an effect, which side effects they get, and how quickly their body processes and eliminates the medication. On the one

hand, in efforts to fix problems quickly, doses may be increased excessively; on the other hand, in efforts to avoid overmedication or side effects, doses may not be increased enough. Long-acting medications tend to be

newer and more expensive and do not always confer greater benefit.

Any medication can cause almost any side effect, and every person is different. Discussions about side effects usually address more common and more dangerous effects. Some minor side effects will abate within days or weeks; others do not improve or are too severe to tolerate. Side effects should only be tolerated if the medication is clearly helpful or while waiting for the medication to take effect.

There are always new medications being released. Some of these are truly new; others are repackaged forms of older medicines. Medications should only be used in children when safety and efficacy are demonstrated through research.

Categories of Medications, Their Uses, and Their Common Side Effects

Following is a discussion of the major groupings of medications, along with their uses and common side effects.

Stimulants

Used for the impulsivity, hyperactivity, and inattention of ADHD, *stimulants* have a variety of formulations differing by manufacturer and how long they last. The two categories, methylphenidate and dextroamphetamine, have roughly the same effects and side effects. Some children respond better to one or the other, but there is no predicting which, so multiple trials are common. These medicines work the first few times they are taken and only work when they are taken as directed. The child's parents and doctor may decide not to give medications on weekends or school breaks.

Methylphenidate formulations include, in order of increasing duration of effectiveness, methylphenidate (Ritalin), dexamethylphenidate (Focalin), methylphenidate extended release (ER) (Ritalin LA or Metadate CD), dexamethylphenidate ER (Focalin XR), methylphenidate patch (Daytrana), or methylphenidate OROS (Concerta). Dextroamphetamine formulations include dextroamphetamine (Adderall or Dexedrine or Procentra liquid), dextroamphetamine ER (Adderall XR), and lisdexamfetamine (Vyvanse).

Common side effects of stimulants are decreased appetite, insomnia, irritability, increased anxiety, abdominal pain, headache, withdrawal or apathy, and tics (involuntary facial movements or vocalizations); there also can be irritability associated with the drugs wearing off in the afternoon. All of these medicines can also cause growth delay, which is presumed to be due to appetite suppression.

Alpha-Agonists

Alpha-agonists include clonidine and guanfacine, both blood pressure medicines that lower our bodies' *fight or freeze or flight* stress response. Forms of these medicines include clonidine, clonidine patch (Catapres), long-acting clonidine (Kapvay), guanfacine (Tenex), and long-acting guanfacine (Intuniv). They are used for ADHD and stress reactions associated with anxiety, trauma, and autism. They treat impulsivity and hyperactivity more than inattention. Clonidine is more sedating than guanfacine, but both can cause sedation, dry mouth, constipation, headache, and low blood pressure.

Antidepressants

Antidepressants treat depression; some antidepressants treat anxiety. They take 4–6 weeks at an adequate dose to show effect and may continue to have effect for several weeks after discontinuation. They must be taken daily to have continued effect. SRIs are similar but have slightly different effects, but we are not yet able to test which patients need which SRI. These include fluoxetine (Prozac), sertraline (Zoloft), citalopram (Celexa), escitalopram (Lexapro), paroxetine (Paxil), and fluvoxamine (Luvox).

Serotonin–norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors are more effective for adults than children and are used for depression and physical pain more than anxiety. These include venlafaxine (Effexor), duloxetine (Cymbalta), and desvenlafaxine (Pristiq).

Atypical antidepressants have various other mechanisms of action and may be used when the firstline SRIs are not tolerated for depression or anxiety. These include bupropion (Wellbutrin), mirtazapine (Remeron), trazodone (Desyrel), nefazodone (Serzone), and atomoxetine (Strattera). Bupropion and atomoxetine may be used for ADHD also. Trazodone and atomoxetine are not generally used for depression.

Tricyclic antidepressants are older but effective, though more for adults than for children. You may see them used for headaches in children. These include amitriptyline (Elavil), clomipramine (Anafranil), imipramine (Tofranil), and nortriptyline (Pamelor).

Monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOIs) are rarely used in children, due to their more severe side effects and dietary restriction. These include phenelzine (Nardil) and tranylcypromine (Parnate). Buspirone (Buspar) is an antianxiety and less effective antidepressant medication that affects the serotonin system, and it is often tolerated by children who cannot tolerate the SRIs.

Side effects for all antidepressant medications are similar: most importantly, but rarely, suicidal thoughts, sedation or spaciness, upset stomach, headache, dizziness,

agitation or increased energy, insomnia, increased irritability, motor restlessness, dry mouth, and sexual dysfunction. Mild versions of these side effects often happen when the medicine is started and abate by the first couple of weeks. Some have uncomfortable withdrawal symptoms when not taken, which are distinguished from loss of a helpful effect by knowledge of the particular medication and when the symptoms happen. Bupropion can increase the likelihood of seizures. There have been rare reports of atomoxetine causing liver damage.

Antipsychotics

Antipsychotics have been shown to be effective in reducing delusions or hallucinations of psychotic disorders, but they have also been shown effective in bipolar and mood disorders, OCD, some irritability, and aggression. They usually work within a few days but can have further benefit after 4–6 weeks; they must be taken daily to have continued effect. Antipsychotics are categorized according to whether they primarily affect dopamine (*first generation* (FGAs) or *typical*) or dopamine and serotonin (SGAs or *atypical*).

FGAs include haloperidol (Haldol), perphenazine (Trilafon), pimozide (Orap), trifluoperazine (Stelazine), chlorpromazine (Thorazine), thioridazine (Mellaril), fluphenazine (Prolixin), and thiothixene (Navane). FGAs can cause stiff muscles, tremor, sedation, dry mouth, weight gain; if stiffness, confusion, and fever are present together, the child should see a doctor immediately.

SGAs include risperidone (Risperdal), aripiprazole (Abilify), quetiapine (Seroquel), ziprasidone (Geodon), clozapine (Clozaril), paliperidone (Invega), olanzapine (Zyprexa), iloperidone (Fanapt), lurasidone (Latuda), and asenapine (Saphris). They share the side effects of FGAs but may produce less stiffness and tremor and certainly are correlated with more weight gain, with the potential for diabetes and high cholesterol. Weight, abdominal circumference, blood sugar, and cholesterol should be monitored.

Mood Stabilizers

Mood stabilizers constitute a group of drugs that have been used to treat pediatric bipolar disorder, severe mood swings and mood symptoms, impulsivity, and aggression. They may show some benefit within a week or two but can take 4–6 weeks to have full effect. Because SGAs have also been studied for pediatric bipolar disorder, they are often called *mood stabilizers*, which is confusing. Mood stabilizers include lithium (Eskalith), valproic acid (Depakote, Depakene), carbamazepine (Tegretol), lamotrigine (Lamictil), oxcarbazepine (Trileptal), and topiramate (Topamax).

Most common side effects are sedation, unsteadiness, spaciness, and weight gain. Lithium can cause slurred speech and confusion if a child is dehydrated or sick, which necessitates urgent medical care. Lithium also can cause shakiness. Most mood stabilizers can cause rashes, which should always be examined by a physician immediately, as some are dangerous.

The following medications are used for anxiety and insomnia; so all of them have the side effect of sedation. These only work when they are taken, and they work quickly. *Benzodiazepines* include alprazolam (Xanax), lorazepam (Ativan), diazepam (Valium), and clonazepam (Klonopin); *benzodiazepine-like medicines* include zolpidem (Ambien), zaleplon (Sonata), and eszopiclone (Lunesta). These can cause unsteadiness and slurred speech in high doses. Because they inhibit learning, they should be used sparingly during the day. *Antihistamines* include diphenhydramine (Benadryl) and hydroxyzine (Vistaril), which cause dry mouth and constipation. *Trazodone* is often used for insomnia and can cause lightheadedness. *Melatonin* is a naturally occurring hormone often used to initiate sleep, and it has fewer side effects than the other treatments for insomnia.

Concluding Remarks: The Psychiatrist–Educator Partnership

Teachers and school staff play central roles in the psychiatric care of a child. Without the school's input, a doctor cannot fully understand how a child is functioning for half of his or her waking hours; how the child manages the complex academic, sensory, and social challenges of the classroom; what interventions and approaches have been most successful in helping the child overcome difficulties; nor how effective and tolerable any psychosocial or pharmacologic intervention has been.

Given the centrality of the roles of teachers and school staff in providing good psychiatric care, it is essential that there be good communication among teachers, school staff, and the physician assigned to help. However, there are often obstacles preventing good communication, obstacles needing to be understood if they are to be overcome.

First, educators and mental health clinicians often conceptualize, describe, and manage emotional and behavioral problems differently. Clinicians may not understand the challenges of the classroom, and educators may not be familiar with clinical approaches. Work schedules and settings do not easily allow phone conversations at mutually convenient times.

Perhaps most importantly, the inherent complexity in understanding children's behavior and the idea that someone should fully understand a child or how best to help a child can become reasons for educators and

mental health clinicians to avoid reaching out to each other. But neither party needs to know in advance the answers to the difficult questions; there must only be the willingness to think through them together. Also, it is entirely possible to translate between educational and clinical language and theory, as long as there is genuine effort at mutual understanding.

Although it may be difficult to find a mutually convenient time to talk, educators should expect to reach a clinician, including a child psychiatrist. Furthermore, educators should expect to be treated with respect. When there is a difference of opinion, both educator and clinician should be open to voicing their concerns. Differing views signify only that the problem needs more contemplation and intervention, perhaps of a different kind. Teachers spend much more time with a child than most clinicians, so any difference of opinion deserves attention.

Educators also provide an important contribution to communication between parents and clinicians. By hearing from both the parents and the clinician about what the clinician thought and how medications may be used, educators can provide insight into how effectively the clinician and parents communicate. Parents may feel helpless or coerced in the process of deciding to give their children medication. Educators can help a clinician know when parents do not feel understood. Furthermore, educators should know when a medication has been started, when it is expected to have effect, and when the dose has changed—so as to be in a position to provide the clinician with important feedback.

Most psychiatric problems warrant the psychiatrist or some other clinician talking to the child's educators. Exceptions include when a child has a problem that primarily manifests outside of school—or that is not worsened by being at school or by school work—and that is not causing impairment in the child's social or academic functioning. Even in such rare cases, a psychiatrist or clinician cannot verify a child's functioning without talking to the child's teacher.

Eric Goepfert and John Sargent

See also Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder; Behavior Disorders; Diagnostic and Statistical Manual (DSM); Disruptive Behaviors, Positive Approaches to; Emotion Regulation

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MENTAL HYGIENE MOVEMENT

The mental hygiene movement, as its name suggests, focused on addressing the health (i.e., *hygiene*) of our mental or psychological processes. The movement was in response to the fact that, prior to the twentieth century, attention to mental health and to the treatment of those with mental illness was not part of the broader U.S. societal narrative. The movement constituted a concerted effort in the United States to highlight and better the treatment and prevention of mental illness while promoting good mental health overall. The movement preceded what is today the field of mental health. This entry provides an overview of the mental hygiene movement, key individuals within it, how it evolved over time, and how its legacy can still be found within today's school and the broader society.

Origins

The mental hygiene movement's origins can be traced back to the mid-nineteenth century, but it became a coordinated and influential movement at the turn of the twentieth century.

Just prior to the emergence of the mental hygiene movement, there were several key figures who drew attention to issues related to mental illness and pushed against the common and pervasive ill treatment of those with mental illness. One of these key figures was Dorothea Dix, a schoolteacher. She actively campaigned at the state and federal levels for the ethical treatment of individuals with mental illness and for services and protection to be provided to them.

At the beginning of the movement, the most influential figure was Adolf Meyer, a leader in the development of psychiatry as a field and someone who influenced a great many people to actively participate in reforming the ways we think about and treat those with mental illness. Meyer is also credited with being a major force in developing the new field of social work.

Meyer shifted the focus of psychiatry to maladjusted responses to real-world, everyday challenges faced by individuals, including children. One underlying premise in such a focus was that providing support for individuals to help them meet everyday challenges could prevent mental illness. This premise shows up in an early description of mental hygiene, one provided by Isaac Ray, a founder of the American Psychiatric Association. Ray described mental hygiene as a way to protect the mind against issues and experiences that would diminish or lower the mind's ability to function and develop in a healthy way.

Clifford W. Beers (1876–1943) is often credited with bringing the mental hygiene movement to the attention of the general public. Beers had himself been institutionalized on several occasions and, with the support of Adolf Meyer, he wrote *A Mind That Found Itself* (1913), his memoir that exposed the deplorable conditions and treatment of individuals in mental institutions and asylums.

In New York in 1909, Beers, Meyer, and others formed the National Committee for Mental Hygiene (NCMH). Later on, several other professional groups and scholars were incorporated into NCMH, including groups from social work, education, and sociology. The initial focus of the NCMH was to address the treatment of patients and conditions in mental institutions and asylums, as well as increase research and innovation in psychiatric treatment. Other goals were to increase the status of psychiatry as a field beyond the institutions and asylums.

Prevention

Early in the movement, the focus came to be more and more on the *prevention* of mental illness. Central to this shift in focus was the view that all individuals differ in degree rather than in kind in relation to mental health. This meant that the establishment of the conditions that

promote good mental health, and that address minor mental health issues early on, will decrease the number and severity of mental health problems.

One major development coming out of this focus on prevention was the post–World War II emergence of outpatient clinics and centers to treat and provide services, including what was often referred to as *Guidance Clinics*. Outpatient facilities decreased the number of people who were placed in the institution and asylums, as well as provided direct services to children and families. One of Adolf Meyer's students, Paul Lemkau, was a leader in this outpatient and guidance clinic phase of the mental hygiene movement.

Working With Children

The increased emphasis on prevention led naturally to an emphasis on working with children. The movement aligned itself with the dominant psychoanalytic theories of the time, with their emphasis on mental illness having its origins in early experience in childhood.

The mental hygiene movement can be seen in efforts to reform the judicial system. Child Guidance Clinics were created as part of the judicial system to work with *delinquent* youth and their families. In time, mental hygienists came to believe that by the time these delinquents came to their attention, it was too late.

Schools and Schooling

By the late 1920s and early 1930s, the movement began focusing on schools and schooling—in part because the movement's leaders put little stock in parent education as a way to prevent mental illness. The movement aligned itself with progressive education that was, at that time, creating changes in schools and education as a whole—largely by taking a more positive approach to schooling: building on children's interests, providing structure not in harsh directives but in the supportive design of classrooms, and overall making schools into places where children could actively explore, create, and learn on their own under the guidance, not restrictive authority, of a teacher. This alliance with progressive education allowed mental hygienists to access the field of education and promote the prevention of mental illness through helping children adjust to school.

Members within both the mental hygiene and progressive education movements believed that most schools had too narrow a focus on the intellectual development of students. This was at the expense of the development of well-rounded individuals who can live full, healthy, and rich lives. They argued that the development of healthy personalities is more important than traditional academic objectives.

The hygienists focused on proactive discipline, including using positive and supportive methods. In addition, they helped schools increase their willingness to identify students at risk for failure and for developing mental health problems and to target treatment or interventions to help them.

In many ways, the overall approach taken by mental hygienists is similar to today's main approaches to assessment and intervention in schools—approaches found in titles and buzzwords such as *Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS)* and *Response to Intervention (RTI) model* and in today's emphasis on providing positive supports for even the most challenging children.

From the 1930s and into the 1960s, in teacher education programs there was a marked increase of coursework, training opportunities, and textbooks influenced by the mental hygiene movement. Most notable were the works of Fritz Redl, William Wattenberg, David Wineman, and a good many others who worked with *troubled* children. Many of their ideas and methods for behavioral and classroom management are used in today's classrooms and teacher education programs—ideas and methods that bear the stamp of the mental-hygiene way of thinking. For example, Fritz Redl spoke of the methods he advocated for managing behavior as being *antiseptic*, that is, good for bringing about positive effects in the short term, but not at the expense of causing long-term mental health damage.

Many of the methods advocated by this group of clinician-educators are effective without necessarily being evidence-based—because their effectiveness relies on the clinical judgment of teachers, that is, on a teacher's ability to understand what a child is thinking and feeling in the moment, as well as to choose methods for intervening based on that understanding. For example, planned ignoring is a method that works only when a teacher makes the clinical judgment that a child's misbehaving is not going to escalate if left unaddressed—that the child is just needing to fool around a bit and then will, on his or her own, settle down. Other methods include *proximity and touch control*, *hypodermic affection* (i.e., additional affection), *interpretation as interference* (i.e., check for understanding of the material), *antiseptic bouncing* (i.e., time out), and *direct appeal*. Another lasting legacy of their work is the development of the Life Space Crisis Interview, which is still used extensively in settings that work with students with emotional and/or behavioral disabilities.

Conclusion

The influence of the mental hygiene movement is not often highlighted in books on education and classroom management, but perhaps it should be. As noted, it was

the mental hygiene movement that brought together an eclectic array of professions and reform movements that made possible the development of today's positive approach to classroom management. Many of the principles and innovations witnessed in the mental hygiene movement are still in place within the mental health professions and services. Furthermore, today, mental hygiene principles and perspectives, although not named, permeate teacher education and schools in ways that show its importance and long-term influence.

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See also Evertson, Carolyn; History of Classroom Management; Redl, Fritz

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MENTAL RETARDATION

See Intellectual Disabilities (Mental Retardation)

METHODS, INEFFECTIVE

Teachers often cite children's misbehaviors and conflicts as the most challenging aspect of their job. They know that being effective in classroom management is critical to their success as teachers and to their students' success as learners. Yet, systematic and structured learning of behavior management is typically absent from teacher education programs, and few colleges and universities offer courses exclusively devoted to classroom management for general education majors.

Therefore, future teachers are left to learn these vital skills during their student teaching, leaving them dependent on the length and quality of that experience, especially on the expertise of their cooperating teachers. However, according to the 2011 comprehensive study of student teaching in the United States conducted by the National Council on Teacher Quality, only about half of cooperating teachers are qualified because half have not been teaching long enough, are not instructionally

effective teachers, or do not have the insight or ability to mentor. Furthermore, the study found that cooperating teachers are generally selected based on their willingness, not on their qualifications.

Once in the classroom, novice teachers acclimate to their particular school culture by emulating those around them. If their classroom management role models have been poor, then novice teachers are apt to have established patterns of ineffective practice. Although some schools may offer a mentoring program for new teachers, most do not; opportunities for professional development focused on classroom management may be limited or nonexistent. Without a comprehensive understanding of effective classroom management methods, novice and experienced teachers alike will have a limited repertoire of strategies with which to manage and guide children's behavior. They will likely implement discipline methods that are not effective because they lack alternatives. All this establishes the need to develop in teachers good practices for evaluating their methods and for distinguishing between those that are *effective* and those that are not.

Evaluating Whether a Method Is Effective

A number of factors should be considered when evaluating whether a classroom management method is effective or ineffective. It might seem reasonable to conclude that an educator's discipline intervention is effective if problematic behavior ceases. Yet, often the termination of misbehavior is temporary, leading one to question how long a targeted behavior should be absent to state definitively that the discipline method worked. Educators need to reflect on the parameters for success: Is it for one learning period, a day, a week, a month, or permanently? What if the behavior appears again after being absent for a period of time? One must also decide if a decrease in the frequency of a behavior deems the intervention partially effective. In short, one of the considerations when evaluating is whether a method is good, not just for the immediate short term but also for the future days, weeks, and months that a student is in a particular class.

It is not uncommon for a behavior to manifest itself in one situation and not in another. When, for example, an undesired behavior is readily extinguished with a particular negative consequence as a method or when a desired behavior is increased with a particular, positive method, this state of improvement may continue but only if the methods are continuously applied. In another setting in which those methods are not being used, if the undesired behavior reappears and the desired behavior goes away, the methods can be evaluated as inadequate because they fail to set the stage for naturally occurring reinforcements and punishments to take their place in other settings.

There is also the question of long-term effects, as in effects to the overall, long-term development of a child. For example, harsh discipline (threats, intimidation, shaming, verbal insults, or physical discomfort/pain) may work not just for the short term but also for the weeks and months that a student is in a particular class—but the emotional impact of the harsh discipline may leave unhealthy character flaws for years to come. Educators who skillfully observe their students and thoughtfully reflect on their own practice do not regard these classroom management methods as valuable despite their apparent effectiveness for managing unwanted behavior.

A second major criterion for evaluating a method is whether the method is not only good for an individual student but also good (or at least not harmful) to the group (and vice versa). For example, it is possible that planned ignoring will lead to a decrease in a child's unwanted bids for attention—but the price of using this method might be too high as the child's momentary increase in unwanted bids for attention (*extinction burst*) might be so disruptive to the rest of the class that the method cannot be continued.

A third major criterion has to do with whether a method prevents problem behavior. Classroom management methods that rely on preventive methods may be especially difficult to observe and measure. For example, the Northeast Foundation for Children's *responsive classroom* approach centers on class meetings, empowering language, and critical contracts to build a caring and collaborative learning community. In a *responsive classroom*, behavior management is not a set of responses to isolated behavior but rather an intricate system of communication among students, teachers, and families.

Therefore, for educators to agree upon the effectiveness of behavior management methods, they must have an operational definition of effectiveness using reasonable criteria for evaluating and comparable expectations of positive or appropriate behavior. Looking at a classroom through the same lens requires a shared rubric of desired behavior and an organized system of observing and collecting data. Keeping this in mind, we can now turn attention to common ineffective classroom management methods.

Ineffective Methods

Ineffective classroom management methods are those that fail to meet the criteria mentioned above but nevertheless continue to be employed. Ineffective methods are not differentiated to address particular children and situations. They do not take into consideration individual children's age; cognitive, linguistic, and physical abilities; temperament; or social and emotional needs. Educators may have varying philosophical or pedagogical orientations, but certain classroom practices are

ineffectual regardless. The methods discussed below are commonly used classroom management methods even though they are ineffective and should be eliminated. They do not consistently improve behavior, may inadvertently increase behavior problems, or may damage children in the long term.

Group Rewards and Punishments

Group rewards are ubiquitous in classrooms and schools. They may seem beneficial to most educators, but the evidence suggests otherwise. Examples of group rewards are when a class has a party for earning 20 gold stars, or a teacher tells the blue table to line up first because they are doing a good job. Examples of group punishments/negative consequences include when a teacher reprimands the class and tells them that they are not behaving well or that they will have additional homework because the teacher could not finish the lesson owing to chatty students.

One problem with disciplining a class as a whole is that there are always students who are following directions despite the misbehavior of their peers. They lose out on rewards or receive punishment because of the actions of others—and this not only seems to them unfair; it is unfair. Some teachers believe that peer pressure encourages misbehaving students to comply with expectations. Even if that were true, the students who are behaving appropriately are still penalized and may be more inclined to ignore the rules in the future. Additionally, group rewards and punishment are not targeted to individual children's needs and to the particular situation. Therefore, they are far less likely to be effective.

Empty Threats

Giving students a warning that a particular consequence will be imposed for inappropriate behavior is good practice. A warning is a reminder to students of the teacher's expectations. However, if students ignore the warning and a teacher does not enforce the consequence even though the inappropriate behavior persists, then that warning is really an empty threat. Students learn very quickly that they do not have to alter their behavior when a teacher gives multiple warnings, warnings that rarely or never end in a real consequence.

Public Reprimands

Reprimanding a student in front of a group is an ineffective method of classroom management for one of two contrasting reasons: either it shames the child or inadvertently reinforces the behavior. Sometimes

children act out because they are seeking attention from adults. When teachers stop their lessons to correct those students, often with lengthy explanations or warnings, they unintentionally reinforce students' behavior with their attention. For other students, being reprimanded in front of peers is humiliating. This is true when they are scolded or their name is written on the board. Furthermore, public reprimands often have what Jacob Kounin called a *ripple effect*, meaning they often create resentment, inattentiveness, and other unwanted behaviors from the rest of the group.

Forced Apologies

One common classroom management practice is telling students to apologize for their wrongdoings. Educators who require students to apologize believe that it teaches good manners and is a positive way to end conflicts. Typically, students are not sorry for their actions and do not feel regret or remorse, the very definition of an apology. It is wrong for adults to assume that they can make children feel sorry just by saying the words. Forced apologies absolve students of their misbehavior without a *natural or logical consequence* to deter them in the future. Students learn to immediately apologize when they are caught misbehaving without any reflection or genuine remorse. Some teachers ask students, "What are you supposed to do now?" or "Do you think you should apologize?" presuming that this is different from a coerced apology. However, suggested apologies are no more effective than coerced apologies because students comply with the implied expectations without feeling regret for their actions.

Loss of Recess

Students who behave inappropriately or fail to stay on task and complete their assignments often lose recess as a consequence. Teachers know that recess is important to students, so they withhold it to motivate them to comply or deter them from misbehaving. However, children and adolescents who are likely to lose recess, namely those who have difficulty sitting still and being quiet, are often the ones who need recess the most. Without time to rest, play, and interact with peers, their behavior difficulties in the classroom increase.

Writing or Additional Assignments as a Consequence

Another common method for classroom management is requiring students to write about what they did wrong. For many students, often those whose have

repeated behavior problems, writing is difficult and frustrating. Weak writers are reluctant and must be encouraged. When writing is a punishment, students associate writing with negative feelings. This is also true if the consequence is to write about an arbitrary topic or about one that the class is studying. Additional assignments of any kind as a response to student behavior will negatively impact students' attitude toward writing—and to school in general.

Some teachers require that students complete unfinished classwork as homework. While that is a reasonable consequence for students who are purposefully not working during class time, it is not appropriate for students who are slow workers. Their pacing will not be improved by extending the amount of homework assigned.

Sending Students Out of the Class

Sending students to the principal, assistant principal, director, or dean because they are disruptive or not doing their work is ineffective for improving classroom behavior. A teacher's authority is diminished when students see that their teacher cannot manage the class and needs help from someone in a position of higher authority. Sending students into the hallway or to the back of the classroom (facing a wall) is also ineffective. It sends a message that the teacher does not want to see them and may be interpreted as not caring. Furthermore, some students are happy to leave the classroom so that they do not have to be in class. A pattern is created of acting out and being thrown out. However, it is appropriate to remove students from a class when they are a danger to themselves or others.

Food as Reinforcement

Teachers often offer food incentives to motivate students, such as ice cream or pizza. When students fail to earn these rewards, they perceive it as a punishment. This is particularly troubling for the millions of students who live in poverty and may not be adequately nourished. Students with eating disorders are also adversely affected by food that is contingent on their behavior. Educators have an opportunity to model healthy eating habits by having lunch with their students on a rotating basis, not by giving food as a reward for good behavior.

Conclusion

Classroom management methods are effective or ineffective according to whether or not they meet good

criteria for evaluating methods. Those criteria have to do with short- versus long-term effects of methods and how methods affect not just individuals but groups as well. And those criteria have to do with whether the methods help not just in the classroom but also when children are outside the classroom and school.

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See also Assessing Classroom Management; Detention; Disruptive Behaviors, Positive Approaches to; Kounin, Jacob; Methods for Managing Behavior: Types and Uses; Preventing Behavior Problems; Punishment; Reinforcement; Reprimands; Responsive Classroom Approach

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METHODS FOR MANAGING BEHAVIOR: TYPES AND USES

When it comes to methods, there are four points to be made in particular. First, any single method (e.g., time-out, having an adolescent provide a detailed story about what led up to a misbehavior) can fit comfortably within almost any approach, and so, wise educators make it a point to collect a storehouse of methods—no need to rule out using a method because it fails to fit within an approach. Put another way, it is wrong to say “My approach is to use time-outs” or “I switched from a developmental to a behaviorist approach when I began to use time-outs.”

Second, the meaning any method has depends on the educator's approach. For example, time-out as a method may have one meaning within a behaviorist approach (as a way to stop misbehavior from being reinforced) but quite another meaning within a psychodynamic

approach (as a way a child can regain composure and, when ready, reenter the group), and the differences in meaning matter.

Third, while a method can fit comfortably within almost any approach, approaches are defined, in part, by which methods are *featured*. One way to spot how an approach features certain methods is to organize methods into main types and ask which type is featured.

Types of Methods

Control Methods

One type of method functions primarily to gain direct and immediate control over children and adolescents. The methods in this type, then, can be referred to as *control methods*. For children, they include invoking a classroom rule (e.g., “No running in the halls!”), using time-outs, providing rewards for good behavior, and implementing physical restraints. For adolescents, they include in-school suspensions and being made to do extra work. Control methods may bring to mind only behaviorist approaches, but they figure in every approach because there are times when children and adolescents need to be directly controlled by teachers.

Guidance Methods

Another type functions primarily to guide children and adolescents so as to support more mature behavior and long-term development. The methods in this type, then, can be referred to as *guidance methods*. They include helping children and adolescents to think of alternative ways to negotiate conflict (e.g., “Can you think of something you might have done instead of grabbing John’s marker?” “Can you think of some other way of being funny than by being funny at someone else’s expense?”), holding class discussions about ways to improve the class, and directly suggesting trying out some more mature way of resolving a problem.

Prevention Methods

A third type functions primarily to prevent problem behavior from occurring in the first place. The methods in this type, then, can be referred to as *prevention methods*. For children, they include providing advance warnings that transitions are coming up (e.g., “Five minutes until clean-up.”), seeing to it that every child has the materials needed to carry out some project, and being careful not to ask young children to sit still for longer than they are able to. For adolescents, they include making the curriculum interesting and making students feel known and respected. One of the major findings from

research on behavior and classroom management is that, regardless of approach, good teachers differ from others not so much by how they react to problem behavior as by how they prevent problem behavior from occurring in the first place.

How Methods Relate to Approaches

One final point about methods and how methods relate to approaches: professionals often differ from amateurs by their being *mindful* that their methods derive from their approaches. Being mindful, they can have more control over choosing the right methods—because they can keep in mind the big picture (their values and goals as well as their theory and assumptions about change) while attending to details of the moment. They also can be in a better position to change approaches if the situation calls for change.

However, being mindful about one’s approach does not mean introspecting and taking a long time to choose a method or alternative approach at those times when immediate action is needed.

Choosing Methods

Choosing methods takes more than being mindful of one’s approach. There are other considerations as well, considerations about who the child—or what the group—is and what the circumstances are. This is a different way of talking about choosing methods than the usual talk. The usual talk implies that there is one method for every problem behavior. We hear this in questions such as “What should one do about hitting?” and “What should one do about swearing?”

However, choosing methods is almost never about matching methods to behaviors. Rather, it is about *matching* methods to children or adolescents and to circumstances. Furthermore, choosing methods is not about choosing the single, right method so much as it is about choosing a variety of methods for attacking problems at *different points of entry*. Finally, choosing methods is about *managing dilemmas*.

Matching Methods to Children or Adolescents and to Circumstances

To understand what is meant by matching methods to children or adolescents and to circumstances, consider the following example of children in different classrooms refusing to clean up.

In the first classroom, the teacher had announced suddenly, “Time to clean up!” A child in the block corner looked startled and

then refused to clean up. In the second classroom, the teacher announced, “Five minutes to clean up,” and a child in the block corner looked anxiously at the fort he had built, and then refused to clean up. In a third classroom, the teacher also gave a five-minute warning, and a child in the block corner gave the teacher a devilish grin and then refused to clean up.

In each of these three classrooms, we see children refusing to clean up and come to circle time.

What if the teachers in each classroom matched the exact same method to each instance of refusing—such as providing a negative consequence or trying to help the child problem-solve? Doing so may have helped one child, maybe two, but not all three—because the meaning of refusing to clean up differed from one child to the next.

The first child was startled and needed a transition time, so giving him a five-minute transition time might have been the method of choice. The second child was concerned about his fort getting taken apart, so helping him save his fort by adding a *save* sign might have been what was called for. The third child was looking forward to a struggle with his teacher, so skillfully ignoring him may have been just the right method. Each of these methods is matched, then, not to the problem behavior, refusing to clean up, but to the circumstances and what refusing to clean up meant to the child.

Forrest Gathercoal gives an example of the same principle applied to adolescents—an example of two boys who had defaced the walls of a school building. One boy willingly stayed after school to clean the wall he had defaced—because he understood and agreed with the logic of the consequence. The other boy objected to this proposed consequence, saying it was the janitor’s job, not his. By objecting, he indicated he had an underlying problem with authority in general and so required more time and counseling for him to understand his problem and for him to begin to see teachers in a more positive light.

As these examples indicate, matching methods also has to do with matching methods to children’s or adolescents’ level of maturity. As a linguistic method, saying “You need to boss your body” when young children are *out of control* works well with preschoolers but would likely invite pandemonium if used with young adolescents.

Points of Entry

The question of choosing the right methods also depends on how complex and serious a problem may be. If the problem is simple and not serious, a single method

aimed at controlling a child or group might suffice—such as when a teacher remains silent until a group of fourth graders quiets down so the teacher can speak and be heard. However, if the problem is complex and serious, educators must think in terms of multiple methods applied simultaneously. Furthermore, multiple methods often need to be applied at different points of entry.

Points of entry refer, then, to the different ways we can attack problems—with some ways directed at making short-term improvements, and other ways directed toward the long term. For example, if an eighth grader is disrupting the class by continually playing the role of class clown, he may win laughs from his classmates, but he may not win their respect, and his antics probably undermine his relationships with teachers and diminish his academic potential. In this situation, a teacher may have to choose methods to respond directly to the misbehavior—to improve the short-term effect—but other methods are likely to be needed as well, with each directed at different points of entry, such as at improving the boy’s relationships with classmates as well as helping motivate the boy to focus on academics.

Points of entry also refer to how we can simultaneously employ methods designed to prevent problems, guide children or adolescents, and control problem behaviors when they occur—which brings us to the last point about choosing methods, namely, the point about managing dilemmas.

Managing Dilemmas

One of the many subtle characteristics distinguishing master teachers from those who are not so masterful is that master teachers always feel caught in dilemmas. Others may think that there are simple and clear-cut solutions to most any problem, but master teachers know that the best they can do is to manage dilemmas, two in particular.

The first dilemma is *between meeting short-term needs for order and safety and long-term-needs for positive development*. What is good for meeting short-term needs for order and safety is not always good for long-term positive development (and vice versa). For example, it may calm a particularly disruptive child to send the child to time-out after the child misbehaves, but continually doing so may have harmful long-term effects, perhaps by limiting the child’s opportunities to learn alternative ways of behaving or perhaps by creating a bad-child image in the classroom community, or perhaps by both.

The second dilemma is *between meeting the needs of the individual and meeting the needs of the group*. What is good for the individual is not always good for the

group (and vice versa). The previous example illustrates this dilemma as well—since sending a child to time-out often restores order in the group and classroom while it does not necessarily serve the needs of the individual child being sent to time-out. Another common example occurs when a particular child receives continuous and special attention so that the child stays on task, but as a result, the group may suffer.

In managing these two dilemmas, most educators intuitively follow what Fritz Redl called *the law of antiseptis*. This is the guideline stating that whatever one does to address one side of a dilemma cannot be harmful (must be antiseptic) with respect to the other side.

Conclusion

Methods for managing behavior are the specific ways in which educators control or prevent students from engaging in problem behavior, or guide students to engage in more mature and appropriate behavior. Their use in classrooms depends on wise choices being made with regard to student(s) and circumstances, with regard to dilemmas having to do with short- and long-term goals, with regard to the needs of individuals and the group, and with regard to the seriousness of the problem and whether the problem requires single or multiple methods. The business of choosing and using methods for managing behavior is, then, a complex business. It requires educators to accumulate a storehouse of methods to choose from, develop an ability to assess students and circumstances, and have the patience to manage ongoing dilemmas. In the end, choosing the right methods is a matter of doing what is right for a student or group of students—both for the present and for the long term.

W. George Scarlett

See also Applied Behavior Analysis; Approaches to Classroom Management: Types; Developmentally Appropriate Practice; Points of Entry and Classroom Supports

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MIDDLE SCHOOL AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Managing the middle school classroom is especially important because it is during their middle school years that students are most likely to experience reduced academic motivation and self-esteem. Effective classroom management in middle school classrooms requires that teachers be proactive, preventing problems before they happen. Middle school teachers who effectively manage their classrooms respond to the unique needs of students and create a classroom environment in which all students feel physically and emotionally safe because teachers have been culturally responsive, have developed positive relationships, and have made all students feel respected.

Middle School Structure

Middle schools typically serve students in Grades 6 to 8 to or 5 to 8. Middle schools were designed as an alternative to junior high schools, which generally serve students in Grades 7 to 9. The middle school aspires to create a child-centered environment, which is in contrast to the curriculum-centered environment of the junior high. Instead of dividing faculty into academic departments, faculty is divided into grade-level interdisciplinary teams.

Typically, teachers are teamed across language arts, math, science, and social studies for the same group of students at the same grade level. These teachers collaborate in many ways. For instance, teachers on the same team may create an interdisciplinary unit on Ancient Greece. The math teacher may teach the mathematical theories of Pythagoras, the science teacher the plant and animal classification system developed by Aristotle, the language arts teacher the Greek drama using the plays of Oedipus, and the social studies teacher the culture and mythology of Ancient Greece.

Teachers on the same team can also work together to address student-related problems. For example, if teachers discover that the family of one of the students on their team is struggling financially, they can work together to determine how to support that student socially, emotionally, and academically.

Another positive feature of the middle school model is that it provides students with a community. Since the team of four teachers all teach the same 120–130 students, they are able to create a close-knit team whose members help one another to create a community. Often this is accomplished by having team activities or team meetings during homeroom. For example, teams can

participate in team-building activities such as tower building, where students work together to build a tower using marshmallows and uncooked spaghetti. Teachers can facilitate team meetings where students discuss a current issue at their school, such as bullying.

The middle school structure also affords students the opportunity to explore elective courses. Students have a team of core academic teachers, which accounts for four of six daily periods. With the remaining two periods, students attend elective classes such as art, band, computers, choir, or a foreign language. Elective courses are often structured differently for sixth-, seventh-, and eighth-grade students. For example, in the sixth grade, students may take a different pair of electives every quarter so they have an opportunity to try every elective offered at their school. Then in the seventh grade, students take a different pair of electives every semester so they can further explore elective classes. Finally, in the eighth grade, students take the two elective classes they are most interested in, for a full year.

Characteristics of Middle School Students

Developmentally, most middle school students are considered adolescents (aged over 12 years) as they begin to transition from childhood to adulthood. Adolescents experience a range of cognitive, emotional, and physical changes that influence their learning and performance at school. While the overall picture of adolescence has been changing in the past 2 decades, from one of *storm and stress* to a much more positive picture—as evidenced in the concept of *positive youth development*—there is no doubt that early adolescence has its share of storms and stresses that show themselves in the classroom and in the overall school environment.

Cognitive/Academic Development

Theories of development have given us many insights into the newfound cognitive abilities of middle school students. For example, Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget described young adolescents' newfound ability to think about their own thinking (i.e., metacognition) and to engage in formal operational thinking needed to take on complex problems calling for thinking in terms of possibilities and requiring operations carried out in the mind alone. Accordingly, middle school students are able to process hypothetical situations and generate options to scenarios and problems.

And they can take appearance versus reality to a higher level, an example being their humor—where on the surface, that humor may appear to be sexist, racist, disrespectful, or worse (e.g., the humor in TV shows such as *South Park* and of comedians such as Dave Chapelle)

but actually may be humor making fun of sexism, racism, and serving purposes other than being disrespectful. Adults who do not get the humor and who do not see the cognitive gains in the humor may themselves be in line to become the butt of young adolescents' jokes—one of the pitfalls savvy middle school teachers know how to avoid.

That said, the humor of young adolescents brings out another characteristic of young adolescent thinking, namely, that it can be egocentric in its own way. Young adolescents are famous for not realizing that though their humor may not be intended to offend, the fact that it does offend should be enough for them to learn to be careful and caring. For that, they need a teacher's guidance.

The example of Piaget, his analysis of adolescent thinking, and the example of adolescent humor brings out another defining characteristic of adolescent thinking, namely that it often is not tied to real-world experience. Adolescent idealism can serve as an example. In the real world, responsible adults work to manage dilemmas, dilemmas that never totally get resolved—such as the many dilemmas faced when addressing the complex issue of climate change. And so, at any given moment, what is ideal can only be approximated. Young adolescents are unaware generally of these life dilemmas. In being able to think in terms of possibilities and what is ideal, young adolescents can speak easily about ideal parents, ideal teachers, ideal schools, and so forth, all without knowing much about the hard choices responsible adults face and the many compromises they have to make. And so young adolescents, in being idealists, can be judgmental toward adults and find them *stupid* or worse, for not having solved the world's problems. All this requires teachers and parents to be patient in the face of being judged, and the challenge is to guide, without patronizing, about what it really takes to do good and improve the world.

Emotional Development

During adolescence, transformations in family relationships can cause emotional stress for middle school students. As students experience biological and social changes, they also push for more autonomy and less parental control. Often this change is marked by actual conflict between parents and adolescents, as well as emotional conflict for students as they strive for and adjust to changes on the path toward adult independence. In the classroom, similar struggles may be seen with peers and teachers.

With peers, students will tend to affiliate with one or more groups, sometimes to the point of those groups becoming cliques. Common interests and shared

activities typically define these groups, but the desire for membership is so powerful that associations must be monitored—in part because what young adolescents would not dare do alone, they now do as part of a clique. Middle school students are concerned about what others think of them, and they can be at risk for negative outcomes in their quest for acceptance. Friendships are typically marked by self-disclosure and interaction reciprocity. Peers become the primary source of support, although friendships can also cause emotional problems for students, more so during this period than during any other developmental period. It is important that teachers know middle school students are likely to have increased emotional struggles with friends and at the same time view their parents as unsupportive. This results in feelings of emotional isolation, and these feelings can be especially intense (and internalized) for females.

Romantic relationships are normative in adolescence and become central to emotional development. Peer networks support romantic relationships, and romantic relationships facilitate connections with peers; it is cyclical. Given adolescents' need for acceptance and for support outside the family unit, as well as given their desire for group membership, adolescents engaging in romantic relationships are at a heightened risk emotionally. Correspondingly, positive peer and romantic relationships have been found to enhance academic achievement and connection to school, in addition to predicting high-quality relationships later in life.

Physical Development

Although there is variation, many middle school students experience rapid physical growth and hormonal changes with puberty. Students benefit from more sleep. As students balance emotional development and hormonal changes, self-regulation can be difficult. For males, this difficult emotional transition coupled with rapidly increasing physical strength can cause new challenges with physical aggression, but at the same time open up new opportunities for achievements in sports. For females, hormonal changes and menstruation cycles can cause emotional and physical challenges. Both males and females who experience faster physical maturation are at risk for early sexual behaviors. All middle school students struggle with acne, hygiene, voice changes, and other markers of physical maturity that work against the adaptive cognitive skills of self-concept and confidence. Yet, students' heightened sense of self-awareness often prevents them from noticing that peers are having similar experiences, and that these are normal. This unique context requires that middle school teachers are sensitive to all physical issues that students experience.

Characteristics of Effective Teachers and Teaching in the Middle School Classroom

Successful middle school teachers develop a distinctive set of skills, which include establishing classroom culture, developing relationships with students, and designing engaging and relevant lessons. These skills enable teachers to manage their classrooms successfully and create an environment where all students can learn.

Safe Environment

An effective middle school teacher creates a classroom environment in which all students feel emotionally and physically safe. Because middle school students are concerned with what others think of them, they are sensitive to criticism. In order to feel safe enough to ask questions, engage in classroom activities, and take risks with their learning, students need to know a safe classroom environment has been established where the teacher and other students will not ridicule them for making mistakes or asking questions.

Respect for All Students

Another characteristic of effective middle school teachers is that they respect all students. Teachers who respect students are kind to students, listen to and value their ideas, and treat all students equally. Students prefer that the teacher address them individually if they do something wrong, rather than singling them out in front of their peers. Middle school students also want to be treated like young adults, so teachers should respect their privacy and maturity. This can be done by respecting students' personal space, treating students as the teacher would want to be treated, trusting students, and being honest with students.

Middle school teachers can show respect to their students by being culturally responsive. Culturally responsive teachers possess a sociocultural consciousness, which means understanding that students are influenced by their race, ethnicity, social class, and language. In order to develop sociocultural consciousness, teachers need to first develop an understanding of their own sociocultural identities by exploring the social and cultural groups they belong to and reflect on how their attachment to these groups has shaped their personal history. Culturally responsive teachers believe all students can learn regardless of their race, ethnicity, social class, language, or gender. A culturally responsive teacher will build on students' personal and cultural strengths by scaffolding from the knowledge the students have acquired through their experiences to what they learn in the classroom. In order to create

these scaffolds, teachers need to be familiar with their students' experiences outside of school. Similarly, teachers who are aware of students' interests are able to tie them into their teaching, which may increase students' motivation to learn.

Developing Positive Relationships

In order to learn about students' experiences outside of school, teachers need to develop positive relationships with students. Building positive relationships with students is essential to being an effective middle school teacher. One way teachers develop positive relationships with students is sharing limited personal information. This can be as simple as talking to students about hobbies or favorite sports teams, or as complex as starting a lunch group for students centered on shared interests (e.g., knitting, poetry).

In addition to letting students get to know them, teachers need to know all of their students as individuals. Teachers can learn about student hobbies and interests at the beginning of the year by having students complete a personal profile worksheet. Teachers should take an interest in what students are doing outside of the classroom. If students are on sports teams or in bands, attending one of their games or concerts will show students they are cared for as individuals and that others take an interest in what they are doing.

Flexible Time Management

Finally, effective middle school teachers are flexible and manage their time. The middle school classroom is an unpredictable environment, and sometimes the schedule will not go as planned. Effective middle school teachers acknowledge when an activity, routine, or rule is not working for the classroom and make adjustments. Effective middle school teachers are good at time management. Most of the problem behaviors that occur in middle school classrooms occur during transitions or other unstructured time. Effective teachers plan every minute of a class and plan extra activities in case the lesson runs shorter than planned.

Classroom Management Strategies for the Middle School Classroom

In his book *The First Days of School*, Harry Wong explains that successfully managing a classroom begins with being a proactive teacher. Being a proactive teacher means knowing how to prevent problems from occurring, rather than responding to problems after they have occurred. Wong explains that one of the best ways to be

a proactive teacher is to design classroom procedures and teach them to students.

Classroom procedures are important because they inform students as to what is expected, which increases on-task time and reduces classroom disruptions. Before the first day of school, teachers should write out all desired procedures. Procedures will vary, but teachers should have procedures for the beginning of the period, quieting a class, how to ask for help, movement of papers, and the end of the period.

Teaching procedures to students involves three important steps. The first is to explain the procedure by stating, modeling, and demonstrating the procedure. The second is to rehearse and practice the procedure with each class. The third is to reinforce the procedure by reteaching and practicing the procedure with students until it becomes routine. It is important to acknowledge when students have executed a procedure correctly and to correct them when they have performed the procedure incorrectly. It will take several weeks for procedures to become routine, so practice is necessary.

Lesson Design

Proactive teachers design active, engaging lessons that are relevant to students. Middle school students will grow restless and lose focus if they are required to remain seated for the entire teaching period. Incorporating movement into classroom activities can be helpful. This can be as simple as having students rotate between stations every 10 minutes or stand up and complete 10 jumps during the lecture. If students are interested in what they are learning, they are less likely to engage in problem behavior. Academic material can be presented using methods to increase interest. For example, in an eighth-grade science class about physical forces, students could complete a forces worksheet to practice what they learned, or they could construct a force diagram of a daily activity such as shooting a basketball, a skateboard trick, or a ballet move. Students are more likely to find forces relevant if they can apply them to their life.

Classroom Structure

One of the reasons classroom procedures are so important is because they provide structure: structure that prevents classrooms from becoming disorganized and chaotic. Posting a schedule in the same place each day helps students know what to expect, making them more ready to learn. Posting assignments helps students know what to turn in and teaches them to use an

agenda. One of the goals of middle school is to teach students to be more independent. Part of this process is teaching students to manage their time and obligations. Sixth-grade teachers should discuss with students the importance of keeping an agenda and teach them to write assignments in their agenda daily. By the time students reach eighth grade, writing assignments in their agenda should be an established routine they follow without prompting.

Discipline Plan

Although classroom procedures are a vital component of successful classroom management, having an established discipline plan is also critical. An effective discipline plan has three parts: rules, consequences, and rewards. Rules establish limits, which are especially important for middle school students because they have a tendency to test limits. Involving students in developing classroom rules and expectations may be a useful strategy for middle schoolers, because it gives them ownership of those rules. Teachers and students can agree on three to five rules. The rules should be consistently enforced using consequences that make sense. For example, if a student violates the rule *keep the room clean*, then staying in during lunch for 15 minutes to clean the room is a logical consequence.

Teachers can also have a conversation with students when they violate a rule. This conversation can have three parts. First, the teacher can ask the students to identify what they did and how it violated one of the classroom rules. Second, the teacher can ask the students to explain why that expectation is important. Finally, the teacher can ask the students to explain what they should do differently in the future and then administer the consequence. Having this conversation helps students learn from the situation so they will make better choices in the future. Teachers can also reinforce positive behavior by acknowledging when students are following classroom expectations. To acknowledge positive behavior, a teacher could give the student verbal praise or write a positive note home. Reinforcing positive behavior will increase the probability that students will repeat those behaviors.

Finally, teachers can be proactive by working with the other teachers on their team to solve problems. Since the teachers on a team all have the same students, they can work together to address any issues a particular student may be having. For example, if a student is exhibiting problem behavior in math class, the team can meet to discuss the student's behavior in all classes. By working as a team and comparing the student's behavior across classes, they can determine what is causing the problem behavior and how to address it.

Conclusion

Middle school is a critical period in a student's life. Middle school students possess a unique set of characteristics, making their needs distinct from those of elementary school and high school students. Teachers can better attend to the needs of middle school students by creating a safe classroom environment, designing meaningful and engaging lessons, respecting them as individuals, and building positive relationships.

Samantha Vancel and Kristen Missall

See also Beginning the School Year; Developmental Approaches; High School and Classroom Management; Piaget, Jean; Positive Youth Development and Schooling

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MILIEU MANAGEMENT FOR STUDENTS WITH EMOTIONAL AND BEHAVIORAL SPECIAL NEEDS

Milieu management and its associated term, *milieu therapy*, refers here to creating safe, caring, and relationship-wise environments that serve as powerful clinical interventions to help populations of students

with clinical problems. Although the guiding concepts in milieu management apply to all students everywhere, they are especially important in environments for students with emotional and behavioral special needs (EBSN) because the extraordinary reactions called for when adopting a milieu management approach match the extraordinary challenges presented by EBSN students. Consider the following case as an example:

Ms. Hadley, the assistant teacher, was new to Louis's classroom, and spelling was not his strength. When Louis kept making bodily noises during a spelling exercise, Ms. Hadley sent him to the hallway for a time out. Louis's protests could be heard two classrooms away as he repeated several times, "I didn't do anything!"

Ms. Rothstein, Louis's head teacher, knew there must be something beneath and behind Louis's behavior, something, and so she followed him out of the room.

"She has it in for me—that idiot!" yelled Louis.

Ms. Rothstein leaned in close to Louis and, hoping her whispering would result in a drop in his voice, whispered, "What makes you think Ms. Hadley has it in for you?"

Louis's face crumpled like paper, and with his arms folded across his chest and his heels pummeling the bottom of the time-out bench, he said, "Cuz she's only giving me time-outs because I'm black. It's a racial thing. I hate her."

Ms. Rothstein thought about all she'd heard and read about Louis's history of feeling ostracized and rejected due to his having been one of the few African American kids in his previous schools. He'd been teased and the target of bullies.

Ms. Rothstein then straightened, and gave Louis a puzzled, yet knowing look. She'd thought enough moves ahead. She had the perfect response for him. This was one of those "teachable moments" she loved. She leaned in again, even closer to his face. She could smell Cheetos on his breath. How did he get Cheetos? she wondered. Someone must have taken him to the vending machine in the staff break room even though it was against the rules. She exhaled slowly and smiled at Louis. "Let's walk," she said, standing up with a hand gently on his shoulder. Her smile pulled him up from his granite daze and he followed. "You like Cheetos, huh?" she asked. "Me too."

From that point forward, the day unfolded positively.

This simple but wise talk about sharing a liking for Cheetos brought Louis out of his me-against-the-world feeling and into the reality that he was connected to others who care.

Seeing Behind Bad Behavior

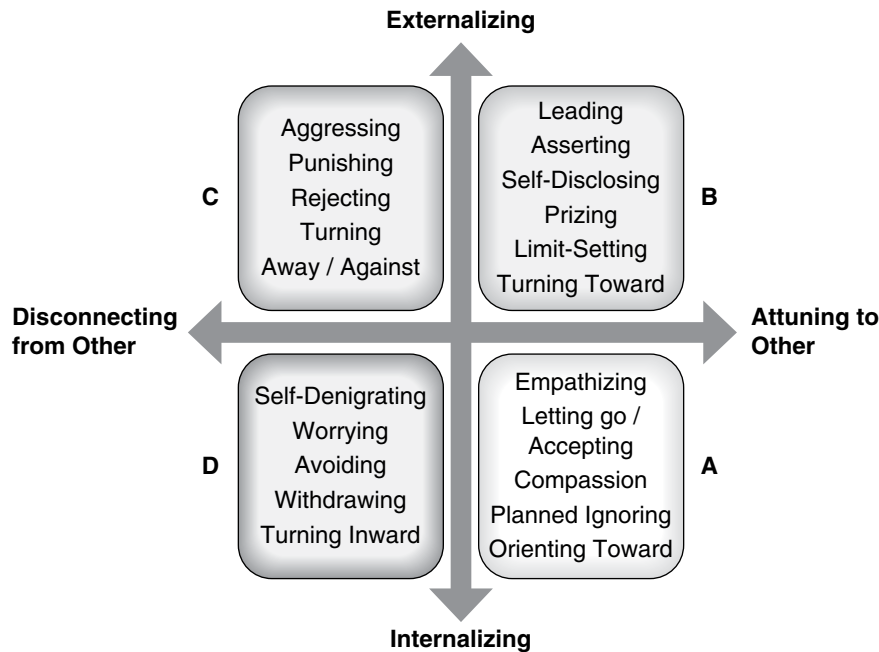
Although his research focuses on the interactions of married couples, psychologist John Gottman's concept of *bidding for connection* is relevant to those working in classrooms with children with EBSN. This concept leads us to find bids for connection even when others shout, nag, cajole, withdraw, accuse, and otherwise behave poorly. Rather than framing such behavior as *bad*, mean-spirited, or something else negative, this concept leads us to reframe such behavior's meaning as bids for connection, a call to let others know that they have an emotional need that requires attention. Following a milieu approach, teachers and staff members realize that children who exhibit disruptive and puzzling behaviors are often, in fact, doing the same thing—using their behavior to signal what needs attention *in themselves*.

In Figure 1, student and staff behavior can be categorized according to what the behavior *looks like* as well as what the message is behind the behavior. This figure can be used as a tool for teaching staff responsible for EBSN children to gain in-the-moment perspective when children struggle with their behavior. It is a tool to help see the real message behind behavior, catch one's own inner reactivity, and be more ready to respond in helpful ways. The figure asks staff members to categorize students' behavior by how external (observable) versus how internal (experiential) it appears, as well as by how attuned/connected and aware students are of their emotional needs and the meaning of others' behavior. Members of the teaching staff can then ask the same of themselves and their own behavior, and what they are feeling *pulled* to do in reaction to students.

When Louis was making noises in class and calling Ms. Hadley an *idiot*, his behavior can be classified as *on the left*, *external*, and *disconnected*. Louis's behavior clearly is likely to disrupt others, as well as his own learning. Understandably, Ms. Hadley may have experienced a reactive *pull* toward the left on the figure as well—thinking to herself that "Louis is disrupting class and clowning around on purpose," and therefore getting a bit annoyed and sending him out of the room.

Cultivating the Five C's of Classroom Management

But what is the message underneath Louis's behavior? What is driving him to be so disruptive? To answer these questions, a teacher must step back and catch the

Figure 1 Understanding the Student and Staff Tug-of-War

Source: Author. Copyright (c) 2013 by Mitch Ablett.

pull toward reactivity—so as to determine the ideal, *right-sided* interventions for Louis and every student like him. For all students, interventions need to be selected to fit the developmental, cognitive, and emotional processing abilities of the student. With EBSN students especially, this means considering the *five C's* of effective management.

Communication

No intervention with EBSN students is likely to be effective without clear and proactive communication between the various members of the teaching and other professionals' team. Therefore, the first task in developing good classroom management for these students is developing a culture of openness to feedback and a commitment to creating feedback mechanisms and *loops* to foster good communication between members of the team. Administrators should make this a priority by creating the structures (e.g., meetings and time for communication) that allow for a good flow of information, and staff members should advocate for better structures when these are absent.

Furthermore, teaching staff should learn to pause before they intervene. Unless there is an imminent safety concern, to improve communication, there is always time for a moment or two to answer one or more *W* questions.

Where are we right now? (Am I calling the student out in front of peers in a way that will embarrass him or her and spark reactivity?) Where else can this be dealt with?

Who knows this student best? (Should someone else be handling this?) Who else should be made aware of this situation? Who is leading this intervention? (In group situations, this is key so that staff members do not work at cross-purposes.)

What is the goal of the intervention? What are ALL the factors that led the student to behave this way? (Helps you to broaden perspective and not jump to conclusions that often sound like blame.) What am I missing about this situation?

Why not wait a bit? (Helps guard against reactivity.)

In terms of communicating with EBSN students when they are showing challenging behaviors, it is often best to shift away from verbal input (that can be easily dismissed, misinterpreted, or go unheard) to visual/nonverbal input. This means using gestures (e.g., nonreactive pointing) that redirect students back to necessary tasks, and whiteboards that communicate expectations. For example, a teacher faced with Louis being disruptive might write the behavioral *goal* at the top of a whiteboard, "Louis wants to earn his computer break time," and then draw a line down the center of the board. The first column could be titled Yes and the second No. The teacher could then write down the

concrete, specific behavioral expectations that will lead to the break under the *Yes* and those leading to loss of the break (and perhaps other consequences) under the *No*. *Yes* expectations might be face forward, eyes on paper, silent working for 5 minutes. *No* behaviors might be making noises, talking to other students, being out of seat, or not responding to directions within 20 seconds. Visual prompting done in a calm, nonreactive, and *right-sided* way (attuned to the student) can be extremely effective.

Containment

It is crucial for teaching staff working with EBSN children to realize that working effectively with such students does not mean bending over backward to accommodate their disabilities and ignoring their problem behavior. Of course, their behavior comes from causes that are ultimately beyond their conscious control. No amount of wishful finger-snapping will make these behaviors disappear. But the students' lack of choice for their behavioral disabilities does not mean we do not hold them accountable in appropriate ways for their behavior. Without clear, concise, and consistent *fences* erected around their behaviors, these students are much less likely to succeed academically, socially, and emotionally. Compassionate limit setting by caregivers for aggressive children reduces the likelihood of aggressive behaviors. Setting appropriate limits in a manner that is nonreactive and attuned to the best interests of the child creates space for these students to pause, learn, and realign their behavior with more adaptive expectations.

When the staff members know when and how to set appropriate limits to contain disruptive behavior, they then demonstrate therapeutic leadership. They are LEADing by doing the following:

Leaning into the moment (getting perspective; letting go of reactivity and blame; noticing one's own thoughts and emotions; orienting toward the best interests/needs of the student)

Examining the appropriateness of a limit on behavior in a given situation and context (ensuring that the behavior is significantly interfering with the students' goals or is in some notable way violating others' boundaries/needs)

Actively intervening and setting the limit (assuming a confident, yet nonreactive stance; acknowledging the student's *bid* behind the behavior; giving the student the *If/Then* contingency—"If X behavior continues, then Y consequence will happen" and making sure the consequence is reasonable and can definitely be implemented)

Detaching and assessing (allowing the student to process the information for a moment; reconnecting to the needs/bids behind the behavior; getting ready to praise the willingness to let go of problem behavior; getting ready to reconnect with the student)

Sometimes, EBSN student behaviors do not really require limit setting. They require staff members who are willing to move in close in a nonthreatening manner, connect with students, and engage them in *co-regulation* coping activities that help them learn to pull free of maladaptive anxiety, withdrawal, and disruption and avoidance patterns. In the example above, instead of leaping toward time-outs and loss of privileges, Ms. Hadley might have done better to engage Louis (or have another staff member do so) with a nonpunitive *fidget/squishy* ball, a quick walk down the hallway together, or some other activity in which Louis could discharge and channel his nervous energy.

Though limits create a fence around more serious behaviors, fences do not teach how to fare better inside the enclosure. To manage their distress and keep themselves on track, Louis and students like him need proactive instruction and the kind of communication we saw in the example of Ms. Rothstein.

Community

Interventions that facilitate an increased sense of *belongingness* for students have been associated with greater resilience for at-risk children. At times, EBSN children can ping off one another with misbehavior, feeding a progressively more problematic dynamic. At such times, it is easy for staff members to chase individual behaviors and miss opportunities for managing the classroom as a whole. EBSN students need teachers who can shepherd the entire class toward a clear sense of community so that each student comes to feel that he or she belongs to something greater than themselves. Examples of community building interventions include the following:

- creative, cooperative games
- whole-classroom relaxation activities (e.g., meditation or breathing exercises)
- sports and clubs
- student government/committees
- themed days at school (e.g., *pajama day* or *beach day*)
- group reinforcement/incentive plans (e.g., *marble jars*, in which positive student behaviors are noted with a marble and once the jar is filled with marbles from students in the room, a class party or event takes place)
- storytelling with the whole group

EBSN students need teachers to help restore their self-efficacy and worth as students, individuals, and members of a group—issues that are especially important for this group, given their backgrounds that often include poignant examples of abuse and neglect. Therefore, teachers should endeavor to make EBSN students believe that they belong in their classroom and their school *no matter what*.

Composure

All interventions and instruction with EBSN students will fall short if delivered without the teacher showing relative inner balance and composure. This may seem obvious, but it is nevertheless often overlooked and underaddressed in discussions on effective intervention and classroom management. Teaching staff benefit from intensive training and coaching in how to build the core *inner* skills needed to show inner balance and composure. Such skills include the following:

- learning to recognize and sidestep cognitive and perceptual bias that leads staff members to *blame* students for their behavior;
- learning to see the *bids* behind student misbehavior—the unmet needs driving children to disrupt, avoid, and act out;
- creating flexibility within one’s own thinking in order to reduce emotional reactivity—to open up possibilities for creative solutions;
- creating a sense of attuned detachment from the work;
- developing skills of emotional *acceptance*; and
- developing a strong sense of the patterning within oneself (one’s own unique emotional routines when things get difficult) so that one can more readily catch reactions before they inflame tough situations.

Connection

This last area of effective milieu management with EBSN students is perhaps the most obvious, and therefore, the easiest for which to assume that one already possesses the necessary skills. Most teaching staff members already believe that they connect emotionally with their students. Most staff members already know to *catch ’em being good* and praise positive behavior and build relationships with students whenever possible.

However, praise can have several meanings, not all of them good. One meaning to convey when praising might best be described as *prizing*. Prizing goes beyond any sense of being the well-adjusted professional because prizing is more about authentically relating to another. It is a reminder to professionals to let students occasionally see professionals as people, people who really value

what they see students doing—as if students’ efforts to change are a gift to those teaching and caring for them.

Prizing, then, goes beyond praising. It lets students know not only that they are seen and that it is something good they are doing. It also communicates that students’ actions matter to others. It is looking at Louis, and students like him, and saying “Hey, I noticed your effort back there, and that was really cool, and very impressive to me/really made me feel good/helped me to see things differently.”

Concluding Remarks

Milieu management entails much more than controlling disruptive and challenging behavior. It entails reaching beyond the behavior to speak to a student’s most important longings and needs. It entails connecting with students in ways that provide therapy, that motivate students to develop new skills, and, in general, that engender trust in the world, enough so that students will do their own connecting. Furthermore, it entails using the very behaviors that challenge as opportunities for healing and developing.

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See also Behavior Disorders; Conduct Disorder; Diagnostic and Statistical Manual (DSM); Oppositional Defiant Disorder; Screening and Monitoring for Academic Success

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MINDFULNESS PRACTICES FOR TEACHERS

In the film *Dead Poets Society*, actor Robin Williams plays an unorthodox teacher in an elite, starched-stiff, tradition-bound preparatory high school for boys. While most of the school’s teachers focus on leveraging the boys into compliance with the institution’s long-standing

reputation for productive high achievement with stringent assignments and rigid rules, Williams' character focuses instead on the boys themselves. Through the consistency of his engagement, attunement, and creativity, this teacher has a profound impact on the boys in his literature class. Although only a fictional character, Robin Williams's *Mr. Keating* demonstrates what can be true in real classrooms as well—that teaching rooted in mindfulness leads not only to *productivity* in students; it leads also to the depths of what truly transformative education is about.

In a pivotal scene, Mr. Keating asks the boys to come one at a time to the front of the class to read the poems they have written for homework. Any poem would do, as long as it expressed the authentic voice of the student. All students except one have prepared a poem; when asked to come forward, the anxious, though highly talented, student played by actor Ethan Hawke mumbles aloud that he has not written a poem. Fear has crippled him.

Many teachers would respond to such a situation with a pinch of encouragement, maybe a touch of admonishment, and maybe even a low earned grade reality slap. With an *unmindful* reaction, a teacher might unwittingly fuel the student's fear and in so doing, perpetuate the student's being unable to work. Williams's Mr. Keating is instead fully mindful, taking in the silence of Ethan Hawke's expression, likely sensing the gravity of his fear, and attuning to the boy's talent and perhaps even to his desire to break free. Mr. Keating's mindfulness leads the boy into an improvisational recital of an on-the-spot poem. With energy and relentless effort, this mindful teacher helps a reluctant student face his fear wall and walk straight through. Mindfulness is not all that makes for great, transformative teaching, but great transformative teaching cannot happen without it.

Mindfulness: Pointing at Moons and Chalkboards

Much has been written in recent years, especially in professional journals, about the benefits and efficacy of mindfulness practices. Numerous studies (well over one thousand) document that developing the skills for centering one's mind on the present moment can change physical structures in the brain involved in attention, monitoring action, and regulating emotion, in addition to leading to benefits such as increased tolerance of stress and physical illness as well as reductions in conditions such as anxiety, pain, and depression. Mindfulness, then, is no mere fad or neat psychological parlor trick.

But what exactly is mindfulness? Maybe the best answer to this question begins with what mindfulness is not. It is not

- an activity that requires chanting, the striking of gongs, and the wearing of robes;
- something that requires a dabbling in things supernatural and surreal;
- a simple *caving in* and resigning yourself to negative, inappropriate behavior from students;
- a weak, passive approach, inviting trampling of your teaching.

Very importantly, mindfulness is not something you do in order to achieve deep relaxation, especially in the midst of classroom chaos or an intense exchange with a difficult student. While mindfulness practice, done consistently, may help generate feelings of relaxation more consistently, mindfulness practice can never lead to ongoing flower-filled meadows of bliss, at least not when the job is teaching in classrooms.

So what is it? As the Zen saying goes, using words to describe mindfulness is like fingers pointing at the moon. Ask any astronaut and you'll learn that the moon is more something to be *experienced* instead of something to be described with words. Mindfulness is similarly difficult to capture through description. Nevertheless, we must try to describe.

In his poetic and moonlike description, the Buddhist teacher Bhante Henepola Gunaratana refers to mindfulness as “mirror thought . . . nonjudgmental observation . . . impartial watchfulness . . . bare attention . . . nonegoistic alertness” (2002, pp. 133–134) and says that mindfulness has to do with becoming an unbiased observer keeping track of the passing show of the universe within.

Mindfulness, in the context of teaching and the classroom, is allowing yourself to fully feel, to contact the understandable and inevitable thoughts, sensations, and emotions in yourself that arise in the moment during interactions with students and colleagues. It is

- a willingness to compassionately and *gently* allow yourself to feel your emotional reactions to provocation, exasperation, rants, disrespect, and disavowal of your educational efforts without harsh holding of yourself;
- leaning toward, or into, tough, unsettling experiences;
- focusing entirely on what is here and now in the present, and learning to foster connection with yourself and your students;
- something you choose to open yourself to. It is a cultivation of flexible awareness of *what is*;
- a commitment to courageous openness; to feeling the intensity of whatever is here now, no matter how bitter, biting, or aversive; and to expending effort, being consistent, and showing compassionate bravery;
- essential for self-awareness and effective action, be it personal or professional.

Students will occasionally point out the inaccuracies, the flaws in your teaching. What will you do in those moments of embarrassment and uncertainty?

Colleagues will upstage you in their efforts to gain the favor of principals and other supervisors. How will you handle the resentment and frustration?

The Gravity of Mindfulness for Teachers

For teachers, mindfulness is the filter through which all teaching efforts pass. What comes out in instruction, in classroom management, and in mentoring is either purified or tainted by the clarity of a teacher's awareness in every moment of work. The question is always the same, "Where is my mind *now*? . . . and *now*? . . . and *now*?"

Therefore, what we are talking about with mindfulness in teaching is not a sometime skill—something you pull out like a calculator or, these days in particular, a tablet. Mindfulness is not a strategy, nor is it a *thing*, except in the sense that gravity is a thing.

Just as gravity is constantly there in one's experience, so too, mindfulness is there. It is there to be used, and if not used, opportunities are missed to take in what is there within the self, within a classroom, and within students, opportunities to respond in the present moment with teaching that not only informs but transforms as well.

How, then, can teachers can go about developing their very own daily mindfulness practice in order to *be like gravity* with their students—by being fully present, engaged, and attuned to students and the tasks at hand. The practices described in what follows are not about helping to pay attention more. They are about practices for teachers to become a part of who they are as persons and as professionals. Teachers must first ask themselves, "Am I really a teacher apart from and distinct from my students?" Mindfulness will lead to the answer that teaching requires being fully there with students, in every moment looking to create the *teacher* in them. There is, then, no great need to create a distance and separation between the teacher and the taught.

Mindfulness Practices: A Sampling

Two caveats before providing a sampling of mindfulness practices:

- You can engage the practices without making any mystical or religious commitment. You can have whatever faith you have or no faith, because these practices are not faith-bound. They are practices of brain training, of channeling awareness with the goal of enhanced effectiveness in teaching.
- These practices are worthless without committed practice. They require effort on a daily basis, to build a

mindfulness muscle—though the effort begins by building *small*.

Practice Instructions

Building a mindfulness practice for teaching effectiveness requires engaging in practice activities both inside and outside the classroom setting, at home and at work. It requires building skills proactively with at-home, dedicated practice, and with in-class application, especially in moments where application may be useful.

Basic Mindfulness Exercises

1. Sit with a straight (not rigid) spine either on a cushion or a chair. Gently close your eyes, and for at least 5 minutes, focus on the sensations of your breathing. Focus your attention on where you feel it most notably (nose, belly, or chest). If there is any thinking, any mental meandering, come back gently to the awareness of the sensation. This gentle return, no matter how many times you do it, is by itself an extremely useful practice in developing the capacity for mindful engagement. Simply (though not always easily) notice the thoughts as they come and regard them as bubbles. You are not swatting at them or poking them away. Instead, you are reaching out with gentle intention and lightly touching them as if with a feather. Allow yourself to rest in the sensations of your breathing. Be as curious as possible about each breath as it comes and goes. Notice the gap between inhalation and exhalation. Collect details of every sensation. Learn as much as you can about each moment—Are your inhalations longer or shorter than your exhalations? Does the breath flow smoothly or does it swirl a bit in your body? If your breath had shape and form, what would it be? Allow your awareness to expand, to go in all directions, to create vast space, with each breath.

2. Again, sit with a straight spine (this facilitates alertness in your system). This time, keep your eyes open (but softly so—without forcing your eyes wide open), and for at least 5 minutes allow your mind to notice *any* sensation that arises. Whatever arises in any of your senses, observe and collect the detail of the sensation. Notice the sounds near and far. Collect the subtleties of movement—digestion, twitching, churning—within your body. Notice any soreness or tension and simply let them be as they are. If your mind is drawn into thoughts or some story line, gently direct your awareness back to whatever is *now* in your awareness. Observe each sensation closely. Inspect each without analysis or judgment. Watch each as if you were feeling the sensation for the very first time in your

life. Can you notice the contours and edges of each sensation? The subtle beginnings and endings? What is strong and what is weak? Breathe into every sensation and gently return from any thinking, judging, analyzing. If you stray into the past or the future, simply note *past* or *future* to yourself and come back to the sensations in the present. How are things changing with the passing seconds? Open and expand into your experience as it shifts (or not) within and around you.

The goal with these exercises is to learn to hold the sensory aspect of your emotional experience without the usual, reflexive attempts we all make to change them. This is acceptance of emotion and again, it is anything but passive or weak. It requires effort, focus, and a cognitive and emotional resilience shaped by frequent practice.

There are two basic forms of mindful awareness highlighted in the above exercises, the first entailing single-pointed focus on a primary *object* of mindful attention (here the breath), and the second resting in *open, natural awareness*. The focused, single-pointed form of mindful attention can be quite useful for narrowing one's focus, particularly when emotion and thought are *flooding* the mind, such as during periods of worry and apprehension. The second, expansive form of mindfulness can be indicated when broadening awareness would be of benefit. This might be the case when the mind is tending toward restrictive, *fused* focus on a specific negative or painful emotion. Basically, this open form of mindful awareness facilitates acceptance by asking *what else?* of the present-moment experience. Consider using these practices (both if possible) daily for at least 15 minutes, ideally twice a day (for example, first thing in the morning, and in the evening before bed). Start with whatever is possible for you, without overburdening yourself.

The following activity is meant for use in the classroom itself. Choose a moment when there is not much required of you (even if only for a few minutes, perhaps while students are working independently, or while they are working on a quiz or exam). The goal of this exercise is to expand your awareness to *take in* the classroom, enhancing your ability to *hold* what arises in the present moment, and respond versus reflexively react.

Try This

Select a moment when you are able to sit and observe your class without having to actively speak, teach, or engage students, and prepare to practice mindful awareness. Sit comfortably and yet upright in your chair (a straight back is best). Now, do the following:

1. With your eyes closed (if possible, but if not, keep them lightly open), focus your attention on the

flow of your breath in and out of your nostrils. Do so for a few moments, focusing on the sensation of breathing, wherever you feel it most noticeably (tingling in the nostrils, rise and fall of chest, etc.). Try to focus less on *thoughts* of breathing, and instead focus on noticing the *sensations*. If your mind wanders, that's fine—just gently come back to the sensation of the breath. As we have done before, see how much, how many details, you can notice about each breath.

2. Now, for the next moment or so, shift your focus from your breath and instead focus on any sounds you can notice in your immediate surroundings. What is here? Perhaps the ticking of a clock, air coming through vents, the din of student conversation—whatever is nearby. Try to *collect* the sounds around you, noticing how they come to awareness and then pass away. Let the sounds come and go, passing through your awareness like fast-moving clouds. Allow yourself to open up and lean in toward any sound that arises.

3. Once you are centered in this *noticing/observing* space, gently turn up the *volume* in your imagination to a moderately loud setting (a bit louder than what is actually occurring, or if students are chatting, just notice that). Close your eyes again and continue noticing the sounds as they come. Notice the words and tone of the students around you. Focus on the sensations in your body that are prompted by the conversation, the silliness, the fidgeting, and the talk from students. If you find yourself getting caught up in the *content* of what they are doing, that is fine—gently come back in your awareness to noticing the sensation of experience in your body. Obviously, intervene if students are getting out of hand, but if things are *normal* enough, just watch as the words and their impact on your body come and go like passing clouds, or like pounding rain that runs down your window, soon to disappear. Notice any thoughts too as they arise, and gently observe them, letting them come and go without *grabbing* onto them. Look for any judgments about the students, or about yourself, and just watch them come and go as well. How do you get tangled up in your thoughts? Do not wrestle with them—just see that you've gotten hooked by them and continue to watch them.

4. Continue listening and noticing for as long as possible. Let the sensations of sound, and the ebb and flow of reactions within your body and mind, pass through your awareness with as little *ownership* by you as possible.

In particular, what do you notice about your ability to move *toward* the pressured, less-desirable aspects of the classroom environment? What do you notice about

the comings and goings of your thoughts, judgments, and reactions? What was difficult? What can you learn about your own tendencies in such situations?

Try This

In order to expand this practice, look for ways to create *mindfulness bells* within your classroom—mentally designate one or more visible reminders of your intention to become mindful of what is happening for you in the present moment. It could be whenever your phone rings or maybe whenever the school bell itself rings. Whatever it is, choose a cue that, unbeknownst to anyone but you, is a prompt for you to take a breath, notice, and collect whatever is in your sense experience, as well as in your thoughts. Observe the contents of the present moment without analysis or judgment. Touch each element with the lightest possible press of your awareness.

Try This

Mindfulness *Roll Call* routine (to be practiced outside of the in-the-moment demands in the classroom):

1. Five minutes of mindful focus on the breath. Again, focus your attention on the sensation of breathing, wherever you feel it most notably. Count your out-breaths if it is helpful to get started. If there's any mental meandering, come back gently to the awareness of the sensation. This gentle return, no matter how many times you do it, is by itself, an extremely useful practice in developing the capacity for nonreactivity. Simply (though not always easily) notice the thoughts as they come and regard them as bubbles. You are not swatting at them or poking them away. Instead, you are reaching out with gentle intention and lightly touching them as if with a feather.

2. Five minutes of mindful noticing of sounds, sensations, and the flow of thought. It may help to do this with eyes closed in order to minimize distraction, but if you want to keep eyes open, it can convey an openness to whatever might arise. Allow yourself to realize that there is space for whatever might arise, be it sound, sensation, thoughts, or feelings. Let them rise and fall like waves or pass by like leaves on the breeze.

3. Ten minutes (or more) of cueing up on specific difficult recent classroom episodes or interactions with students or colleagues. It may help to have prepared brief notes in advance—perhaps phrases on note cards of what was most taxing, upsetting, frustrating, or confusing regarding your work. Sitting in this centered experience of your body, mind, and surroundings, bring each statement to awareness by glancing at it briefly.

Here is the crucial task—notice, observe, and allow whatever arises. That is your task—there's nothing to do in this moment other than hold your experience. *Remember, there is space for whatever arises.* No matter how displaced you become by a particular reaction, allow yourself to come back to your center through gentle observation of the thoughts, feelings, and sensations.

4. Open your eyes; take a full, deep breath; and *immediately* take action with regard to your work around issues or students from this centered place. The point here is to experience what it is like to place a call, write a lesson plan, or grade assignments from a place of mindfulness. What do you notice about any changes in the quality of your actions immediately following mindful presence with your experience of recent work? What might happen if you were willing to consistently implement this new habit?

Try This

This final exercise is meant to build your compassion “muscles” using mindfulness. The more compassionate your approach as a teacher, the more receptive your students will be, and the more effective will be your teaching. This again is an out-of-class exercise.

First, you have to clear away the brush, the clutter of mind and emotion. Think of a difficult student. Cue this individual up vividly in your mind's eye. With the student firmly in mind, ask yourself: in your best professional opinion as a teacher, what is it that your student needs to do (or not do) in order to make progress, to move his or her education forward? List your top five *student to-do or not-do* thoughts below:

Look over your list. Your list should make complete sense. You know this student, and you are certain that if the student would start doing or not doing what is on your list, things would improve.

Try This

Take a pen; the darker and thicker the ink, the better. Do not use a pencil—this needs to be permanent. Look at the items on your list above and one by one, cross out each item. Pause and consider each one as you cross it out. “These things are *gone*. I've consulted my “crystal ball” and I've seen the future—these things are *not* ever going to happen.” Close your eyes, and use mindfulness to observe your experience of the “reality” that these things will never happen. What shows up in your thoughts, feelings? Do you notice any “tugging” toward reactivity?

If you invested in your work with a student, an exercise such as the one you just completed creates a

fair amount of dissonance—put more bluntly, it does not feel so good. It hurts a bit to let go of *necessary* outcomes for students. These outcomes make complete sense based on your years of training and experience. *Of course* students should march enthusiastically in the direction of your proposed outcomes.

But it is just your dissonance—more specifically, your drive to avoid feeling *not so good* about things not turning out well for students, that gets in the way of your best, most effective teaching and mentoring. It is crucial for you to learn to work from an *agenda-less* orientation, especially with the most challenging students. It is not that your goals are irrelevant. You just have to hold them lightly—on the palm of your hand, not gripped in a change-greedy fist. If you are not gripping anything, it is much harder for students to end up playing tug-of-war with you. In doing this agenda-less accepting, you are strengthening your perspective muscle. You cannot see students clearly (and they will not *feel* like they've been truly noticed) if you are always looking over their shoulder and down the road.

Conclusion

It goes without saying that teaching is a challenging, at times, overwhelmingly difficult profession. Whether it is an anxious or acting-out student, or just a day in which the demands of lesson planning, grading, parent calls, and administrative meetings seem endless, the job requires more than its share of the teacher's emotional and mental faculties. To teach well and with transformative impact requires full engagement. Training and experience are crucial, but they fall short without mindfulness of what the moment brings to bear in the classroom. With the perspective and practices outlined in this entry, it is hoped that teachers will cultivate the foundation of awareness to hold whatever arises and lean in toward it in order to make true teaching happen.

Mitch Abblett

See also Caring Approaches; Mindfulness-Based Approaches to Classroom Management

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MINDFULNESS-BASED APPROACHES TO CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Over the past decade, there has been a growing interest in introducing mindfulness-based interventions (MBIs) to help both teachers and students. *Mindfulness* refers to a particular kind of attention or state characterized by intentionally focusing on the present moment with a curious, nonjudgmental attitude. Mindfulness can be cultivated with practice. Found in the world's contemplative traditions, the most basic mindful awareness practice (MAP) typically involves directing and maintaining one's attention on a specific target, such as one's breathing. However, there are numerous other practices that focus attention on movement (e.g., yoga and tai chi), on the senses, and on artistic endeavors (e.g., ikebana, the Japanese art of mindful flower arrangement). In beginning practice, while breathing is often used as an anchor, once awareness has stabilized, the focus can be widened to include all body sensations and finally, all that is presently experienced. The aim is to be aware of every aspect of experience (body sensations, thoughts, feelings, etc.) without engaging with or acting on any one aspect.

Mindfulness involves two primary components: *self-regulation of attention* and *nonjudgmental awareness*. Self-regulation of attention and nonjudgmental awareness promote awareness of one's emotions and thinking, as well as acceptance and openness to the present—all to support greater cognitive flexibility leading to better decision making.

Mindfulness and Best Practice for Teachers

The application of mindfulness to educational settings has involved a secular adaptation of traditional, spiritual practices. Mindfulness works to cultivate and maintain a healthy classroom climate by working directly on teachers' need to understand and effectively respond to students' needs, mediate social conflicts among students, recognize how their (the teachers') own emotional states

and expressions affect their students, and manage their own emotions in a way that promotes a warm and supportive learning environment.

Mindfulness also works to cultivate what Jacob Kounin described as *withitness*, an ability to focus on one or two children who may need extra attention, all the while maintaining attention on the whole class. This ability to maintain attention on the class while attending to individuals allows teachers to apply proactive and preventive strategies that keep a class moving in the right direction, what Kounin referred to as maintaining *flow*.

While teacher education programs often present an array of best practices for managing behavior and creating a classroom climate conducive to learning, such programs rarely consider whether or not a teacher has the underlying skills and dispositions required to successfully employ best practices. As a result, often well-examined and normally effective strategies fail, *not* because teachers fail to understand their theoretical basis or the procedures for implementation, but because teachers lack the underlying social, emotional, and cognitive capacities to accurately employ the strategy as it was intended, capacities that can be developed through mindfulness training.

The overwhelming demands of teaching often make it difficult for teachers to effectively monitor their thoughts, emotions, and behaviors. While we encourage teachers to engage in reflective practice, often they reflect only on surface characteristics of any given situation rather than on the cognitive and emotional experiences that underlie it. Furthermore, teachers usually practice reflection after the fact rather than in the moment.

While a teacher may focus on attending to and being aware of a multitude of minor details, without special training it is extremely difficult for a teacher to simultaneously and objectively observe his or her internal thoughts and feelings. Often when strong feelings arise, they are rooted in a misapprehension of the situation, a bias about a particular student and the student's behavior, and a misunderstanding of the student's motives. This can result in a tendency to personalize student behavior, which leads to emotional reactivity in the form of frustration, annoyance, and hostility. Responding to student behavior in this way may initiate a power struggle that can become cyclical: teacher and student reinforcing negative feelings and behavior toward one another.

For example, Ms. Gomez, a third-grade teacher, is having difficulty with one particular student, whom we shall call Samuel. During seatwork, she notices him lifting his desk and fiddling with things inside. Often his books fall on the floor and disrupt the other students. She finds herself constantly redirecting him back to attend to his work. This happens so frequently that Ms. Gomez begins to become frustrated and annoyed. Her emotional

reaction leads to a misapprehension that Samuel is dropping books intentionally to disrupt the class. This misapprehension fuels her frustration and results in her treating Samuel harshly and in a way that frightens and embarrasses him. In turn, Samuel feels misunderstood and resentful, which leads to his disrespecting Ms. Gomez. Now Ms. Gomez sees the resentment and disrespect on Samuel's face, which angers her and leads her to punish Samuel by sending him to the principal's office.

Had Ms. Gomez learned mindfulness-based approaches for observing and managing her thoughts and emotions, she could have spent a few minutes carefully observing Samuel's behavior as well as observing her own cognitive and emotional reactions. Doing so, she may have noticed that Samuel was quick to finish his seatwork and was fiddling in his desk to find something to do out of boredom. She may have also noticed the physical sensations associated with her growing frustration and then taken a few deep breaths to calm herself before intervening. In short, she may have been able to prevent herself from responding harshly and provoking a negative outcome.

A growing body of research has demonstrated that MBIs promote regulatory processes that protect against psychological distress among adults. Since MBIs promote cognitive flexibility and self-reflection, they are well suited for helping teachers reduce the tendency to make automatic appraisals of student behavior, appraisals that lead to negative interventions and emotional exhaustion.

The application of mindful awareness training to support teachers' social and emotional competence is an emerging area of research and practice. For example, the *CARE for Teachers* professional development program applies a contemplative approach to promoting teachers' well-being, efficacy, and mindfulness. Preliminary evidence suggests that the program is effective in improving teacher-student relationships, classroom climate, and student outcomes. Several other MBIs have been developed and found equally effective in reducing teachers' stress and promoting well-being and efficacy.

Mindfulness for Students

MBIs have also been happening for students. These student-based interventions aim to promote self-awareness and self-regulation among students to improve behavioral and academic outcomes. However, translating activities designed for adults for use with children and youth presents challenges, so this work with students has proceeded more slowly. Depending upon their age and developmental stage, students' mind-body processes are not likely to be as well developed as those of adults, and, therefore, it is less clear which methods

are appropriate to each age and stage. Nevertheless, a growing number of pilot studies of MBIs designed for students provide preliminary evidence of program benefits and an absence of program harm. For example, one study of a mindfulness-based yoga program for fourth- and fifth-grade students found a significant positive impact on problematic coping responses, intrusive thoughts, impulsivity, and emotion regulation problems associated with behavior problems.

Currently, there are two MBI programs for use as school-based curricula. The *MindUP* program is a classroom-based program for elementary school students aimed at using mindfulness training to foster social-emotional well-being and prosocial behavior, as well as decreasing acting-out behaviors and aggression. Compared with children who did not participate in the program, children who participated in *MindUP* showed significant improvements on teacher-rated attention and social competence, as well as decreases in aggressive/dysregulated behavior in the classroom. In addition, *MindUP* children self-reported greater optimism and mindful attention than did those not in the program.

Designed for adolescents, the *Learning to BREATHE* program was found to decrease negative affect; increase feelings of calmness, relaxation, and self-acceptance; and foster improvements in emotion regulation, energy level, and physical well-being (fewer aches and pains), along with decreases in tiredness and aches and pains.

Conclusion

To conclude, there is a growing interest in introducing MBIs to teachers and students to promote effective classroom management and student-teacher relationships. While the research to support the efficacy of MBIs is in its early stages, preliminary evidence suggests that, among teachers, MBIs may promote social and emotional competence and strong cognitive skills required to successfully employ best classroom management practices. Furthermore, for children and youth, MBIs may support the self-awareness and self-regulation required to behave appropriately in the classroom.

Patricia A. Jennings

See also Caring Approaches; Climate: School and Classroom; Impulse Control; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; Reflective Practice; Relationship-Based Approaches to Classroom Management; Warmth and Classroom Management

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MONITORING

When the term *monitoring* is used in an educational context, it often refers to watching over students to ensure safety, as in having a neighboring teacher watch the class for a moment during a run to the restroom, or an adult watching over students getting on buses. Or, in today's politicized *educational accountability* environment, it may also refer to a clinical system of assessments given over time to *monitor* student achievement. In this context, the intent is to demonstrate the progress of students (and sometimes, rightly or wrongly, the progress of teachers and schools) in a skill-driven environment by means of diagnostic tests.

There is, however, a third meaning of monitoring. This third meaning of monitoring refers to moments when teachers monitor in order to support students' learning; that is, to the practice of *monitoring for learning*. It is this definition, as opposed to the layman's or policymaker's, that is worth unpacking in the study of effective teaching practice. It is this third meaning that is the primary focus of this entry.

Monitoring for Learning

When people think of the act of teaching, what frequently comes to mind is the image of the teacher, in front of the classroom, demonstrating an experiment, delivering a lecture, facilitating a discussion, or otherwise taking the lead role in the learning experience. However, what practicing teachers often realize is that much of the learning takes place when the teacher is playing a more passive role—by watching students discuss, question, and, in general, think. Admittedly, appreciating the benefits of this kind of monitoring requires a philosophy of learning that true understanding is *constructed* by students themselves—through guided experience rather than through hearing someone else trying to disseminate or transmit their knowledge. And as such, students need to wrestle with their ideas, formulate questions, explore concepts, debate perspectives, and consider alternatives in order to truly *learn*. In the absence of this philosophy, monitoring as part of teaching has a very limited role; however, in its presence is a crucial and perennially undervalued component.

Given this framework, monitoring for learning occurs whenever the teacher engages his or her senses to observe the goings-on during times when students are working, in order to enhance the learning process in the moment or inform the teacher about what critical moves to make in the future. During this student work time, whether it be individual brainstorming or group work, the teacher has several important jobs to do in order to raise the probability of maximum understanding for the most students. Furthermore, during monitoring, the teacher operates on different levels—making monitoring for learning a subtle and complex process.

The Complexity of Monitoring for Learning

At the basal level during this time, teachers monitor to ensure safety and order: making sure no pencils are thrown, no harsh words are exchanged, and no illegal behaviors are occurring. This is assumed to be obvious and true for all adult monitoring taking place in schools, but is worth mentioning. At the next level,

teachers are also monitoring for students who may have strayed off task or who could use gentle redirecting. Proximity is one defining feature of this level, as are other interventions used to motivate student engagement. Additionally, other in-the-moment moves are utilized to enhance the effectiveness of the work time, such as encouraging interaction between groups, offering feedback on an idea so students may take it further, and noticing whether a student or group has misinterpreted directions and needs some clarification.

Quite often, monitoring for safety and order (level one) and monitoring to keep students on task are assumed to be the full story with regard to a teacher's responsibilities during student work time. However, true monitoring for learning has a third layer that is useful for informing the teacher about how to best support ongoing learning. Truly, it is at this third level that the *art* of a teaching professional becomes evident. It is here that many little decisions are made—in quick succession—that determine the direction and success of students' learning experience. It is here where a lack of deep content knowledge and pedagogical sophistication will show itself and, thus, is critical for examination in finer detail.

At this third level, monitoring has several key components. First, on top of other responsibilities, a teacher engaged at this level of monitoring for learning is on the lookout for student ideas, conjectures, hypotheses, or theses. He or she is also actively listening for student ideas and questions, in addition to observing for issues that students have. Additionally, a teacher may be employing questioning tactics with a purpose beyond engaging students, which is actually intended to push their thinking beyond its current state.

As such third-level monitoring is occurring, often in real time, the teacher is taking in what is seen and heard and formulating a plan, with the goals of the lesson, unit, and course in mind. One purpose of listening for student ideas (whether they be thoughts about, for example, why the United States should or should not have used the atomic bomb in World War II, opinions on the motivation of a central literary character's action, or a conjecture about the graph shape of a third-degree polynomial) is to actually *listen* to what ideas that particular class has.

It is not uncommon for teachers, especially those who have taught a course a few times, to project other students' thinking from the past onto the unique individuals in front of them. However, teachers can utilize student work time to move about and eavesdrop on group conversations or peer over shoulders at work being done. This way, a full survey can be done of what this particular group of students is thinking and wondering about. As a result, the lesson as it progresses can

respond to the group's unique or special ways of thinking, and not to some third party's ideas that may not be interesting or useful to the students at that time.

Another purpose for listening carefully to students' ideas as they work is to become aware of misconceptions students may have. These misconceptions (and the conclusions they reach based on them) present occasions for learning, and being caught off guard with one misconception can break the flow of the class, or worse, waste valuable class time. Perhaps most painfully, being underprepared for a misconception can lead to a missed opportunity for a genuine learning experience, and a teachable moment is lost.

Seeing misconceptions early, while students are working, gives teachers time to think carefully about what to do. Is it a misconception that one student has, or is it shared by many? What are the long-term implications of this misconception? What sort of experience or question could challenge the misconception, and when is the best time and occasion to bring up the misconception? Are there other groups or other students that have contrasting ideas? This is not the time to correct students, but a time to listen and ask students for clarification on their thinking and why they think as they do.

Additionally, listening and observing what the students are doing as they work allows the teacher to consider the order of ideas to be presented or shared. Based on the way the class has been going, it may be advantageous to start with a counterexample or unpopular/uncommon opinion; or it may be wiser to save these for the end. Are groups using similar strategies or coming to similar conclusions with different assumptions? Maybe having presentations that go from less complexity to more sophistication is wise for this particular content. Other times, honoring particular students and giving them the opportunity to share or present at a particular time has an important social consideration.

To complicate matters more, ordering often gets adjusted and reconsidered as new information comes in during the monitoring process. Ultimately, there is no right or wrong to the choices made; but it is important that teachers think carefully and have a rationale for their choices with regard to ordering.

A final point to consider while monitoring for learning is that doing so creates a bank of student work to pull from, work that can inform decisions related to ensuing class discussions. For example, when questioning a student or trying to pull a reluctant student into the discussion, teachers can reference the work that the student was doing, giving him or her an entry point to the conversation. Using the student's own work and thinking also sends a message to the entire class that the teacher is interested in and values the thinking that they do, increasing the likelihood of their putting forth

the time and effort necessary to learn. Often, a student will offer an incorrect idea that goes unchallenged by his or her peers. The teacher may take such silence as tacit agreement or feel compelled to step in, thereby lowering the chances that students will participate further in the future, knowing that if they just wait it out, the teacher will *give* the right answer. If instead, teachers already know what ideas have been worked on, saying something like "Well, Jackson, I noticed you were thinking something different—what did you put down?" can keep the discussion moving and open it up to debate.

Considerations of Proximity

One side benefit of mingling with students as they work is that a teacher's presence may be reassuring to those with low confidence. However, the opposite effect can be a significant drawback; at times, monitoring can also mean deciding when to be *unavailable*. For teachers working on academic habits of mind, being too close to students may enable behaviors that undermine perseverance and self-reliance. For instance, students who are too quick to appeal to the teacher cheat themselves out of the opportunity to experience the true act of learning—considering ideas, formulating a plan, evaluating alternatives, hitting dead ends, deciding what is *right* or *good enough*, and so on. In such cases, it would be actually more beneficial for the teacher to put himself or herself out of range, so the onus of making these decisions is not shifted too easily away from the students. So an interesting dilemma presents itself; namely, how to be far enough away to avoid being too accessible and yet simultaneously close enough to listen to ideas, notice misconceptions, and take a survey of students' work. Like most dilemmas related to teaching, finding the right balance will differ at different times with different groups.

Considerations of Timing

As students work in groups or individually, they may be creating works of art, analyzing literature, looking for patterns, creating arguments, researching topics, or designing experiments. The teacher is ensuring physical and emotional safety, reexplaining directions, listening, noticing, asking clarifying questions, taking mental (or actual) notes, and strategically moving toward and away from students. And at some point, the teacher has to make the call when to transition out of this time.

Because students work at different paces or happen to have had the spark earlier than other classmates, a subset of the class will begin to finish their task before the rest. A monitoring teacher will know this and will also have a sense of where other groups or students

are in the process. It is a rare occurrence that there is a small deviation in timing for task completion, and so it is highly likely at this time that there is still part of the class at the crucial point in the task, and a third smaller subset in the early or introductory stages still. This creates a very interesting dynamic of how to keep the working environment productive.

When does the teacher make the call that it is time to move on—when everyone has had enough time to engage and complete the task? But in the case of waiting until everyone has time to complete the task, what can be done with those who are *finished* before the others and, in their rush to finish, have not done enough that is of true educational value? Or, perhaps the teacher makes the call earlier, when all but a few are done—in which case, how many are a few? Two? Twenty percent? A third? What impact will it have on them to move on without being completed with the task, both for the content goals and for their emotional state? In an ideal case, the norms of the classroom involve classmates feeling responsible for everyone's success, and the majority of work is collaborative; therefore, students who finish early may be available for offering feedback or sharing ideas with those who are having trouble making progress. In that way, they are extending their learning, getting the third subset on board, and providing time for the middle group to complete the task while everyone is engaged and maintaining a productive environment.

Conclusion

Monitoring students, when completely attended to, has the potential to enhance the educational opportunities for students in addition to providing for their safety and simply setting up the opportunity for possible learning. With careful consideration, the probability for true learning can be deliberately raised by engaging in teaching practices that take advantage of the opportunities that arise while monitoring for learning.

Craig Huhn

See also Assessment of Students; Constructivist Approaches; Educational Reform and Teacher Effectiveness; Kounin, Jacob; Progressive Education; Proximity: Meaning and Uses; Screening and Monitoring for Academic Success; Teaching as Researching

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MONTESSORI AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

The Montessori philosophy or *method*, as educator Maria Montessori herself characterized her work, has evolved into a global network of schools for children from infant/toddler programs through high school. In Montessori schools, the relationship among the classroom environment, children, and teachers is the basis for learning. The classroom is also referred to as the *prepared environment* and is set up in discrete content areas so that children can make choices based on their particular interests, have free access to materials, be engaged in long periods of choice time, with the teacher's role being limited to observing and guiding the child. In Montessori classrooms, the environment and the routines established within it contribute to children's self-regulation and a sense of accomplishment.

Following a brief history of Maria Montessori and the emergence of her philosophy and methodology, this entry discusses key aspects of Montessori education as related to children's movement and behaviors in the classroom. Mixed ages, children's sense of order, the didactic materials, the prepared environment and Montessori esthetic, and work cycle and choice evoke the Montessori sensibility, many aspects of which are present in both Montessori and non-Montessori classrooms around the world.

A Brief History of Montessori Education

Maria Montessori (1870–1952) was one of the first woman physicians in Italy. Her 10 years of work after

graduation from medical school was with children deemed *deficient*. She became interested in working with children who had what we might now call developmental delays and who were often institutionalized. Influenced by the work of French physicians and educators Jean Itard and Édouard Séguin, Montessori adapted some of their methods and materials to the development of her own didactic materials, finding that the children, previously deemed unteachable, were able to learn. Ever the scientist, she wondered how her emerging methods might work with children who were developing typically, and in 1906, she was invited to apply her methods to typically developing children. She opened her first school in one of the poorest neighborhoods in Rome, providing a place to learn and grow for children who were otherwise in the streets during the day.

The school was called the Casa dei Bambini or Children's House (names still in use at many Montessori schools), and this name was chosen very intentionally. The furnishings and materials were to imitate what a child might see in the home, but proportioned for a child and appealing to a child's need for order and calm, a need that might not be met in a child's home of origin. One of Montessori's hallmarks is the advent of child-sized furniture. She used words like *tidy*, *calm*, and *dignified* to describe the classroom and felt these aspects were needed so that the child could engage in intellectual work. Her work led her to Italy, Denmark, England, Spain, India (where she was interned during World War II), and subsequently the United States. Followers of her work included Rabindranath Tagore, Anna Freud, Alexander Graham Bell and his wife Mabel Hubbard, Erik Erikson, and Jean Piaget.

Mixed-Age Classrooms

Montessori classrooms are usually composed of children of mixed ages in 3-year increments, 0–3, 3–6, 6–9, 9–12, 12–15, and 15–18 years of age. This was Montessori's reaction to the individualistic norms of participation in Italian schools, wherein children were isolated in single-age groupings. In Montessori's classrooms, children stay in the same classroom with the same teacher for a 3-year cycle, forming strong relationships with peers and teachers and thereby reducing the stress associated with the conventional transition to new environments, routines, and teachers each year. In mixed-age classrooms, children also benefit from observing and modeling. Younger children can see how materials are used and learn the norms of behavior for a classroom. Older children also experience being a model or teacher to younger children, demonstrating activities and materials. Mixed ages also foster a more balanced peer community in which all the children are

not experiencing the same developmental shifts at the same time.

Internal Sense of Order

As part of the development of her approach, Montessori observed children, paying attention to what she felt was a natural sense of order in children's movements, choices of activity, and social-emotional lives. Montessori noticed that children had a preference for certain materials and tended to create order out of these materials. Montessori designed and displayed materials in a color-coordinated manner, trays matching bowls, matching other materials—allowing a child to easily see what is before him or her and to see the patterns and categories of materials in the room. This also helped children to identify what they wanted to work with and where it belonged in the classroom. Each set of materials in a Montessori classroom is arranged in its own area of the room with each material in a specific place on its own shelf so children know exactly where to find it and where to return it.

Montessori saw order in the environment as a basic human need that could combat children's stress and instill a sense of calm. In fact, she found that children returned to materials that were simple, clean, and could be accessed and their use repeated by the child. Montessori noticed that children had a natural desire to repeat activities over and over in order to meet an internal need, and that this repetition led to the internalization of concepts and a kind of psychological, physical, and intellectual centering that supported self-control and confidence.

Didactic Materials

Montessori developed materials to support learning of particular concepts and content. The materials are all made available so that an older child can practice with a more advanced material and a younger child can choose from myriad introductory exercises. The materials are organized into the following broad categories: Practical Life or Everyday Living, Sensorial (materials for the discrimination of sensory concepts related to size and shape, color, texture, taste, sound, and visual discrimination), Math (with a focus on number sense, geometry, place value, and operations), Language (phonetic approach, handwriting, and fiction and nonfiction writing), Geography, and Cultural Studies. The Sciences, Music, and Art are also covered. The Practical Life or Everyday Living materials differ the most from traditional classroom offerings and warrant further description (see below).

Materials are chosen freely by children, taken to tables or a mat on the floor, and returned to shelves once the children are finished using them. However, children generally are required to have a lesson on an exercise before it becomes part of their repertoire of regularly chosen endeavors. The materials are introduced to children in individual, small-group, and large-group lessons or presentations. Influenced by the step-by-step practices of Itard and Séguin, Montessori developed a carefully prescribed method of demonstrating materials, first inviting the child, often wordlessly demonstrating the material, offering the child the opportunity to try the material, and then putting the material back in its place.

Practical Life or Everyday Living

The Practical Life or Everyday Living materials and exercises are among the most customizable and are often made or compiled by the teacher. These materials and exercises fall into categories such as care of the environment, care of the person, control of movement, and grace and courtesy. Some exercises are meant to introduce children to the basics of classroom navigation—carrying a chair or mat, pushing in a chair, or putting away materials. Others are directly related to caring for the environment—washing tables, caring for plants, washing dishes, polishing, food preparation, and sweeping. Care of the person and others in the environment is paramount. Children regularly prepare food for each other, cutting up carrots or apples and serving them to fellow students or engaging in more complex cycles of activity in the older grades such as harvesting vegetables planted by students and preparing food from this harvest. Activities such as spooning, working with eyedroppers, using pegboards, and using tongs or tweezers to transfer objects from one bowl to another help develop fine motor ability and hand–eye coordination, in addition to fostering powers of concentration.

Lessons on grace and courtesy encourage prosocial interactions among peers and between children and adults. For example, children learn how to politely interrupt, how to greet each other, how to offer help, and how to shake hands. The Practical Life exercises support the development behaviors in the physical, intellectual, and social domains and as such also support children's overall ability to self-regulate.

The Prepared Environment: Fostering Independence, Minimizing Distraction

Montessori wanted the objects in the classroom to be taken up by children as they sought to meet their own needs. As such, the environment is arranged carefully so that children can function in it as independently of the

teacher as possible. Montessori referred to this concept as the *prepared environment*.

The prepared environment also denotes the equipment, books, apparatus, toys, games played, furnishings, décor, and overall room layout. Environments, be they home, a workplace, or places for leisure activity, affect the way we feel, think, and learn. However, many do not consider the link between school classrooms and how their preparation influences children's ability to work, play, and manage behavior.

Montessori classrooms often eschew catalogue decorations in favor of simple framed prints or cultural artifacts. There is a minimalist aspect to the overall décor. The Montessori esthetic also includes plants, lots of light, and uncluttered spaces. Environments may be adorned with artwork that might stimulate a child's thinking, reflect his or her environment, or simply provide something interesting to look at.

Although the didactic materials Montessori developed have remained consistent in design for over 100 years, their esthetic is neutral enough to blend in with a classroom whose décor could reflect a given population or location. Children can appreciate and thrive in an environment that evokes beauty, order, and interesting content. Some Montessori environments exclude décor that teachers deem distracting, which has led to some Montessori classrooms being perceived as sterile and overly focused on the Montessori materials.

In addition to child-sized furniture, Montessori called for the abolition of desks and furniture bolted to the floor. Furniture, especially tables, should be easy for children to move so they can work together or work alone, depending on their needs. Work spaces tend to be for individuals, pairs, or very small groups, with a mixture of options throughout the classroom.

Despite current interpretations of the Montessori method as cultivating only individual pursuits by children, Montessori actually advocated for children being free to collaborate and develop a sense of community. She believed that children should be able to choose to work together or independently and that the structure of the classroom and its furnishings and materials should allow for both.

The spirit of the Montessori philosophy is for teachers to make esthetic choices that reflect the children they teach and to prepare an environment in which the organization of materials and furnishings promotes simplicity, beauty, access to materials, and community feeling.

Work Cycle and Choice: Autonomy Leads to Regulation

Choice in the Montessori philosophy means something very different from that in contemporary classrooms.

Typical classrooms often have children working at *centers* set up by teachers for specific activities, or children may move from one activity to another as dictated by a teacher. A Montessori classroom would not limit children to specific centers, but rather children can choose from dozens of activities within each area of the room and move to another exercise when they choose to do so. The materials are available to children during long periods of uninterrupted time, often up to 2 or even 3 hours.

The beginning of a given school year tends to focus on routines so that children build up a repertoire of materials from which to choose but also develop the autonomy and independence to make these choices without constant teacher direction. When this autonomy is achieved in a classroom, Montessori termed it *normalization*—the moments when things are humming along, children are working, and the teacher is free to move about the classroom to guide and assist when needed. This kind of autonomy, given to children through the materials offered and the time span for activity, builds a sense of trust among children toward their environment and the teacher, leading to increased self-regulation in learning.

Lisa Kuh

See also Climate: School and Classroom; Curriculum and Classroom Management; Early Childhood Education and Classroom Management; Kindergarten and Classroom Management; Progressive Education; Self-Management; Self-Regulated Learning

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MORAL DEVELOPMENT THEORIES

Moral development is a process in which conceptions of right and wrong take root and grow over time. It begins long before children enter the classroom and continues long after they leave. Morality develops in conjunction with and is a function of cognitive, social, and emotional growth.

As children advance by grade, their ability to reason, judge, interpret, apply, and evaluate information grows. These cognitive enhancements in the form of diverse perspectives facilitate higher levels of moral reasoning. Depending on their level of development, individuals derive an understanding of right and wrong from peer interaction and observation, often taking moral cues from the expectations and guidelines of an overarching social structure.

Moral emotions, including guilt, shame, and empathy, constitute another important aspect of moral development. They are often evoked during moments of moral significance, and when elicited, they serve as guideposts in the moral decision-making process.

The interplay between the cognitive, social, and emotional dimensions of morality contributes to moral understanding and often to moral behavior. As children and adolescents grow morally, they become capable of governing themselves according to good values, concern, and understanding for others, and their behavior comes to reflect much of what we hope for in our students in classrooms. Accordingly, it is impossible to talk comprehensively about classroom management without talking about moral development. The following sections discuss some of the leading moral development theories and their important implications for classroom management.

Kohlberg's Theory of Moral Reasoning

Lawrence Kohlberg (1927–1987) made a significant contribution to the study of moral development. Influenced by the Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget's formulation and interpretation of cognitive development, Kohlberg's theory rests on the belief that children's moral reasoning, judgments, and appraisals of what constitutes right and wrong develop over time. This gradual, continuous change begins with children reasoning that right behavior produces maximum rewards and minimal punishment from authority figures. As reasoning grows, conceptions of morality take the form of fair interpersonal exchange characterized by questions such as *how will I benefit?* or *what will I gain?* As children mature into adolescents and adults, reasons for behaving morally expand beyond the self. Family, school, and community roles are assumed and individuals begin to view themselves as part of a

larger society. Finally, for some adults, moral reasoning continues to expand and begins to emphasize autonomy, justice, equality, and universal human rights.

From theory to practice, Kohlberg's conception of moral development finds its clearest application in what has been called a just community. In 1975, Kohlberg and colleagues collaborated with a high school in Cambridge, Massachusetts, in an effort to establish an experimental just community. Essentially, the purpose of this initiative was to foster moral development by creating an atmosphere conducive to a moral community, espousing principles such as justice, mutual trust, and respect among teachers and students. For example, students and teachers together held weekly meetings to establish expectations about rules and norms and to discuss moral issues, such as stealing and cheating. In this way, a just community approach attempted to close the gap between moral reasoning and moral action. Multiple researchers concluded that students felt a greater sense of awareness and responsibility to act morally because they felt a part of something greater than themselves.

Broader Implications of a Classroom Community

When students and teachers transform a classroom into a community, they tend to converge on common goals. Teachers who exert less control do not need to employ elaborate systems of rewards and punishments for collaborative efforts to materialize. On the contrary, using rewards and punishments can have a negative impact in that they may pit students against each other in pursuit of a reward or the avoidance of punishment. All too often, such an approach disintegrates the natural bond between students and teachers. When this occurs, it is harder to build and maintain positive relationships, which are the crux of a moral community.

To form a classroom community, teachers are encouraged to relinquish a portion of their power as a means of establishing trust, respect, and care with students. As a portion of classroom management, responsibility transfers from teacher to students and rules become less like external impositions and more like reciprocal agreements. Children are more likely to adhere to the rules they themselves make. Less micromanagement is needed because students value and respect each other and their membership in the school community. Finally, when children feel the security of having their needs met, they are more apt to thrive academically.

A Judicious Discipline Approach

Pioneered by educator Forrest Gathercoal (1932–2012), judicious discipline emphasizes the need for schools and

classrooms to function like a community. However, unlike a just community approach, classrooms guided by judicious discipline use the U.S. Constitution as a framework for governing and maintaining interactions between community members. Specifically, the Constitution serves as a bridge between the school and the society at large. Classroom management is guided by the idea that students are entitled to freedom, justice, and equality. These three virtues direct teachers' responses to behavioral management issues, such as when students infringe upon or interfere with the rights of another. In these cases, students are prompted to discuss the intersection of individual rights and collective responsibility. This allows students to participate in a democratic form of governance.

Within a judicious discipline framework, the only thing that differentiates teachers from students is control over the curriculum. That exception aside, teachers act as facilitators when behavioral issues arise. For example, when an altercation takes place between students, a teacher's role is not to apportion punishment but to take advantage of an educational opportunity. This opportunity can be as simple as interviewing students to ascertain their perspective, motives, and intentions. When students feel listened to and supported, they are more apt to consider their role in the conflict, as opposed to feeling misrepresented or unjustly dealt with. These moments also provide opportunities for meaningful conflict resolution, with the teacher acting as the mediator. In more mature classes, however, peer mediation may be more instructive and meaningful. In sum, teachers who intentionally engage students in ideas that invite them to grapple with (as opposed to against) each other in constructive dialogue will, in the words of philosopher and educator John Dewey—"find every incident of school life pregnant with moral possibilities" (1909, p. 58).

An underlying assumption of this approach is that students perform better academically and behaviorally when they take part in how their classroom is run. Students become more engaged because they feel they are a part of an interdependent team, which makes it more likely that they will regulate their own behavior and resolve their own conflicts. It should be noted that Gathercoal did not intend for judicious discipline to be applied without the support of other complementary methods such as collaborative or cooperative learning.

Domain Theory

From a different perspective but with similar outcome, domain theorists make a clear distinction between morality and social conventions. In a classroom context, matters of morality center on the consequences or

effects actions have on the welfare of others. Matters pertaining to social convention include staying in line or raising one's hand prior to being called upon to speak. Both moral and social conventions represent important aspects of classroom management. Studies reveal that students evaluate their teachers as more knowledgeable and their performance as more effective if they distinguish behaviors in the moral domain from behaviors in the social convention domain.

Let us offer two examples to illustrate this point: Imagine a group of students neglecting to turn their homework into the proper basket. This *problem* is a matter of social convention. It is recommended that teachers not respond as if it were a moral transgression, evident in emotions such as anger, emotional withdrawal, or anything fear-inducing. Second, if a student resorts to hitting, scratching, or biting, it is suggested that teachers utilize statements or questions such as "Billy, how do you think that made Cindy feel when you scratched her?" or "It looks like you really hurt Cindy by scratching her." These responses evoke feelings in the moral domain. In short, teacher's responses need to be domain appropriate. More important, however, is the caution to teachers not to funnel all classroom management issues into the moral domain lest discussions of moral issues become futile.

Further, eliminating inessential prohibitions may dial down disputes by making the classroom climate less restrictive, allowing for more time to instruct and interact. To illustrate this point, imagine how much time a teacher could spend enforcing rules such as no getting out of your seat without permission, or no talking (at the expense of constructive collaboration); or insisting that there is only a single *right* way to complete a task, when in reality the method is a matter of preference. Admittedly, sometimes circumstance demands the implementation of these rules. The point is to be cognizant of the purpose behind the rules implemented. In general, rules that are difficult to monitor and enforce deserve attention to ensure that the process is worth the effort. Minimizing classroom rules to the essentials frees up time for teachers to teach and for students to learn.

Service Learning Approach

Up to this point, our focus has been on moral matters related to classroom dynamics. As viable as these perspectives can be, the development of a moral community inside the classroom may be unsustainable without opportunities to connect to a larger community outside the classroom. Service learning is a response to this need.

Service learning is distinct from community service to the extent that in addition to the benefits to the community it also promotes academic engagement and

fulfills learning objectives. For example, high school students may be assigned to collaboratively identify, investigate, and propose a solution—verbal and written—to a relevant and meaningful community issue of personal interest and concern. This would fulfill a number of educational objectives, outcomes, and skills such as critical thinking, problem solving, decision making, and reflection. As such, it integrates curriculum with civic engagement. In addition to its role in curriculum development and implementation, it can also serve as a teaching strategy in that it bridges the theoretical with the practical. As abstract knowledge transitions into practice, students are encouraged to reflect individually and collaboratively on their learning experiences; this often leads to intrapersonal and interpersonal growth. Because of the constant interplay between learning objectives and community involvement, neither teaching time nor academic rigor is compromised. Again, service learning is not an addition to the curriculum but a supplement interspersed throughout it.

Service learning is associated with a number of educational outcomes. These outcomes can have a significant impact on classroom management—directly and indirectly. Research has shown that service learning not only helps foster the moral growth and personal values of youth but also significantly increases class participation, learning, and course grades. Furthermore, a byproduct of academic and community involvement is a decrease in absenteeism. Service learning participants report higher scores in math and science achievement and are less susceptible to course failure. Moreover, homework completion among middle school participants has been found to increase and higher scores in social studies have been achieved. Service learning can also be implemented as a preventive measure in that it helps dispel stereotypes and prejudice. When benefits are combined, service learning promotes positive youth development—behaviorally, socially, and academically.

Care Theory

In contrast to Kohlberg's theory, which emphasizes the contribution of moral reasoning to moral development, a care approach views social sensitivity and connectedness as vehicles to enhance moral dispositions and create optimal learning environments. This approach to classroom management stresses caring about people and connecting with people through active listening, sympathy, and conscientiousness. The cultivation of care as a capacity to attend to the needs of others reduces students' insecurities and vulnerabilities. Because of this, students are able to invest more time and energy toward academic success. Care theory not only serves as a viable pathway to moral development

but also as an important alternative to traditional approaches to classroom management.

Youth Purpose

Another approach to encouraging positive, motivated behavior in the classroom is to foster in students a strong sense of purpose in life. Purpose represents an enduring intention to accomplish something that is at once meaningful to the self and at the same time leads to productive engagement with some aspect of the world beyond the self. Purposes typically emerge when young people discover ways of applying their particular skills and talents to fill personally meaningful social needs, and youth with purpose are likely to require less managing in the classroom.

One reason for this is that youth who are guided by purpose tend to be highly motivated students. Emerging research suggests that purpose is associated with increased levels of efficacy and academic achievement. This is likely the case because young people who have a goal to which they aspire and who can connect that goal to their classroom learning are likely to be more motivated. Further, youth with purpose are likely to report that school is more relevant, because for them school is a means to a personally significant long-term goal. Older youth who hold educational purposes, or well-defined and realistic career goals, are more likely to see how their schoolwork matters and to report that their schoolwork is more meaningful. All of this suggests that fostering purpose in the classroom is likely to yield motivated and engaged students who require less cajoling and encouraging from teachers.

While a long-term approach to fostering purpose is likely to engender a more enduring commitment, even relatively brief interventions in academic settings have been found to increase levels of purpose among students. To intentionally and effectively foster purpose, teachers can discuss the topic of purpose in the classroom. One way to do this is for teachers to share with students what inspires them as teachers, that is, what helps give them a sense of purpose. These kinds of conversations encourage students to consider their own aspirations and emerging sense of purpose.

Another way is to infuse the classroom curriculum with purpose-fostering opportunities. For instance, an English teacher might encourage students to read novels that feature heroes and heroines who lead inspiring lives of purpose. Another effective step is to discuss with students the larger purpose of education. Explaining why algebra and English literature are worth learning helps students reflect on larger academic purposes in general and on their own purposes in particular. Fostering purpose in the classroom requires a commitment on the

part of teachers, but it is worthwhile to the extent that it is likely to support students' psychological well-being and lead to fewer behavior and motivational issues in the classroom.

Conclusion

Theories and frameworks of moral development offer rich insight and clear direction on how classrooms can be transformed into communities of learners. The overarching theme of moral development as it relates to classroom management is establishing a climate that is conducive to meaningful interaction, constructive dialogue, mutual trust, and service opportunities that connect academic pursuits to community engagement. As these elements converge, students will be driven to contribute to a purpose that extends beyond independent goals and individual pursuits. In this way, how a teacher conducts matters related to classroom management represents an important moral endeavor.

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See also Caring Approaches; Class Meetings; Constructivist Approaches; Democratic Meetings; Democratic Practices in Classrooms and Schools; Discipline Codes of Conduct; Kohlberg, Lawrence; Quaker Education and Classroom Management

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MOTIVATING STUDENTS

Ben sits in his reading group pouting. Ben is a struggling reader who is poised to enter the third grade; however, he possesses literacy skills equivalent only to those of a first grader. He is attending a summer program designed to remediate his weaknesses, and needless to say, he is unhappy about it. As a result, Ben engages in several disruptive behaviors to avoid reading tasks, including interrupting the teacher, distracting other students, and complaining about a variety of ailments. He is only motivated to read or write when there is a reward attached to the task, and his teachers describe Ben as having a big bravado and a poor attitude.

For decades, educators have pondered the type of pedagogical alchemy that will unlock the potential of students like Ben. Standing at the front of a classroom looking out on a sea of expectant faces, most teachers are judicious to employ language that will spur their students to action, but concocting the perfect motivational elixir is a challenging task.

Educators are under significant pressure not only to ensure academic success but also to maintain orderly, positive classroom communities. Unmotivated students with learning challenges, therefore, present significant challenges because they not only struggle to efficiently process information; they also can be disruptive to their classmates. Ben's negative attitude about learning can quickly pervade the affect of his classmates who are easily convinced to laugh at his jokes rather than focus on the task at hand. As his teachers work to motivate Ben, they struggle to select the best approach.

Motivational strategies typically fall into one of two categories depending on which kind of motivation they are intended to support: *intrinsic motivation* or *extrinsic motivation*. Students are considered intrinsically or internally motivated when they have either internalized the value of the task and understand its role in their larger goals or find the assignment personally interesting. Pedagogical strategies that foster intrinsic motivation attend to individuals' innate needs to feel *autonomous*, *socially connected*, *competent*, and make *meaning* out of their learning experiences.

In contrast, extrinsic motivation refers to behavior that is a response to environmental or external influences. These influences can be *enticements*, such as stickers, money, or prizes, or *deterrents*, such as negative consequences for inappropriate behavior. When students are extrinsically motivated, they typically do not demonstrate a personal interest in the task nor do they value the exercise in terms of their larger goals.

Intrinsic and extrinsic types of motivation are each associated with a unique set of research findings that support their effectiveness but also illuminate potential challenges or consequences. This entry will discuss intrinsic and extrinsic motivational strategies and provide specific examples of strategies that can be integrated into the classroom.

Strategies for Developing Students' Intrinsic Motivation

Several decades of research have established an unequivocal link between intrinsic motivation and positive learning outcomes. Students who demonstrate high levels of intrinsic motivation engage in several beneficial achievement behaviors including willingness to attempt challenging tasks, increased effort and persistence in the face of a challenge, and autonomous strategy use. Intrinsic motivation has also been associated with greater comprehension and achievement. The single motivational characteristic that dictates the degree to which children are intrinsically motivated is the extent to which they *value* a particular task, and as mentioned earlier, tasks are more valuable when they satisfy four innate needs: (1) the need for autonomy, (2) the need for belonging, (3) the need for competence, and (4) the need for meaning.

Strategies That Offer Autonomy

As students work to acquire new knowledge, they have an innate desire for control over their individual learning processes, and classrooms can fulfill students' need for autonomy by offering *choice*, validating their *opinions*, and supporting their *personal goals*. In these settings, a sense of ownership and personal investment is fostered, and as a result, students often display a greater number of achievement behaviors and increased learning, as compared with the students of controlling teachers. Classrooms that are supportive of autonomy have also been found to support the learning of low-achieving students. Observations of literacy instruction in second- and third-grade classrooms demonstrated that teachers who offered their students choices of literacy activities and involved them in evaluations of their own and others' work could find improved attitudes toward learning.

Even low-achieving students reported high levels of efficacy for learning and did not shy away from challenging tasks. These findings were contrasted with students' motivational beliefs in classrooms wherein work was characterized as procedural, discrete, and rigid. Low-achieving students in these classrooms were observed avoiding challenging tasks, as well as communicating perceptions of low ability and low efficacy for learning.

Recall Ben, the third grader who showed no interest in reading. Ben's teachers decided to employ several autonomy-supportive strategies in order to foster his motivation and develop his reading skills. First, they aided Ben in creating individualized, reading-related goals, and devoted a portion of their instructional time toward helping him achieve his goal of reading a comic book. Second, rather than using prescribed worksheets, they provided him with choices for demonstrating knowledge. Sometimes these choices consisted of skill-building centers, each stocked with manipulatives (i.e., letter stamps, letter beads, or letter tiles) that provided different ways of practicing basic literacy concepts. Other times, a choice of text or research topic was provided. Choice was also an important factor in encouraging Ben to change his behavior in the classroom.

Together with his teachers, Ben identified three positive behaviors to focus on each day (raising his hand, independently initiating a task, and making comments that were *on topic*). Every morning Ben would identify two of his behaviors on which to focus and, at the end of the lesson, he would meet with his teachers to discuss his progress. These strategies provided Ben with ownership and independence in his learning, and his teachers reported greater productivity and cooperation as a result.

Despite the positive effects of autonomy-supportive environments on students' motivation, practitioners report limited use of strategies to promote autonomy in reading instruction. There is a common assumption among educators that offering students freedom in task choice will result in a lack of productivity. Many teachers adopt a controlling approach out of fear that sharing control will lead to off-task behaviors. However, several examinations of teachers' efforts in the classroom have demonstrated that practitioners can adopt strategies considered autonomy-supportive, and when they do so, students demonstrate greater engagement, intellectual curiosity, and a willingness to attempt challenges. Furthermore, the promotion of autonomy-supportive instruction is not to the exclusion of setting limits. Rather, an autonomy-supportive environment supports student choice, welcomes student perspectives (even those with negative affect), and provides explanatory rationales for assignments, while minimizing the need to perform in a prescribed manner.

Strategies That Foster Belonging

Intrinsic forms of motivation are frequently found among students who have positive relationships with their teacher and their classmates. Many educators acknowledge the role that a strong interpersonal relationship plays in eliciting effort and engagement, and students who feel more connected to and cared for by their teachers demonstrate better self-regulation in academic settings.

In order to develop a positive relationship, many educators spend time getting to know their students. Ben's teachers were no exception. They knew that Ben loved sports and decided to use a *team* metaphor to help him understand several important concepts. The teachers likened their job to that of basketball coaches in that they guide their students toward positive behaviors that will aid them in achieving their goals. In order to make the metaphor concrete for Ben, his teachers introduced a picture of his favorite basketball team and superimposed photos of Ben, his classmates, and his teachers. Ben's teachers also engaged the class in daily activities that were designed to facilitate the development of a community of learners. These activities included dedicated time to personal sharing, encouraging peer-to-peer compliments in a game called *Catch a Partner Doing Something Good*, acknowledging compassionate and supportive behaviors, and collaborating with the students to develop a *Class Constitution* that outlined five agreed-upon rules of conduct.

Some teachers might be concerned that team-building exercises detract from the time allotted to academic skill building. Yet group affiliation has been found to have a strong and positive impact on students' motivation and learning outcomes. When instruction is offered in a small group, a community of learners can develop, and perceptions of a group identity, complete with shared goals, have a positive impact on the achievement outcomes of its members.

Strategies That Develop Competence

The importance of competency in motivation cannot be overstated. Building skills is often the primary focus of instruction, and although it is not the solitary precursor to intrinsic motivation, it makes a significant contribution. Perceptions of competency are probably the most widely researched topic in the field of motivation. In particular, Albert Bandura's theory of self-efficacy gained prominence for its ability to explain how an individual's judgments of his or her competency lead to activity selection, effort, and persistence. The notion of competence is also central to the distinction between the types of behaviors students demonstrate in academic

settings. Students who pursue opportunities to *develop their competence* are referred to as learning goal-oriented because they look for chances to grow their abilities, whereas students who pursue opportunities to *demonstrate their competence* are characterized as performance goal-oriented because their focus is on managing the impression that others have of their ability. Performance-oriented students will often avoid challenging tasks in order to preserve the impression of high ability, and as a result, they tend to sacrifice learning opportunities out of fear that they may reveal their weaknesses.

In order to emphasize the importance of developing competence in a learning environment, Ben's teachers used three strategies: (1) they provided him with a concrete metaphor for understanding the importance of challenges in the learning process; (2) they offered regular exposure to challenging tasks; and (3) they reinforced positive behavior with feedback that was process-based and emphasized his actions rather than his traits.

To help Ben understand the importance of challenges in the learning process, his teachers utilized a weight-lifting metaphor. They explained that similar to developing your muscles through physical challenges (the use of hand weights), reading muscles need to strengthen by stretching them with tough literacy activities. His teachers provided Ben with brief reading challenges that were slightly above his instructional level. These challenges exposed him to difficult material so that he might be coached through the task and encouraged to independently employ strategies even when he experienced failure. Challenges were accompanied by thoughtful discussions that emphasized the value of mistakes and process-based praise that highlighted specific behaviors or use of strategies (e.g., "I noticed you paid special attention to the vowel sound in the middle of the word today").

There is a common assumption that in order for students to feel competent they must build skills through incremental success. Along these lines, teachers often feel pressured to scaffold tasks in order to ensure students' achievement and subsequent feelings of accomplishment. Yet, this approach does not provide students with the skills necessary to manage their emotions and behaviors when they inevitably encounter failure. In order to foster the intrinsic motivation necessary to persist through challenging tasks, students must feel as though they are continually developing their skills as well as feeling that they possess effective strategies for coping with setbacks and disappointment.

Strategies That Develop Meaning

The degree to which a student values a given task is considered the fundamental determinant of extrinsic

versus intrinsic motivation. Tasks are considered meaningful when they are interesting and/or relevant to students' objectives. However, since many academic assignments are not directly related to individual interests, teachers are charged with making classwork personally applicable. Ben's teachers engaged in several activities in order to demonstrate the value of even the most discrete and seemingly irrelevant tasks. First, as noted earlier, they worked with Ben to help him identify weekly short-term goals and larger long-term goals; these goals provided insights into his academic and social interests, and as a result, his teachers knew to introduce comic books and texts about comic book authors as platforms for exploring important linguistic strategies and phonics concepts. Ben's teachers also made explicit connections between individual skills necessary for fluent reading and his long-term goals. Ben expressed interest in the field of marine biology, so his teachers used trade books about marine biology to help demonstrate the meaning of common prefixes and suffixes that can help him decode multisyllabic words used in the field. Finally, Ben's teachers selected age-appropriate texts that depicted fictional and nonfictional characters pursuing goals, encountering challenges, and managing failure in order to accomplish their objectives to read aloud with him and to use these as a basis for discussion.

Strategies for Developing Students' Extrinsic Motivation

Students who engage in targeted behaviors in order to achieve external rewards, such as incentives, grades, and praise, or avoid deterrents, such as punishments and negative consequences without internalizing the importance of such behavior, are considered extrinsically motivated. Incentives and deterrents are popular motivators because they are often effective at eliciting desired behavior in the short term; however, they are considered coercive by many in the field of psychology because they compel students to engage in targeted behaviors rather than fostering student-driven initiative. For example, one of Ben's teachers initially suggested using a sticker chart as a motivator, but her colleague expressed concern because she found that as soon as the stickers were no longer a part of instruction, her students became uninterested, and she suspected it was because her students struggled to internalize important academic concepts since the majority of their focus was on the reward rather than the task.

Her suspicions are valid. Extrinsic strategies have been associated with dampened forms of internal motivation, and instructional approaches that employ

coercive tactics to regulate students' behavior result in decreased engagement and increases in task avoidance, even when they are successful at building skills.

There is one important caveat to mention when discussing the presence of rewards in instruction. Tangible rewards that are not contingent upon task engagement or completion have not been found to affect intrinsic interest. For example, there is one educator who dedicated hundreds of hours to collecting used books in order to provide each of her students with a book for their birthday. This story highlights the compassion and extraordinary efforts of many teachers who are dedicated to improving reading outcomes among their students and rely on all means possible to increase motivation and ability.

Conclusion

The motivational strategies highlighted in this entry are not limited to application with students who have learning differences or even students who appear disengaged or disinterested in academic settings. Rather, the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is based on behavioral patterns that are fundamental to human development and achievement. When working to motivate students, strategies that are based on evidence-based principles of autonomy, belonging, competence, and meaning making will provide a solid foundation, from which individual behavioral approaches can be derived. The thoughtful integration of these strategies will not only unlock student potential but also foster the independent pursuit of knowledge, persistence in the face of challenging tasks, and an overall appreciation of the learning process.

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See also Fostering Classroom Engagement; Interactive Teaching; Student Interest, Stimulating and Maintaining

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MOTIVATION, INTRINSIC AND EXTRINSIC

For classrooms to be well managed, students need to be at least moderately motivated to learn. If they are motivated to learn, they will follow directions and do what is necessary to be successful. However, if they are not motivated, students are likely to do as they wish (e.g., socialize with friends) and fail to comply with teachers' wishes that they attend to school activities and complete their work. At first glance, it may not seem to matter whether students are motivated intrinsically or extrinsically. However, it does matter. The type of motivation has consequences for students' learning and for teachers' classroom management. This entry explains why, by explaining the nature and consequences of each type.

Intrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic motivation is widely believed to be optimal, universal, innate, and present from birth. It involves the inherent desire to explore, satisfy curiosity, master new challenges, increase skills, learn, and understand. The feelings of satisfaction and personal reward that arise from intrinsically motivated actions are sufficiently rewarding for people to want to continue the cycle of taking on challenges, striving to achieve them, and then advancing to meet new goals.

Associated Outcomes and Implications for Management

Intrinsically motivated students seek out new challenges and engage in activities fully and deeply, rather than in a superficial fashion. They are focused, creative, and thoughtful; monitor their progress; and do not mind making mistakes. They ask for help if necessary

but do not take the easy way out (e.g., focus only on the answer) and do not give up quickly. Because students are more likely to take on realistic challenges when intrinsically motivated, they are not likely to be bored or overwhelmed. In short, intrinsically motivated students' actions are closely aligned with teachers' goals, and therefore pose fewest challenges for classroom management.

Intrinsic motivation is associated with numerous positive outcomes, including deep understanding, skill development, confidence, enhanced interest, and, not surprisingly, achievement. These characteristics result in optimal conditions for learning and management, and are antithetical to student disruptiveness or noncompliance. The greatest concern may be that if students are engrossed in what they are doing, they may not want to move on to another activity when the lesson is over.

Conceptualizing Intrinsic Motivation

Edward Deci and Richard Ryan's *self-determination theory* of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation explains that intrinsic motivation flourishes when three fundamental psychological needs are met: the need for autonomy, the need for competence, and the need for relatedness or belonging. Conversely, when the satisfaction of any of these basic needs is compromised—that is, when people feel inept or incapable, alienated, or, especially, controlled—intrinsic motivation tends to wane.

Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi makes a distinction between two types of intrinsic motivation. The first, and more prevalent, is characterized by the personal satisfaction gained from engaging in an activity for its own sake. The second, and less prevalent, is characterized by the state of *flow* experienced during the activity.

Flow involves total focus and absorption in the activity, such that people lose sense of time, surroundings, and even themselves. They do not notice hunger or fatigue. The experience of flow is so immensely enjoyable that people seek to repeat the experience. Flow occurs in situations in which individuals are faced with moderately high challenge that is balanced by their own moderately high skills—the condition that leads best to learning, mastery, and achievement.

When an activity's challenge exceeds an individual's skills, the outcome is anxiety, whereas boredom results from skills exceeding challenge. Neither of these conditions—boredom or anxiety—facilitates intrinsic motivation; however, external incentives may provoke engagement.

Extrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic motivation occurs when the energy to engage in an activity comes from a desire to achieve something,

not for the achieving itself but rather for a consequence or reward external to the activity (e.g., stickers, candy, certificates, and approval from others). These consequences are not naturally part of the activity but become learned during individuals' experiences.

Associated Outcomes and Implications for Management

Extrinsically motivated students prefer work that is easy rather than challenging. They tend to do only what is necessary to receive the incentive, so work is often superficial, hurried, and sparse. If rewards are available for completing or participating in an activity, without attention to the quality, extrinsically motivated students have no incentive to apply effort. For example, there is no reason to read an assigned chapter before a discussion if students' personal opinions, uninformed by the chapter, can earn the incentive.

Extrinsically motivated students are likely to conform to teachers' directions only when they believe they will receive the incentive. Therefore, they may read an assigned passage only if the content will be tested, do homework only if it contributes to their grade, or stay on task only if the teacher can see the students' actions. If the incentive can be earned with less effort (e.g., downloading someone else's essay), students are likely to take the easier route. Furthermore, if students believe that the incentive is not accessible to them, perhaps because their ability is too low or because they feel they are treated unfairly by the teacher, they will find little reason to engage in the activity and may "space out," be disruptive, or find a nonlegitimate way to get the reward.

As a result, classroom management is more complex and difficult when students are extrinsically motivated; students require continual monitoring and adult responsiveness. Furthermore, in classrooms wherein external motivation is the rule for getting students to *behave* and do what is prescribed, students' compliant behavior is not likely to carry over to new situations in which the incentives are not attainable, such as in a different class, with a substitute teacher, or outside the school.

Conceptualizing Extrinsic Motivation

Self-determination theory distinguishes among four categories of extrinsic motivation, depending on the source of the motivation and the degree of control or regulation it imposes on the individual. The categories—sequenced along a continuum from the most controlling and least adaptive to least controlling and most desirable—are external, introjected, identified, and integrated regulation.

External regulation occurs when behavior is highly controlled by others, through rewards or punishments (e.g., “I will do this assignment because I want a sticker” or “. . . because I don’t want a detention”), and is therefore furthest from intrinsic motivation and least positive. *Introjected regulation* is also very controlling but the control is less explicit. With introjected regulation, behavior is motivated by wanting approval from others (e.g., “I will study for the test so my parents will be proud of me”) or wanting to avoid feeling guilty (e.g., “I will study because my parents will be disappointed with me if I get a low grade”).

These two types of controlled extrinsic motivation—external and introjected—are especially coercive and undermine individuals’ fundamental psychological needs, particularly their need to feel autonomous and self-determined. As a natural result of feeling controlled, individuals generally do not enjoy activities involving external or introjected regulation and put in only the time and effort necessary to gain positive or to avoid negative outcomes; quality is usually minimal. Furthermore, intrinsic motivation for activities that were initially interesting can be undermined if people are also provided with external incentives.

The other two types of extrinsic motivation—identified and integrated—are more autonomous or self-determined. These two are closer to intrinsic motivation and are associated with positive outcomes such as interest, enjoyment, and effort. *Identified regulation* occurs when people see the activity as being consistent with their own values and goals (e.g., “I will work hard in geography because I want to become an archaeologist”). *Integrated regulation* occurs when people internalize an activity so it is consistent with their identity or sense of who they are (e.g., “I will study for the test because I’m a conscientious student”).

Overlap Between Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation Types

Intrinsic and extrinsic types of motivation are not necessarily mutually exclusive. People can be motivated by internal *and* by external factors at the same time. For example, students who are intrinsically motivated to read choose to do so when they have the opportunity, even if no one will know. They gain sufficient pleasure from the process of reading itself that they want to continue reading. On the other hand, students who are extrinsically motivated to read, read in order to get something (e.g., money, coupons, praise, or a good grade). However, a student could read in her spare time because she finds it personally satisfying and enjoyable (i.e., intrinsic), while also being pleased that reading will

benefit her vocabulary and therefore her test scores (i.e., extrinsic).

Conclusion: Motivating Students

Schools limit how much autonomy students can have, which fundamentally undercuts intrinsic motivation; students cannot be fully self-determined because those in authority retain control. In this case, the more autonomous types of extrinsic motivation—integrated and identified regulation—may be the most realistic objectives for academic settings. They can be fostered by supporting individuals’ basic needs, especially their need for relatedness or connection. This is because feeling the sense of belonging and being connected with a teacher encourages students to identify personally with the school and internalize the teacher’s objectives and desires—part of developing integrated or identified regulation.

If students do not find an activity interesting initially (i.e., if they are not internally motivated), modest tangible rewards may “hook” students into engaging in it. Once involved, students’ feelings of competence, autonomy, and relatedness can be promoted to encourage more autonomous forms of extrinsic motivation while at the same time reducing tangible incentives so they are less salient and frequent. In short, both intrinsic and extrinsic types of motivation can be harnessed to create a school environment that encourages students to become self-motivated and self-directed learners.

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See also Reinforcement; Student Interest, Stimulating and Maintaining; Teachers’ Language to Motivate Effort

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MULTISENSORY INSTRUCTION

The real world is full of experiences that rely on using the senses to learn and perform well. Consider a young man following a recipe for making crêpes, one that he learned from his father. When he makes crêpes, he has no list of ingredients to reference, no instructions for how things should be done. As he mixes the batter, he adds the dry ingredients to the liquids, stopping when pulling the ladle out of the batter and only when his mixing is met with just the right resistance and when the batter that drips from the raised ladle is just the right consistency. He knows he has added enough vanilla when the batter smells just right and knows the pan is ready for a fresh layer of batter when the popping and sizzling of the melted butter sounds just so. Looking at the light brown coloration of the underside of the crêpe tells him when it is time to flip it and to determine whether the crêpe can be safely flipped without being loosened by a spatula; he gives the pan a little jiggle to see if the crêpe slides enough. Then, with a flick of the wrist, he attempts to flip the crêpe so that it now lies on its other side, but if it does not budge, it is time for the spatula. The first crêpe is always partially sacrificed in order to taste whether there is the right amount of sugar and whether it is thin enough.

Now, if seated at the table with a stack of crêpes in the middle, a guest might ask for a recipe, and the boy might smile and start naming ingredients and maybe even provide a written recipe. However, he would know that ingredients and recipes are not all that goes into his cooking—the process relies on experience in measuring and evaluating using the senses, which is a skill that cannot be taught through words alone. In short, learning how to cook crêpes requires multisensory-based instruction.

So too does much of the learning that goes on in classrooms. Why, then, is there so little emphasis put on making use of multiple senses when learning? This entry is meant to explain why there should be such an emphasis and how that emphasis can be realized.

Why Multisensory Instruction?

Multisensory instruction helps cement knowledge because it allows students to receive information through multiple channels, thus providing them with repetition and a more holistic understanding. If students have difficulty focusing, multisensory-based instruction can be a valuable tool, because a more engaging lesson for a student with a particular sensory palate will allow for focusing on what is being taught instead of on feeling excluded and being tempted to misbehave.

This approach to instruction is also useful in gauging what sensory experiences may be distracting students and which ones may be helping them. In using multisensory instruction, one can aim to prevent or take into account distracting sensory stimuli as well as aim to employ sensory tools to illustrate concepts and to maintain focus in lessons.

A multisensory approach should also be used to consider how students express their knowledge. All expressions of knowledge need not rely on the same sensory modalities. Multisensory expression allows each student to find his or her own way to show what he or she knows or provides varied enough expression opportunities that the students will be able to show what they know. The latter also can be assessed for holistic understanding, as it requires that the students use multiple sensory modalities to express themselves.

A Breakdown of the Senses

Several tests have been developed to help determine what sense a student relies on most when learning. One such test, VARK (stands for visual, aural, read/write, and kinesthetic), is a questionnaire that provides information on the student's best sensory method for intake and expression of information. Since people generally do not rely on any one sense completely, tests such as VARK may be misleading. Though they are useful in introducing metacognition to students regarding their study habits and to teachers regarding their instruction, they should not be seen as a matching device. Teaching a *visual learner* only through visual examples would not provide a holistic understanding and may be inappropriate for certain subject areas. Being conscious of students' perceptions about how they learn is important, but providing information in many different avenues avoids establishing a new single-sensory method that omits necessary experiences and information.

As in the case of VARK, teachers and tests generally divide the senses into visual, auditory, read/write, and kinesthetic. Students often differ from one another according to which of these senses they perceive that they use to most easily access and communicate information. Since

multisensory education strives to use multiple senses, it is crucial to understand what each sense offers a student.

Visual—Information is accessed or expressed through drawings, diagrams, pictures, and charts, that is, from *visuals*.

Auditory—Information is accessed through listening to someone explain. In turn, it can be expressed orally.

Read/Write—Information is accessed through seeing it in writing. In turn, it can be expressed through writing.

Kinesthetic—Information is accessed or expressed through physically interacting with the lesson, whether through acting out the lesson, investigating props, or doing something else that is physical and can help with focus and retention of the lesson.

Using tests and questionnaires can be helpful in understanding how students perceive they learn best. However, the test results can also place a limiting perspective on children if one believes a child can learn only in one way. A study done at the University of California–San Diego found that simply matching teaching to students' perceived learning style was not adequate to improve their performance and that sensory instruction should be appropriate for the material being taught. It seems therefore important that the material fit the method of instruction and that the lesson be accessible and assessed through several senses or modalities. That is, the senses must not be viewed in isolation. Rather, interplay between the senses is how lessons are materialized in everyday life.

Students should be encouraged to expand their skills. Simply because a student shows his or her understanding of an experiment's results best through a pie chart does not mean the student should not be able to explain it verbally as well. Students should similarly be able to comprehend the results of an experiment whether or not someone is talking to them about it or whether they can see the results graphically. Being able to pick up and express information through multiple senses makes the information more useful and complete. Finally, although each child should be tested in a manner where he or she performs best, this should not impede the student from having a fluid and holistic understanding of the material.

The Switch to Multisensory Instruction

Look around a classroom. One boy is fidgeting at his desk. A girl has five of her classmates talking to her and is not paying any attention to the lesson. Other students similarly may not be giving their full attention to the lesson at hand. Every classroom is full of minute and extreme disruptions caused by a lack of attention to the senses. Whether it is that the student has *checked out*

because the material is not accessible through multiple senses or because there is the smell of cookies wafting through the hallway, realizing what sensory inputs students are receiving and not receiving can help a teacher understand the causes of the disruption and understand how to respond more appropriately.

But how exactly can a teacher switch to multisensory-based instruction? Edgar McIntosh and Marilu Peck provide their own kindergarten classroom as an example of switching to multisensory-based instruction in a K–2 setting. In their classroom, children are greeted each morning with an environment where the words on the walls are paired with pictures, where students can find a pictorial schedule of their day in their cubby if they need visual processing support, and where one of the teachers will read through the first activity of the day with a student who needs auditory support.

McIntosh and Peck have developed a lesson called *morning message* to engage more of the senses. This lesson involves a written message from one of the teachers along with a picture depicting what the message is saying. Before the exercise begins, students are given a chance to release some of their energy through teacher-led movements and stretches. They are then helped to make themselves comfortable and focused, whether using special seating or through having a fidget toy. A teacher reads the message aloud and the students listen. Then, the students read it together with the teacher, and finally the students read it alone.

Once the message has been decoded, the teachers ask questions about the message such as what is the first letter of the first word or what makes the sound /r/. The way the students must respond varies from solo oral response to communal chanting, writing in the air, tracing on the rug, or annotating the message with various symbols and colors. The message is left out so it is accessible to the students for discussion, further dissection, and review.

This adapted version of the morning message demands participation and engagement of multiple senses, ensuring that every student can feel involved and that every student receives reinforcement through different sensory channels. It also helps eliminate sensory distractions such as the need to balance impulses to move about and the inability to process and think without movement.

Before switching to a multisensory method of instruction, McIntosh and Peck had a harder time managing the classroom, and a harder time being sure that all the students were engaged and learning at the same level. They felt as though they were teaching only for the majority of students. While tracking their improvements, they became aware that some students were falling behind.

With a multisensory approach, it became easier to instruct all students and ensure that they were

progressing appropriately. It made the curriculum accessible to more students and, in its nature, was more individualized, thus allowing students to get the particular supports they needed.

Age Appropriateness

Multisensory instruction is not just relevant to elementary education. It is relevant to education at all ages. The overemphasis on auditory and read/write senses in more advanced education leaves many students struggling to absorb and process the classroom material. There is, then, a need at all grades for teachers and students alike to find different ways to present or study material so that students can piece together a holistic understanding of the material and will be prepared to express the material in different ways.

Students and teachers at all grades should consider the sensory environment wherein students study and learn. Something as simple as listening to music could be a huge sensory distraction for one student and be neutral or focusing for others.

As students take more control of their education, their role in multisensory-based instruction increases. They become responsible for how they learn and cement their knowledge outside of the classroom—studying or completing homework assignments. This does not relieve teachers from needing to teach in dynamic, multisensory ways. Even college students need professors to attend to the need for multisensory ways of instructing.

Multisensory Instruction and Diverse Learners

Some students need more support than others. The multisensory approach caters to these children and can help integrate them into the classroom. If lessons are taught in ways that make the material accessible to many different types of learners, this can often provide the repetition, reinforcement, and diversity in presentation these children requiring extra support need. A multisensory approach has been shown to help at-risk readers, children learning English as a second language, and those on the autism spectrum.

Multisensory-based instruction is also compatible with the sensory integration perspective and approach used in occupational therapy (OT), where students are exposed to sensory stimuli and to appropriate challenges, often in amusing and educational ways, so as to boost their overall confidence as well as their ability to perform certain tasks. And just as one can find in OT work with children, multisensory-based instruction can use the senses to reduce distraction and help children keep on task.

In short, the use of multiple sensory modalities in instruction and evaluation can help diverse learners

learn at their best and can provide extra support for those who already are able to learn effectively in the typical classroom setup.

Multisensory-based education is not just simply matching perceived learning styles of children to teaching methods, but rather trying to present the material in as complete a way as possible by using appropriate sensory modalities. This then provides repetition and multiple ways to access the material. Using this approach can also help decrease classroom distractions and make lesson plans more engaging as it accounts for what the students' senses are being exposed to. For diverse learners, it can make material more accessible and push them in beneficial ways. To use this approach, it is important to understand the senses, not to view them in isolation but as multiple entry points that together make a successful lesson. Multisensory-based education serves primarily to provide the repetition and diversity in presentation that allow all students to understand the material and be able to manipulate it so that they can process and present it in various ways. More research needs to be done on this approach to further investigate its effectiveness.

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See also Learning Disabilities; Sensory Integration

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MUSIC, SCHOOL, AND CLASSROOM CLIMATE

See Arts for Learning Environments

MUSLIM STUDENTS AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Religious diversity calls for sensitivity and accommodation in classroom management. However, given present-day and frequent expressions in Western societies showing insensitivity and prejudice toward Muslims, it is especially important for educators to provide positive supports for

Muslim students to make sure that Muslim students thrive in school. This entry explores the challenges that both educators and Muslim students face and the accommodations needed for Muslim students to succeed.

Within-Group Variation and Stigma

As is the case with other individuals representing social and religious groups, Muslim students form a diverse group. They vary from one another in terms of the strength of their faith, the specific pattern that their Muslim faith takes, their religious beliefs and practices, and the influences they receive from their family, religious community, and neighborhood. Furthermore, for personal and social reasons, individual Muslim students are likely to differ from one another in how they express their faith, their religious beliefs, their religious practices, and their overall identity. Finally, how a student expresses his or her Muslim faith may vary for reasons related to religious contexts and seasons (e.g., during high periods of practice, such as Ramadan).

Irrespective of how individual students express their faith, Muslim students share their membership in a religious minority group that is stigmatized. As a result, some Muslim students may keep their religion hidden, so as to avoid being teased or otherwise treated negatively by peers. As members of a stigmatized group, these students may face both intentional and unintentional discrimination at multiple levels, including discrimination by peers, educators, institutional structures, and policies, as well as a hostile sociocultural climate mostly conveyed through negative media portrayals.

A Muslim Religious Framework

For any student, his or her cultural and religious framework may include patterns of faith and religious-institutional practices that affect learning and social processes. Consistent with critical multicultural educational practices and culturally relevant teaching, these patterns of faith and practices may need to be reflected and accommodated at all levels of the learning environment, particularly in the curriculum, classroom, and school, and possibly in institutional policies and practices.

Patterns of Faith

As in the case of any religious group, the practice of Islam includes different patterns of faith that are mediated through personal, cultural, and historical lenses. Islam is the third of the monotheistic, Abrahamic religious traditions (the other two being the Jewish and

Christian religious traditions). As with the other two Abrahamic traditions, Islam is a comprehensive life system organized around a faith pattern where belief in and submission to Allah (Arabic for the one God) and adherence to the word of Allah as found in the Quran (or Koran) are central.

Like the other great world religions, the Islamic faith tradition attempts to instill and promote worthy values and prosocial behavior, such as showing compassion and generosity, while opposing injustice in all its forms.

Practices

While Islamic values may be similar to those of other world religions, Islamic practices are distinct in Western contexts, such as Western school systems. Nevertheless, school systems may be asked to accommodate some of these practices, especially those practices that relate to prayer, holidays, dress, and diet.

Practicing Muslims observe five daily obligatory prayers that are scheduled from sunrise to sunset; one or more of these prayers may coincide with school hours. School officials may need to designate quiet areas where practicing Muslims can pray, as well as facilitate early release on Fridays for those older males who wish to participate in the required weekly congregational prayer. Similarly, when scheduling major school events, school systems need to accommodate the distinct religious Islamic calendar as well as observances and absences on the part of students of other religious minorities. The Islamic religious calendar includes, for example, a month of obligatory fasting, Ramadan.

Educators are encouraged to work with families of Muslim students to better understand the particular expectations around fasting and other religious practices, such as adhering to dietary restrictions, and to provide alternate spaces for fasting students (e.g., spending lunch period in the school library in lieu of the cafeteria). Frustration resulting from the failure to adequately meet the religious needs of students may be expressed in a student's overt disruption or in the more covert disconnection or lack of motivation that a student may feel.

The school context may affect Muslim students in less explicit ways, but ones that are regular stressors for Muslim students. For example, because Islam has significant prohibitions regarding premarital dating and sex, many Muslim students may manage familial pressure or themselves by seeking to limit interaction with peers of the opposite sex. Educators should seek to understand why a student may seek to avoid a particular classmate or context (e.g., coeducational physical activity, holiday parties of any occasion, songs or activities with a

religious theme) and explore the avoidance in more depth with the student, the family, and other educator colleagues—always seeking for ways to help the student be and feel included.

Conclusion

Although Muslim students vary considerably from one another, their belonging to a religious group that is currently experiencing prejudice and rejection makes it especially important for educators to become knowledgeable in their understanding of Muslim students and knowledgeable too about ways to help Muslim students feel and be included. This presents a considerable challenge because educators vary in their own professional and personal comfort levels addressing issues of religious diversity in general and diversity with regard to Muslim students in particular. However, it is essential for educators to make the commitment and develop the knowledge and skills needed to create a classroom environment that is safe for all students and that affords opportunities to promote

understanding and awareness among all members of the learning community.

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See also Religious Diversity and Classroom Management

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NATIONAL BOARD FOR PROFESSIONAL TEACHING STANDARDS

After the publication of the 1983 report *A Nation at Risk*, the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards was convened to develop and strengthen standards in teaching and professionalizing the teaching workforce. The certification for teachers by the National Board is as advanced and rigorous as in other professions such as medicine. Teachers certified by the National Board demonstrate accomplished pedagogical skills and content knowledge to advance student achievement.

The Process

Teachers are eligible to participate in the National Board certification if they have completed 3 years of teaching. The certification process is twofold. The first step requires the candidate to compose a portfolio documenting various accomplishments in teaching through four entries tied to the standards. The first entry is classroom-based, with analysis of student work. The second and third entries are also classroom-based but require the candidates to support their narratives with video entries that document interactions between the candidate and the students. The final entry requires the candidate to document his or her accomplishments outside of the classroom and the impact of those accomplishments on student learning.

The second step of the process requires candidates to demonstrate content and pedagogical knowledge with six open-ended assessments. This step is completed usually at a testing center.

The Standards

Five core propositions—outlined in the 1986 book *What Teachers Should Know and Be Able to Do*—serve as the foundation for the National Board. These propositions are as follows:

1. Teachers are committed to students and their learning.
2. Teachers know the subjects they teach and how to teach those subjects to students.
3. Teachers are responsible for managing and monitoring student learning.
4. Teachers think systematically about their practice and learn from experience.
5. Teachers are members of learning communities.

There are 25 certification areas that teachers can choose from based on their teaching assignment. As such, the standards for each content area differ. However, there are some similarities across the standards.

Links to Classroom Management

A review of the standards shows that some are directly tied to classroom management while many others are indirectly influenced by classroom management. Directly, each of the content areas has a standard that addresses the learning environment. This encompasses the traditional view of classroom management, or rules and procedures, as well as the shifting paradigm of exploring the emotional and physical safety that promotes student engagement.

When thinking about classroom environment, teachers have to examine how they are creating safe and

respectful spaces for students, spaces that promote student learning. Teachers should also consider the physical setup of the room as well as interactions between and among students and teachers. Specifically, how does the teacher organize the class so that students feel safe to take intellectual risks, develop self-confidence, and value learning? As well, there should be a strong focus on the relationship teachers develop with students and how they facilitate community building within their classrooms.

At the beginning of the school year, National Board–certified teachers set out to establish procedures and expectations and make them clear to the students. In addition to the rules and expectations, Board-certified teachers model what respectful interactions look like.

Other standards that have links to classroom management include knowing students, respecting diversity, and reflective practice. The National Board places a heavy emphasis on teachers knowing their students and also on the social, emotional, physical, and academic developmental milestones that are appropriate for their students, as both individuals and learners. These teachers develop a learning environment for their students based on their knowledge of students and their development. When thinking about classroom management, they use developmentally appropriate practices to develop relationships with their students and build a classroom community.

In addition to knowing their students, the National Board standards embody the expectation that teachers have a respect for diversity and its complex nature. This is a key component to classroom management because teachers play a vital role in affirming students' personal worth, and teachers help students to develop into thoughtful global citizens. Not only do the standards expect teachers to appreciate diversity, they also expect accomplished teachers to address diversity in their classroom. In order for meaningful and honest conversations about diversity to occur, the standards expect teachers to foster trusting relationship with and among students, include instruction and provide supports for students to develop positive attitudes, and promote productive relationships through interactions. These attitudes and relationships are difficult to foster without a focus on classroom management and on developing a classroom community.

Finally, accomplished teachers under the National Board standards are expected to be reflective of their practice. Reflective teachers examine the quality and effectiveness of their teaching. A major component of this would be the examination of one's approach to classroom management. What is working well? What is not working? Are students' needs being met? Was the learning environment productive? Do students feel safe?

All of these questions, and more, are constantly analyzed by a reflective teacher. On the other side of reflectivity is the flexibility to make changes to the classroom management plan or learning environment if an element is not working.

Conclusion

The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards has defined a rigorous process for accomplished teachers to examine their work in the classroom. A seminal element in all of the standards is how the teacher develops the classroom environment to ensure that all students feel safe and are able to learn.

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See also Conditions for Learning; Exemplary Teachers

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NATIVE AMERICAN STUDENTS

Approximately 644,000 Native American (NA) students attend U.S. schools today. By several measures, such as high school dropout rates and percentage of students in special education, NA students fare poorly compared with the national average. Of the various reasons for this, five in particular come into focus in this entry, and this entry discusses ways to think about how best to create good learning environments for NA students.

From Boarding Schools to Community Schools

In the late nineteenth century, federally funded boarding schools were established with the expressed intent of assimilating NA children into the Euro-American cultural mainstream and eradicating the students' NA culture in the process. For example, NA children were given English names and required to speak only in English. This boarding school tradition lasted well into the latter half of the twentieth century when enrollments peaked at over 60,000 students around 1970.

From 1970 onward, a new spirit respecting cultural diversity has led to a steep decline in the number of NA boarding schools, and that in the United States today, most NA students attend community-based schools.

The boarding school legacy is, however, an ongoing source of negative memories and bitterness for many Native Americans, whose personal or secondhand experience has led them to associate schooling with threats to their identity and culture—not to a proper context for learning.

Accommodating NA Learning Styles

Starting with Susan Philips's classic, 1983 study of NA classrooms in Warm Springs, Oregon, a number of researchers have identified what it takes for teachers to accommodate many NA students' learning styles. In contrast to their Anglo-American counterparts, NA students often respond much better to learning through observing than to learning through class recitation, and much better when the focus is on students cooperating rather than competing with one another. Furthermore, many NA students require private, not public, correction of mistakes. In addition, NA students often need a longer wait period between the time teachers ask questions and the time students give responses.

Teachers of NA students are advised, then, to not rely on calling on students to give answers, or to set up competitive learning games, or to demand fast-paced give-and-take discussions. Instead, teachers of NA students should provide opportunities to observe firsthand demonstrations before receiving formal instruction, support cooperative learning in student-led groups, limit corrections to teacher–student conversations carried out in private, and provide more wait time during conversations.

Finally, the literature on accommodating learning styles suggests that NA students often respond best to a warm but demanding teaching style. With regard to teaching style, then, NA students are not unique since a good many students from diverse cultural backgrounds also learn best under a warm but demanding teaching style.

Supporting Native Languages

The Native American Languages Act (1990) protects NA languages and has been the catalyst for bilingual education on reservations—sometimes in stark contrast to English-only movements in some states. Nevertheless, about 80% of teachers of NA students use only English in instruction, in large part because only 1 out of 10 NA students is taught by a teacher from a similar cultural background.

Teachers who share their NA students' cultural background and language tend to promote classroom contexts that are supportive, even critical to many students' achievement. This is because NA teachers are more likely

to have the necessary knowledge to incorporate heritage language and culture into instruction, and more likely to be role models for their students—factors that have been associated with promoting academic success for NA students. Nevertheless, teachers who do not share their students' language and culture can still employ practices that effectively promote NA students' learning.

Providing Culturally Relevant Curriculum Content and Pedagogy

A culturally relevant classroom requires that teachers incorporate the traditions and knowledge (and when possible, language) of the NA community represented by their students. By ensuring a culturally relevant classroom, teachers can create opportunities to bridge academic knowledge and skills with the cultural characteristics, experiences, and perspectives of students. There are six central practices defining culturally relevant classrooms that are associated with better academic outcomes for NA students. They are (1) incorporating heritage languages into instruction either by teachers themselves speaking heritage languages or by community leaders playing a central role in supporting students' heritage languages; (2) pedagogy that follows traditional cultural characteristics—such as using peer-directed, collaborative work strategies rather than relying on whole-group instruction; (3) teaching strategies that are congruent with traditional culture *as well as* with contemporary ways of learning and knowing—such as using indigenous storytelling methods to convey academic content reflected in nonindigenous standards; (4) a curriculum based on traditional culture and that places the education of young children in a contemporary context—for example, a discussion of issues around oil and gas pipelines that threaten the viability of some native lands and life can bring discussions of Native Americans into present topics; (5) strong community participation such as through inviting tribal leaders to class; and (6) incorporating the social and political mores of the community into instruction, particularly in reading and social studies.

Partnering With NA Community Leaders and Agencies

NA communities include immediate and extended family members, elders, matriarchs, and past and present tribal government leaders. Teachers can access community members' knowledge so as to create supportive classrooms through the collective guidance of NA communities. NA agencies, educational associations, and tribes also provide a wealth of information that teachers

can access. By enriching the existing curriculum with knowledge from the NA community, teachers can more readily create classrooms where NA students can succeed—as indicated in studies such as the one by Judith Kleinfeld, where partnerships between NA communities and 162 high schools servicing American Indian and Alaska Native students were associated with higher student achievement. In the most effective schools, teachers forged partnerships with community leaders and used community projects and business enterprises as ways to have students connect with community leaders.

Conclusion

To promote achievement for NA students, it is necessary to create classroom contexts that consider students' culture from multiple perspectives. First, teachers of NA students should integrate language and culture into all aspects of instruction; second, teachers should be flexible in the ways they assess student understanding (such as storytelling), and teachers should forge relationships with the community. Finally, to create well-managed classrooms, teachers are required to create bridges between the dominant (school) culture and the culture of their students.

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See also Community Approaches to Classroom Management; Cultural Diversity; Culturally Responsive Classrooms; Language Differences

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for many, that some behavior decreases. In behavior analysis, however, both positive and negative reinforcing operations deal with how a consequence is manipulated to increase behavior. This entry defines, discusses, gives examples of, and identifies tips and considerations in using negative reinforcement.

In the classroom, *positive* reinforcement refers to applying (adding) a stimulus, event, or object following a student's behavior so as to increase that behavior. *Negative* reinforcement refers to removing a stimulus, event, or object following a student's behavior, also to increase that behavior. Here is an illustration to clarify the meaning and importance of negative reinforcement. Nathan and Eduardo are students who are supposed to be writing individual essays. Instead of writing, the two boys begin complaining about the assignment—that it is difficult and stupid. Mr. Stuart, the teacher, at first looks at the boys who continue talking out and complaining. From several feet away, the teacher then says, “Aren't you boys supposed to be writing?” But the boys continue talking and complaining. Mr. Stuart finally says more directly, “Boys, stop talking and get to work,” yet again the boys continue complaining and now refuse to do the assignment. Mr. Stuart gives up and turns to another student who has asked for help with the assignment. The next day when a new writing assignment is given to the class, Nathan and Eduardo quickly begin complaining and refusing to do it. In this case, the boys have been negatively reinforced for increased noncompliance. When Mr. Stuart removed his task demand for the boys, this negatively reinforced their talking/complaining.

Negative Reinforcement: Relevance to Classroom Management

The previous example showed us the relevance of negative reinforcement for classroom management. That relevance also shows in the history of research on negative reinforcement. Research from the 1960s to the present demonstrates that various challenging classroom behaviors may be caused or maintained by negative reinforcement. With the advent of functional behavior assessment (FBA), it has been further shown not only that negative reinforcement can cause diverse behavior issues (aggression, opposition, disruption, hyperactivity, inattention, or self-injury), but also that judicious application of negative reinforcement can reduce or eliminate these very same behavior challenges and teach more appropriate behavior.

Furthermore, teachers and other school personnel who deal with student behavior problems need to be aware of two basic negative reinforcement traps that exacerbate challenging behaviors. One is the *negative-positive reinforcement trap* (“you scratch my back and

NEGATIVE REINFORCEMENT

Negative reinforcement is one of the most confusing and misunderstood concepts in applied behavior analysis. What is confusing is that the term *negative* implies,

I'll scratch yours"); for example, a teacher gives in to a young student shouting out answers when the student should have been guided to raise his hand. In this case, the teacher is being negatively reinforced because giving in to the student requires less immediate effort and thought than trying to guide the student, and the student is being positively reinforced because he gets the desired response from the teacher.

The *negative-negative reinforcement trap* is shown in the previous example of the cycle of increasing coercion; it is also shown in the "you leave me alone and I'll leave you alone" gambit. For example, Boyd, a middle school student, has reading skills several years below grade level, yet much of his schoolwork is reading-based. This can result in failure to do assignments, taunting by peers and negative interactions with them, and angry arguments with teachers. Teachers deal with Boyd's disruptive behaviors by referring him to the office for disciplinary action. Office referrals allow Boyd to escape the aversive classroom situation, negatively reinforcing his challenging behaviors. At the same time, teachers' use of office referrals is negatively reinforced since Boyd's noxious behavior is terminated, at least for a short while. Both types of negative reinforcement traps often support inappropriate behavior without either party being fully aware of these contingencies.

Negative reinforcement may involve *escape* or *avoidance*. Escape-motivated challenging behaviors are those in which the student is already undergoing some activity or interaction he or she finds aversive. Boyd's disruptive behaviors resulted in office referrals, allowing him to escape the aversive classroom. Over time Boyd may begin refusing to attend school, avoiding aversive classroom situations altogether, at least until an attendance officer or a juvenile court forces his attendance, and the cycle begins again.

Negative Reinforcement to Support Positive Behavior

Negative reinforcement that causes or supports inappropriate behavior can also be used to eliminate challenging behavior and teach more appropriate skills. Consider Tanya, a preschool girl with autism and limited attention and communication skills. Included in a regular preschool classroom with six other age-mates, Tanya was expected to sit in the semicircle to participate in the 15-minute *Good Morning Circle* each day. Tanya and peers were to greet the teacher, sing songs, say the day of the week, and say what the weather was like. After the first few minutes, Tanya would stand up, begin walking around the classroom, and then cry, scream, and physically resist staying in the activity.

This disruption resulted in the teacher asking the assistant to remove Tanya to a nearby table and engage her with some of her favorite toys while the circle activity was finished. By engaging in these problem behaviors, Tanya escaped (negative reinforcement) the circle activity for which she did not currently have the skills and which she found aversive. Allowing Tanya to play with favorite toys at the table also positively reinforced Tanya's challenging behavior.

An FBA confirmed the negative and positive reinforcement functions of Tanya's challenging behaviors and resulted in a behavior intervention plan that took advantage of those functions. First, observations showed that 2 minutes was the maximum time Tanya could sit in the circle before a challenging behavior occurred. During that initial 2 minutes, the teacher and the assistant frequently praised Tanya's sitting and participation. Second, a timer signaled the teacher just before the first 2 minutes were up, at which point the assistant prompted Tanya to sign break. After Tanya signed break, the assistant praised Tanya, the teacher thanked her for participating, and Tanya was allowed to leave (escape) the group for the table where she chose a toy to play with for the next 5 minutes. At the end of that 5 minutes, she was returned to the group, the timer was reset, and the procedure was applied again. Over the next several weeks, the time Tanya was required to sit in the group was gradually increased. So even when Tanya signed break, the teacher/assistant made her sit a little longer before she was allowed to leave the group. Also, the teacher and the assistant identified brief activities that Tanya could perform in the group, incorporated them into the circle routine, as well as conducted brief tutoring sessions with Tanya to increase her communication and attention skills (further reducing the activity's aversiveness for Tanya).

The following are some tips regarding negative reinforcement-based interventions:

- Use FBA to identify whether the behavior is maintained by negative, positive, or negative and positive reinforcement.
- Use existing data or further formative assessments/observations to determine whether the student has the necessary skills to accomplish the task or to succeed in social situations.
- In negative reinforcement situations, the student's challenging behavior is a type of communication that says he or she wishes to escape or avoid that situation. Determine whether there is a more acceptable form of communication that would allow the student to temporarily escape/avoid the situation as part of an intervention.

- Negative reinforcement interventions can focus on various parts of the situation or task, reducing task aversiveness and the student's desire to escape/avoid by (1) matching task demands to the student's current skills levels, (2) teaching the student component or prerequisite task skills, (3) reducing task length or complexity, (4) alternating easy and difficult tasks, and (5) using high-quality/preferred reinforcers for remaining in that situation/task.

- Develop short- and long-term objectives to help the student develop more typical academic, functional, and social skills.

James J. Fox III

See also Applied Behavior Analysis; Behavior Support Plans; Functional Analysis; Functional Behavioral Assessment; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; Reinforcement; Rewards and Punishments; Target Behaviors

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NEW TEACHERS IN DIVERSE CLASSROOMS

As K–12 classrooms in the United States have become increasingly diverse, many new teachers struggle to deliver quality instruction to the children they serve. Those struggles are often centered on problems with classroom management, which is a major concern—teachers who cannot control the learning environment are unable to deliver instruction effectively. Although teacher education programs have attempted to improve the preparation of teacher candidates so that they may better serve diverse classrooms, these efforts have often fallen short.

Efforts to better prepare teacher candidates to work in diverse classrooms have included increased coursework examining instructional strategies for multicultural groups, practicum experiences in diverse classroom settings, mentors during the first years in the classroom, and augmented workshops for parents and families regarding literacy, numeracy, and other areas of interest. Despite these efforts, many new teachers continue to struggle in diverse classrooms.

Background

Approximately 45% of students in American public schools today are children of color. Furthermore, the number of English language learners (ELLs) has increased dramatically over the past 3 decades, and students for whom English is not the primary language are now common in many schools. Additional factors such as changing family composition, ethnicity, religious identity, socioeconomic status, and readiness levels make today's classrooms more diverse than ever before. Adding to the distress is the fact that the teaching force remains mostly as it was 50 years ago, with more than 80% of teachers being Caucasian and female and representing the majority culture.

Following the implementation of the 2001 *No Child Left Behind* legislation, schools and teachers have increasingly become interested in, and indeed responsible for, closing the achievement gap between Caucasian students and students from diverse backgrounds, including children of color and ELLs. Unfortunately, many novice teachers struggle, especially in classrooms with students from diverse backgrounds, making the achievement gap all the more difficult to tackle. In order to best serve these students, it is vital that new teachers gain understanding of their own cultural perspectives, those of the students they work with, and how diversity affects classroom management. Unfortunately, studies have suggested that many new teachers are ill prepared to serve all students in an equitable manner. Consistently, without classroom management skills, many new teachers find providing instruction to diverse learners a challenge.

Preparing Teachers for Diverse Classrooms

The preparation of preservice teachers to work with diverse learners and the provision of continued support to these teachers are essential for improving student performance. Because most new teachers come from the dominant mainstream culture, it is imperative that teacher candidates be provided with support for examining the beliefs and attitudes they have developed as members of the dominant culture and recognizing how these beliefs and attitudes affect decisions they may be taking when serving diverse groups of students. Given that many classroom management decisions stem from teachers' beliefs and attitudes, and from their assumptions about the motivations of their students, examining classroom behaviors from a variety of perspectives can ameliorate problems with classroom management.

Indeed, increasing the intercultural sensitivity of teacher candidates is often a focus of today's teacher preparation programs. Many schools use the developmental model of intercultural sensitivity (DMIS),

developed by Milton J. Bennett, as a means of examining the stages that teachers from the dominant culture hopefully move through when becoming more competent in understanding how diversity affects their classrooms. DMIS provides six stages for understanding where teachers are with respect to their development as culturally sensitive teachers. Each stage represents increased sensitivity to cultural differences. The initial three DMIS stages describe ethnocentric ways of relating to cultural differences. The second three DMIS stages describe ethnorelative ways of relating to cultural differences.

The ethnocentric stages of intercultural development feature denial, defense, and minimization. During *denial*, teacher candidates often state that there are no real differences between different cultures, instead of deeming their culture the only *real* one. As the teacher candidate moves through *defense*, he or she maintains that only one real culture exists, but any differences that exist in another culture only serve to represent deficiencies. When teacher candidates move into *minimization*, they frequently overgeneralize similarities and underemphasize differences between their own and other cultures.

The ethnorelative stages feature acceptance, adaptation, and integration. While in the *acceptance* stage, teacher candidates begin to exhibit respect for behavioral and value differences, understanding that there are variances in what is accepted behavior. During the *adaptation* stage, teacher candidates engage in proactive efforts to improve relations with those from different cultures, by using their knowledge about cultural differences. Finally, during the *integration* stage, teacher candidates begin to create a new personal identity, by combining disparate aspects of their identity while remaining culturally marginal, permitting them to communicate effectively with many groups.

New teachers' improved understanding of multiculturalism and diversity greatly assists their classroom management. Many novice teachers believe that student behaviors exhibited from cultures different than their own are disrespectful or off-task, while they are often just manifestations of students' home culture.

Students from diverse backgrounds also sometimes lack knowledge of the dominant culture's *expectations* of functioning in a classroom. In such cases, the new teacher must review her or his expectations regarding classroom behavior, sometimes repeatedly. In short, expectations that otherwise might be taken for granted need to be made explicit.

Greater awareness of multiculturalism and diversity also assists new teachers in avoiding situations where they inadvertently engage in behaviors that are considered inappropriate by other cultures, such as handshakes between members of the opposite sex. The more knowledge new teachers have of the students they serve, the better they can adapt their practices.

Exposure to Effective Classroom Management Practices

Many new teachers lack expertise in implementing effective classroom management practices, especially with diverse student populations. Those who teach in diverse classrooms are sometimes surprised to learn that classroom management practices that were effective in mainstream classrooms fail to work with their students. Because new teachers strive to fully engage students in the learning process without interruptions caused by student misbehavior, practices must be learned and implemented that are effective with diverse populations. In particular, many student and beginning teachers need to adopt practices that are not at first within their repertoire and comfort zone, that give more power to the teacher, that stress being firm, and that mirror the *warm demanding* and positive kinds of authoritarian parenting that students may be used to at home. To become a more powerful figure or a warm demander is no easy task for many new teachers—in large part because there are subtleties that differentiate warm demanding from simply being dominant and coercive. George Noblit and Cynthia Ballenger, among others, have shown clearly that adopting the warm and caring authoritarian styles of other cultures takes years of dedicated practice if one has not grown up in a culture where such styles are commonplace. And so, merely adopting an approach such as the assertive discipline approach will not work unless those subtleties are in place to ensure that students have a clear understanding that their teacher cares for them as individuals and respects their culture. Home-school connections and a culturally rich curriculum take on new meanings in classrooms where there is diversity, and so too whole-class methods, such as *choral response*, which give students a sense of being a member of a real community. Effective classroom management with diverse groups of students also entails catching students and reinforcing them for being good. This is true for almost all students, but it is especially true for students from cultures outside of the mainstream.

Concluding Remarks

To provide beginning teachers more experience in diverse classrooms, many teacher preparation programs have begun to run summer programs for K–12 students, establish partnerships with local, urban school districts, and initiate overseas programs. However, despite these efforts, many new teachers are overwhelmed by diverse classrooms and leave the profession soon after they begin to teach. Clearly, the commitment to equip beginning teachers to manage

classrooms with diverse groups of students needs to continue and be strengthened.

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See also African American Styles of Teaching and Disciplining; American Individualisms; Beginning Teachers and Classroom Management; Bilingual Education; Choral Response; Culturally Responsive Classrooms for African American Students; English Learners; Ethics, Power, and Classroom Management; Haitian Students; Home–School Connections; Teacher Education and Classroom Management; Urban Schools; Warm Demanders

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2001, it was passed by large margins in both houses of the Congress. In December 2001, the conference committee report passed with similarly large margins.

The legislation was lauded by political leaders as forcing a sea change in American education. The primary goal of the Act was to address widespread (and widely acknowledged) disparities in educational opportunity within the United States, with minority students and those from less advantaged economic backgrounds receiving lower-quality education and, as a result, achieving significantly poorer academic outcomes. In particular, the concept of achievement gaps, reflecting differences between demographically defined groups of students, was popularized, with the broader intent of NCLB being the elimination of achievement gaps by 2014, the stated target date for every student reaching grade-level proficiency.

Meeting these goals was to be accomplished via an emphasis on increased accountability, more consistent achievement testing across states, improved education data systems, enhanced public school choice, and improvements in teacher quality. To support the implementation of NCLB, federal K–12 education funding increased sharply during the early years of the Act.

The initial bipartisan enthusiasm for NCLB faded quickly. Senator John Kerry, then campaigning for the presidency in 2003, often faced angry crowds of educators who questioned his initial support. He and many other senior Democrats, including Senator Ted Kennedy, began to voice significant concerns about NCLB's implementation, such as whether funding was sufficient to support NCLB-required activities and whether 100% proficiency by 2014 was feasible.

Republican legislatures in several states were hesitant to facilitate implementation efforts given the new federal role in education, which had previously been largely a state concern. That said, NCLB was eventually implemented in all 50 states, and the basic mechanisms largely remained in place for roughly a decade. At that point, the Obama administration allowed states to apply for waivers from some NCLB requirements, and as of the writing of this entry, 41 states and the District of Columbia had approved waivers, with six state requests pending.

After more than a decade of implementation efforts, it is now possible to identify some of NCLB's benefits and weaknesses. On the positive side, access to education data—for educators, policymakers, and researchers—has significantly increased. When NCLB was passed, some states did not have adequate data systems to allow student performance to be tracked from year to year. And, the laser-like focus on achievement gaps and the woeful outcomes of disadvantaged students was a long overdue development. Performance on widely

NO CHILD LEFT BEHIND ACT

The No Child Left Behind Act (Public Law 107-110; NCLB) is the name given to the 2001 reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965, the United States's primary federal legislation dealing with K–12 education. The bill was signed into law by President George W. Bush on January 8, 2002, with the majority of the Act's provisions in effect beginning in the 2002 federal fiscal year.

Co-sponsored by major figures in both parties, NCLB marked the most comprehensive overhaul of ESEA since its original passage in the 1960s. In spring

respected assessments, such as the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), has steadily improved over the past decade.

However, concerns and criticisms of the NCLB have been substantial. In addition to philosophical concerns about the expanding role of the federal government in K–12 education, critics have questioned the focus on minimum competency at the expense of all other achievement levels, the unanticipated side effect of narrowing the curriculum due to the testing focus on mathematics and reading, the highly complicated mechanisms for determining adequate performance in schools and districts, and the heavy emphasis on student testing, among other concerns.

In addition, the basic accountability mechanism of NCLB—allowing states to create their own standards, assessments, and passing cut-scores, with remedies and penalties for poor performance created by the federal government—proved to be largely unworkable and ineffective, with some states creating weak standards and low cut-off scores, allowing most of their schools to avoid the mandated interventions. Other states created rigorous standards and ambitious cut-scores, subjecting their schools to significant interventions. This lack of consistency led to a situation in which some states with traditionally weak public schools had few indicators of poor performance, but traditionally strong education states had large numbers of schools under sanctions. The Common Core movement should be viewed as a state-led response to the unanticipated consequences of NCLB's accountability mechanisms.

Although NCLB/ESEA has been eligible for reauthorization for a number of years, little progress has been made, although the current session of the Congress has seen significant progress on this front, with the proposal of several reauthorization bills. The difficulty in reauthorization reflects the fact that if it were proposed today, NCLB would be difficult to pass, because small-government conservatives are unhappy with the federal intrusion into what they perceive to be primarily a state and local issue. Furthermore, liberals today are concerned about the narrowing of the curriculum, lack of resources to comprehensively address achievement gaps, and the growth of testing in public schools.

There are few studies, if any, explicitly linking NCLB to classroom management; however, by examining the trends in research and publications on classroom and student behavioral management post-NCLB, several patterns emerge. Among the most prominent are the growth of research and practitioner literature on the response to intervention (RTI) model and the positive behavior supports (PBS) model. Additionally, a relatively new and large industry has emerged around the collection, storage, disaggregation, and manipulation

of large data sets related to student behaviors. Given NCLB's requirement for using research-based interventions, it is reasonable to infer that the prominence of these practices stems, at least indirectly, from the NCLB mandate.

Research-Based Models of Student Behavioral Management

Multiple studies have examined school and teacher responses to student misbehavior. A trend that remains prevalent is a reactive model in which schools provide sanctions, such as loss of privileges, detentions, suspensions, and expulsions, after an infraction has occurred. Research has generally found that these sanctions tend to increase negative behaviors rather than stopping students from repeating or escalating in the future.

Alternative models to traditional classroom- and school-based discipline have focused on proactive approaches to student behavior management by explicitly teaching expected behaviors as well as establishing procedures for responding to student behavior. NCLB's mandate that 100% of students must meet proficiency has forced schools to examine their disciplinary practices in order to reengage students who exhibited frequent or chronic behavior problems. The most prominent approaches to addressing student behaviors stem from the RTI model and the PBS model.

The RTI model is not a program so much as a systems approach to responding to student academic and social behaviors. It is a three-tiered approach often depicted as a triangle. At the base of the triangle is tier one, which represents the universal expectations for all students. In tier one, all students are subject to the same set of rules and regulations at the classroom and school levels. Tier one interventions are meant to focus on proactive approaches to student behaviors in an attempt to prevent rather than react to student misbehavior. RTI posits that 80%–90% of student behaviors will be addressed in tier one and do not need any additional supports.

Tier two represents an increased level of intensity of student behavioral management. It is estimated that 5%–10% of the student population will be served by tier two interventions, which include more frequent, small-group interventions such as social skills groups or counseling.

Tier three interventions represent the most intense level of involvement. An estimated 1%–5% of students require tier three interventions, which include frequent one-on-one interventions, developed on a case-by-case basis, to address the unique needs of the individual student. These interventions might include individual counseling sessions, more severe disciplinary consequences

such as suspension or expulsion, or a referral for evaluation for special education.

An important component of RTI is the use of universal screening procedures and the identification of students in need of intervention. On the academic side of the RTI triangle, universal screenings usually take the form of standardized or common curriculum-based assessments that teachers and administrators can use to sort students by their present levels of academic performance. On the behavioral side, the universal screening process is frequently determined by the number of times a student is involved in disciplinary infractions and the manner in which the student responds to interventions.

As a student moves through the tiers of intervention, he or she increasingly works with specialists. At tier one, interventions are established by the school and implemented at the classroom level. At tiers two and three, the student may be involved with the school administration, school counselors, social workers, school psychologists, and/or student behavior specialists.

The core of the RTI model is the expectation that tier one interventions create a universal, schoolwide culture and climate that establishes clear expectations for student behaviors and is proactive in its approach to student behavior management. One program that lends itself to this goal is the PBS model. PBS is a whole-school approach to behavior management that identifies several core values in each school and explicitly instructs students on what those values look like in practice within specific contexts such as within the classroom, the hallway, or the cafeteria. The primary goal of PBS is to prevent student disciplinary problems through instruction and reinforcement of positive behaviors.

A hallmark of PBS instruction is the use of affirmative (positive) language, which cues expected behaviors, rather than negative language, which only tells students what not to do. For example, if a student is running in the hall, a teacher may rather than saying "Do not run in the hall" (negative) cue the expected behavior, "We must walk in the hall" (positive). Another important element of PBS is the recognition of students who are on task and behaving appropriately. Recognition could take the form of tangible rewards or privileges or public acknowledgment of positive behavior (such as a student-of-the-month award).

Similar to the RTI model, it is expected that a great majority of students will respond appropriately to PBS and may need no additional interventions. The theory of action underlying PBS explains student misbehaviors as being not necessarily expressions of willful defiance but rather of not knowing what is expected of them. Additionally, creating a positive culture provides attention to students who behave appropriately and, in the process, creates a positive peer pressure that may bring

along other students who might otherwise act out for the negative attention they receive.

The research on PBS tends to focus on implementation at the elementary or middle school levels. Studies of PBS implementation at these levels have demonstrated significant changes to school culture and reduced incidents of student behavioral infractions. However, studies on PBS implementation at the high school level are still few, and findings are inconsistent. Some of the challenges facing high schools that seek to implement PBS include normative and contextual differences between high schools and elementary and middle schools. Understandings and expectations for behavior in high school are perceived differently by faculty, students, and parents. Some perceive PBS as a model for younger students, and, as a result, efforts to implement PBS at the high school level have not always been successful.

The concepts behind these approaches are not new; however, they do provide a more systemic approach to creating a positive school climate and addressing student misbehavior. Additionally, they provide a more data-driven approach to student behavior management than the traditional disciplinary approach, which provides punishment rather than instruction. Prior to NCLB, schools were able to exclude students who exhibited frequent behavior problems. However, the 100% proficiency mandate and the threat of sanctions for schools not meeting adequate yearly progress forced schools to find new ways to reach the previously disconnected portion of the student body. This led not only to finding new approaches and programs designed to address student behaviors but also to a move from a trial-and-error approach to a research-based and data-driven approach to student behavioral management.

Data-Driven Decision Making and Student Information Systems

Perhaps one of the most significant effects of NCLB on classroom management can be seen at the whole-school level through the use of student behavioral data to identify issues of concern and to evaluate the efficacy of planned interventions. Although the movement behind data-driven decision making was well under way before NCLB, it grew increasingly prominent after the act was passed. Hand-in-hand with documentation requirements under IDEA, student data management systems emerged to collect, disaggregate, and manipulate student data. Beginning first with systems designed to track student achievement data, student behavioral data soon followed. Beyond simply tracking and analyzing student test scores, schools began to apply similar procedures to analyzing student behavioral data.

In response to demand from states and districts seeking ways to collect and analyze student achievement and behavioral data, many student information systems were developed to provide full-service application suites for districts, allowing them to track student demographic information as well as academic and behavioral data. Many of the major educational publishing companies have developed full-service student data systems; however, not all of these systems offer the same level of tracking or manipulation. Some school districts have contracted with multiple vendors to secure the ability to collect and analyze data as needed.

Typically, these systems track multiple data points, such as student attendance and behavioral referrals. For behavioral referrals, these systems usually track the type of incident, the time it occurred, the location it occurred, and names of other students involved. Schools can use this information to find patterns and develop interventions to proactively address future incidents. For example, when tracking a pattern of physical altercations, a school may discover a time of day these tend to occur, as well as a location (e.g., in a particular corridor around lunch time). Based on that information, schools can take decisions about staffing patterns and supervision, assigning additional staff according to those times and places they are most likely needed.

Beyond simply tracking student behavior, these data provide valuable information when developing individualized student plans or evaluating students for special education. New guidelines for referring and identifying students for special education require classroom-based and small group interventions before a referral to special education. For students who need more intensive tier two or tier three programs, the staff that provide the interventions must track the specific interventions and how the students respond. Such information provides a robust data set that can be used when conducting a functional behavioral assessment or when considering the appropriateness of a special education placement.

States have also used large-scale student behavioral data to analyze and change state-level policy. For example, after tracking decades of student suspension data, the State of Connecticut discovered that a disproportionate number of out-of-school suspensions were assigned to students of color. Coupling this with contemporary research on the inefficacy of suspensions to change student behavior as well as the negative impact of suspensions on student learning, the state issued new guidelines to school districts restricting the use of out-of-school suspensions. The guidelines have created narrow limits for the use of

out-of-school suspensions, restricting them for only dangerous offenses or in cases where all other interventions have been exhausted.

The linkage between NCLB and the foregoing elements is more conceptual than formal or legalistic. NCLB created fertile ground for these other movements to take root and blossom. In particular, NCLB's requirement for adequate yearly progress and minimum participation rates forced schools to attend to lower performing students as well as students who exhibited frequent behavioral problems. Knowing that the required growth rested largely with this portion of the student body, schools were forced to develop academic and behavioral interventions to meet the annual increase in proficiency rates.

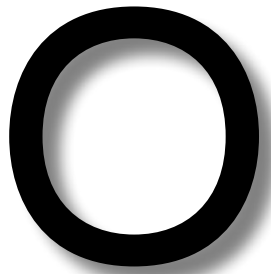
Additionally, NCLB's reliance on student assessment and research-based interventions aligned with the programmatic elements of RTI and PBS. Finally, schools could no longer afford to use guesswork when responding to student misbehaviors. This led to the burgeoning of data-driven decision making and the use of student behavioral as well as achievement data to plan, implement, and assess interventions.

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See also Evidence-Based Classroom Management; High-Stakes Testing; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports

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OCCUPATIONAL THERAPY AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

See School-Based Occupational Therapy; Sensory Integration

OFFICE REFERRALS

An office referral is either a paper-based or electronic report sent to school administrators for the purpose of giving a detailed account of an incident when a student's behavior has been perceived as breaking the school's code of conduct. Office referrals become a recorded and permanent part of students' cumulative records and often lead to the most common punishments by school administrators, namely, in-school and out-of-school suspension. This entry gives details about how office referrals are used in the daily life of schools, what happens after a student receives an office referral, and the advantages and disadvantages of writing office referrals.

Use of Office Referrals in U.S. Schools

Teachers write referrals when they feel that a student's behavior is disruptive to the learning environment and requires assistance from school administrators. Teachers typically have broad freedom with regard to when and under what circumstances they will write a referral. In some classrooms and schools, teachers and other educators follow an agreed-upon procedure that gives students a certain number of warnings before receiving a

referral, whereas in other classrooms and schools, teachers may issue a referral at their discretion.

To write a referral, faculty and staff complete either an electronic or paper-based report. The paper-based report usually contains multiple different-colored copies used to keep in the office, submit to the student's permanent file, and send home to the student's guardian. An office referral form typically includes student information, the time and location of the incident, a description of what occurred, a code for the type of incident being reported, and space to record the consequences that educators administer. When teachers issue a referral, administrators are promptly notified and students are either sent directly to the office or else wait to be called by an administrator.

On the referral form, educators must choose a code to describe the type of behavior being reported. Examples of these codes include *classroom disruption*, *fighting*, and *stealing*. While codes are standardized across a school and usually across a school district, how they are used is not standardized, meaning that one teacher's coding of a behavior as *disruptive* may not match another teacher's understanding of disruptive behavior. Nevertheless, codes are used to determine the punishment to be administered. Referral codes are also used by state departments of education to collect data about student behavior at each school.

All states choosing to comply with the Title IX provision of the No Child Left Behind Act must collect data that can be used to identify when schools are *persistently dangerous*. Each state can determine the criteria for labeling a school in this way, but federal mandate requires that students attending persistently dangerous schools be given the option to transfer to a school that does not carry that label. Example referral codes that a state might use to determine whether a school is

persistently dangerous could include *assault involving the use of a weapon* or *selling a controlled substance*.

The federal Office of Civil Rights in the Department of Education also collects data reported from office referrals to identify when students from marginalized groups, such as those receiving special education services, are disciplined. Similarly, many state departments of education collect office referral data for selected infractions as well as for selected punishments, which are also coded. For instance, many states collect data regarding the number of suspensions and expulsions that schools issue. These data can be used to identify trends over time, with an increasingly common use being the assessment of the effectiveness of schools' strategies to prevent disruptive behavior.

The increased use of and advocacy for positive behavior interventions and supports (PBIS) has led many educators to question the widespread use of office referrals and punishments. As a consequence, many educators are now making a concerted attempt to reduce the number of office referrals, suspensions, and expulsions.

What Happens After a Student Receives a Referral?

When a student receives a referral, it is reviewed by a school administrator, who must determine the next steps for addressing the referral. Most often, the administrator will talk with the student about the incident and then issue a consequence according to the school's or district's discipline matrix or code of conduct, which specifies which infractions receive which types of consequences. Most discipline matrices allow flexibility and give administrators several options in choosing punishments, which can range from the least severe, verbal reprimand, to the most severe, recommendation for expulsion.

As students commit subsequent offenses, the punishments become harsher. For example, a first offense of defiance might receive 2 or 3 days of in-school suspension or another school-based punishment such as detention or work detail; a second offense might receive 4 or 5 days of in-school suspension; and a third offense might receive 2 or 3 days of out-of-school suspension.

Typical school and district discipline matrices increase the severity of the punishment as consequences become harsher. However, determinations of severity are subjective, as evidenced by the wide variation across schools of the exact number of suspension days assigned. In some districts, increments of suspension may start with 2 days and increase by 2 days with each offense, so that a second offense would receive 4 days of suspension, and a third offense would receive 6 days. In other districts, increments may increase by 1 day or

have some other sequence of increase, such as 3, 5, and 10 days.

States also vary widely with regard to maximum allowable punishments, with some states capping the number of subsequent days that a student can be suspended out of school at five, while others cap it at 10 and still others do not cap it at all. Similar types of behaviors can lead to very different punishments across schools.

Regardless of the punishment received, the office referral is recorded on the student's permanent record, which includes all information about a student's academic, attendance, and behavioral performance. Educators may use a student's behavior record to make decisions about the student's academic career. For example, a student's number of referrals may be considered if the student applies to a special academic program, such as a magnet school or a credit retrieval program. In some schools and districts, when a student receives a certain number of referrals, he or she becomes eligible to be sent to an alternative program for disruptive students.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Using Office Referrals

Office referrals allow teachers to receive assistance from administrators in handling student behaviors that may make the classroom unsafe or the environment unfavorable for learning. However, while students' receiving a referral and experiencing consequences can seem like an objective process, teachers' decisions to write a referral, the coding of the behavior, and the administration of punishments are all subjective in nature. The most commonly used referral code is *disruption* or *defiance*, which can include any behavior that the teacher views as different from what he or she would like the student to be doing.

One ongoing and serious problem in this process of coding behaviors as disruptive or defiant is that the process is often culturally biased; behavior considered disruptive from one cultural perspective may not be considered disruptive from another, so cultural differences between students from one culture and educators from another culture can lead to increased instances of disciplinary actions. This observation has been used to explain the discipline gap between White students and students of color, with students of color receiving more office referrals and harsher punishments than White students even for the same types of behaviors.

Just as a small number of teachers at each school write most of the referrals, a small number of students at each school receive those referrals. Many educators refer to these students as "frequent flyers," though that term does little to address the causes of, or solutions to, the students' challenging behaviors. These students are

persistently disciplined in their school environments and often end up on the school-to-prison pipeline, which may begin when they receive office referrals. Although office referrals provide a safety net for teachers when students' behaviors cannot be handled within the classroom, the use of referrals can also have significant, and potentially negative, ramifications for students and schools. Therefore, office referrals should be used judiciously and only when all other means of addressing the behavior, including teacher professional development, have been exhausted.

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See also Discipline Codes of Conduct; Disruptive Behaviors, Positive Approaches to; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; Schoolwide Discipline Policies; Suspension and Expulsion

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OFF-TASK BEHAVIOR

A curriculum can be aligned to standards, a course storyline worked out, and content built that is thoughtful and open to extension and remediation. Student tasks can be carefully worded, with a high cognitive demand, and allow for investigation of the big ideas. Various types of formative and summative assessments can be ready to go, and everything can seem to be in place for an amazing year of learning; and yet, it is almost guaranteed that not all students will end up succeeding at a necessary level.

Off-task behaviors are, of course, natural and to some extent normative in the early years. But they become highly problematic later on, especially in early high school when off-task behavior seems to peak. Because they present problems for students, teachers, and a class as a whole, we need to understand off-task behavior, its causes, and ways to manage it.

Playing Along

As it turns out, students do well if they just *play along*. Although preferable, they do not even have to be highly motivated and inherently curious; students who show up and simply do what is being asked (respond to the warm-up, come in having worked on some ideas from the homework, thoughtfully participate in the discussion) end up doing great work and showing a depth of understanding that is far more than what's needed for state or national monitoring tests.

But this challenge of getting students to *play along* is much harder than it appears. The temptation to avoid hard work—to avoid thinking—is tough for many students to overcome. Sometimes, the content loses out to the immediate desire for information about the coming sports game. Or the beguiling allure of a classmate's perfume. Or the pressing hype of the details of lunchroom drama. Or, sadly, the most riveting lesson can be lost on a student suffering from lack of sleep, nutrition, or feelings of safety.

Whatever the reason for a student being off-task, a carefully planned, crucially articulated lesson ends up being missed. And the opportunity to learn passes by, with only the hope that the student now takes it upon himself or herself to seek ways to get what was missed, often completely unaware that there will be no way to recreate the germination and subsequent flow of ideas in the way they naturally occurred and built upon one another as the lesson unfolded.

Minimizing off-task behavior, in other words getting as many students to *play along* at any one time as humanly possible, becomes the name of the game in two ways: for the success of each individual student's learning, and also for the health of a community of learners that rely on the insights and ideas of each other to make sense of the world around them.

Assumptions About Preventing Off-Task Behavior

One common underlying assumption of teacher preparation courses is that if teachers make their courses engaging, then students' innate desires to learn will make everything work out well for everyone. And while this assumption is not by itself enough, it is true to the

extent that there are many things teachers need to prepare well for, in order to help students *buy in* and become thoughtfully involved in the content.

Teachers themselves are apt to assume that simply having a good relationship with students is the trick to preventing off-task behaviors and motivating students to learn. The problem with this simplistic diagnosis is that it ignores a logical consequence. Productive relationships with students are no doubt a *necessary* component, but as it turns out, they are not *sufficient*. It is better to aver that without a decent relationship, the probability for success is lowered. However, for many students who put in the time and effort it takes to truly *learn*, it takes more to stay on task than a fleeting desire to please an adult.

Still another common assumption, one often not heeded enough, is that students stay on task when they experience the content of a lesson or project as relevant and worth their effort. The way that this occurs may be dependent on the subject area. For example, it may mean a complete philosophical shift in orientation for some in mathematics education, so the course content advances by way of realistic and varied situational contexts given to students. But for a student to really do what is needed to understand, there needs to be some intrinsic belief that the content is worthwhile and useful to know. Teachers have the responsibility of convincing students that knowing stuff makes their lives better.

Managing Off-Task Behavior

Even with an informed pedagogy and engaging curriculum, relationships fostered with students, and the course organized around ways to impel curiosity, there are no guarantees that you can hook all students. In fact, the brutal reality is that off-task behavior is inevitable. So preparing to manage off-task behavior is essential.

As with many behaviors, a student being off task can quickly spread and infect the decisions of classmates. For this reason, it's important to handle off-task behavior when it is an individual issue and not a pandemic one. There is a delicate homeostasis at work, and if the balance tips away from productivity on a larger scale, it will take drastic and exhausting work to get it back. There are lots of approaches available to correct a student's off-task behavior, but the bottom line is that teachers must be on their toes and constantly send the message that in their class, students work and think.

One final consideration when students begin to exhibit off-task behavior is a fundamental one—considering *why* they are checking out in the first place. There are many possibilities, and it is usually some combination of parts of all of them. Potentially, the content of a lesson may not be at the right level of difficulty. Students may either recognize it as too easy or *beneath*

them, or alternatively, they may not immediately know what to do and decide that they *can't do it*. In both cases, students opt for off-task behavior.

When the work feels too easy, often it is because students are not convinced that the work has a purpose. And in some cases, they may be right, and the task probably should have been scrapped. But in most cases, it is more likely that they are not seeing the underlying need. The responsibility then lies on the teacher to more clearly communicate the rationale for the assignment, so that students are aware of the otherwise hidden purpose.

When students instead feel that the work appears too difficult, it may be helpful to talk about habits of mind (like perseverance) as part of the course and be explicit about what it feels like to encounter a situation where it is not immediately clear where to begin. Often, this will need to be followed up by teaching some content-specific strategies. Once students learn to recognize problems as challenges instead of ones they do not believe they know how to do, they are more likely to employ strategies to “dig in” and stay engaged longer.

Conclusion

When students are off task and not engaging, the question has to be asked: Are students investigating *their* question? Because if not, and they are only looking for the answer because the teacher wants them to, then only the students who feel like playing school that day will oblige. To raise the chances of all students playing along, the classroom needs to be reactive to student ideas and questions, as well as honor curiosity. Ideally, tasks can be altered to elicit wondering, and opportunities can be taken advantage of to use these as the foundation for the learning.

As noted earlier, off-task behavior is inevitable in classrooms, even in classrooms that are superbly designed and managed. Because off-task behavior can cause serious problems, intervention works best when it is shaped to address the cause or causes.

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See also Fostering Classroom Engagement; Motivation, Intrinsic and Extrinsic; Motivating Students; Proximity: Meaning and Uses; Teachers' Language to Motivate Effort

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OPEN CIRCLE

Children learn best and most productively when they are engaged in school environments in which they feel safe, attached, and competent. Open Circle is a school-based social and emotional learning program that teaches and supports the competencies young students need to become responsible and successful members of school communities.

Social and emotional competence is widely documented as an important pathway through which children and adolescents navigate academic and social expectations. Students identified as socially and emotionally competent tend to achieve at higher levels than peers lagging in these developmentally important skill areas. Acquisition and practice of social and emotional competence in early childhood has been shown to predict socially and emotionally competent behavior in middle childhood and adolescence, which in turn is associated with greater academic gains and social inclusion.

The purpose of this entry is to describe Open Circle, a school-based social and emotional intervention program that aims to increase young students' social and emotional competence. It will also present evidence that Open Circle reduces difficult behavior, promotes academic achievement, and improves the overall schooling experience.

Delivery

Open Circle is designed as a schoolwide approach to be implemented by classroom teachers within their home-rooms. The goal of the program is to foster social and emotional learning among students while assisting them in their acquisition of critical social and emotional skills (e.g., turn taking and emotional regulation). These competency areas and the discrete skills within them greatly influence the degree to which students are able to participate in healthy teaching and learning environments. First piloted in 1987 by researchers and practitioners associated with Wellesley College and today still affiliated with Wellesley College as an initiative through Wellesley Centers for Women, Open Circle is employed nationwide in early childhood, elementary, and middle school classrooms.

Prior to implementing Open Circle, teachers receive specific training in theory and practice of social and emotional development, principles of relationship building and maintenance, and methods for blending social and emotional learning with academic curricula. The program utilizes three thematic focus areas upon which to base individual lessons. These three include fostering a cooperative classroom, interpersonal problem solving, and creating positive relationships.

A typical school year would include 42 main lessons, with an option for 33 supplemental lessons. Lessons are implemented twice weekly for 15–20 minutes each and are structured to include discussions and role-play of authentic school and community situations, which are drawn from the students' real experiences. Through explicit instruction and practice, students acquire and practice a variety of specific social and emotional skills, including problem solving, decision making, cooperating and collaborating with peers, attentive listening, self-advocacy, and recognizing and avoiding dangerous and destructive behaviors. While developing these skills, students learn strategies for taking initiative and making decisions regarding when and how to apply them in various situations.

A core and critical feature of the program is that of physically arranging the classroom space during the lessons to be open and inviting to each class member. Most often, the space is designed around an open format in which chairs and desks are rearranged to represent a circle.

Open Circle has systematic processes for keeping parents and guardians engaged and active in their child's social and emotional learning. Called Home Links, letters are sent home describing Open Circle lessons and sharing ideas for practicing associated social and emotional skills in a family context. Overview presentations geared toward family members regarding Open Circle concepts, terms, and implementation processes are employed regularly by school staff in efforts to keep families current with the social and emotional learning initiative in which their child is active. In addition, parents and guardians are able to participate in workshops provided by the school, which emphasize Open Circle strategies that can be adopted and applied by families.

Impact

Open Circle receives national recognition as an engaging, effective, and evidence-based social and emotional learning curriculum. A leader in the growing segment of classroom-implemented social and emotional competency interventions, Open Circle is recommended by the U.S. Department of Education, U.S. Substance Abuse and Mental Services Administration, and the Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional

Learning (CASEL) as an important school-based program.

Social and emotional competency programs can be difficult to implement, because so many school districts emphasize academic curricula and accountability while failing to explicitly teach social and emotional skills. Open Circle provides, then, a needed method, one that has been successful in improving students' school achievements by way of strengthening individual competencies and classroom community. The effectiveness of the program is widely documented by informal student, teacher, and family testimonials, as well as through formal empirical research. Noteworthy whole-school participation benefits include increased senses of classroom and school community, enhanced school safety and climate, reduced frequency of student discipline, improved classroom management, and improved teacher competency in issues related to social and emotional development. Observed individual student benefits revolve around acquisition and application of social and emotional competencies, including enriched school readiness skills (e.g., listening, sharing, and turn taking), reduced occurrences of problem behavior, improved problem-solving and decision-making skills, and increased prosocial peer-to-peer interactions. Teachers and parents have observed positive social and emotional growth when students participate in Open Circle and have cited the program for helping students develop into caring and responsible members of classrooms and communities.

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See also Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning; Preventing Behavior Problems; Social and Emotional Learning; Social Skills: Meanings, Supports, and Training for Developing

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OPERANT CONDITIONING

See Behavioral Approaches, Foundations of

OPPOSITIONAL DEFIANT DISORDER

Many parents, teachers, counselors, support staff, and even other students have experienced the difficulty of trying to cope with an unruly student who simply refuses to cooperate. Some of these students may have a condition known as oppositional defiant disorder (ODD). These students are often the focal point of a teacher's classroom, in that they often require a large amount of attention, monitoring, and redirection.

Students with ODD tend to behave in a hostile or violent way toward others, especially toward those in authority. These students often lose their temper, argue with and annoy others, frequently defy rules, and are often generally angry and spiteful. Sadly, many students with ODD are removed from the classroom so routinely that they frequently lag behind their age-mates and do not reach their full academic potential nor meet their social needs.

There are many students who act out occasionally or students who have frequent but minor behavior outbursts, but what sets students with ODD apart is the fact that (1) their behavior is causing a significant impairment in their social, academic, or occupational functioning; (2) their behavior problems persist over time despite their being given supports provided for typical students; and (3) their behavior is not the result of another diagnosis, such as a Mood Disorder.

Typically, more severe cases of ODD are diagnosed as Conduct Disorder. Though Conduct Disorder has similar behavior traits as ODD, it tends to be more pervasive, severe, and violent. Additionally, children with ODD who continue to display extreme maladaptive behavior into adulthood are often diagnosed with Antisocial Personality Disorder once they are 18 years old.

Misconceptions of Students With ODD

The frustrating nature of ODD can cause misconceptions and misinformation. One of the most common misconceptions is that ODD is found only in boys. Although males are four times more likely to be diagnosed with ODD, it can be found in female students as well. Some researchers have theorized that boys are identified more often because they tend to act out in more observable and concrete ways, that is, loud outbursts, tantrums, and physical violence, whereas girls may exhibit ODD through more passive styles of aggression, such as manipulation, gossip, and poor attitude.

Other misconceptions are that these students simply have untreated Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD), have no capacity for self-regulation, and do not receive structure or discipline at home. In actuality,

only half of the students with ODD have ADHD, and no single cause of ODD has been found. There have been some findings that show ODD is more likely when at least one parent has a Mood Disorder, ADHD, Substance Abuse Disorder, or Antisocial Personality Disorder. However, a correlation with a parent having a diagnosis does not specify a single cause—such as a genetic cause.

G. R. Patterson and others, using a behavioral theoretical framework, have, however, singled out a particular kind of parenting that is common in cases of ODD that can evolve into conduct disorder, parenting that falls into reinforcement *traps*—such as when a child is not complying with a parent’s reasonable demand, and the parent reinforces the noncompliance by not backing up the demand and instead complains (*natters*) and walks away—only later, out of desperation, to resort to escalating coercive tactics such as yelling and hitting, to get the child to comply. The deficit in this type of parenting is the inability on the part of the parent to be *firm*—to set limits and back them up in reasonable, non-coercive ways. Children who experience such parenting have, then, little or no experience of the benefits of a parent’s being firm when firmness is called for.

Finally, one of the most damaging misconceptions is that children with ODD have below-average or average academic abilities. Students with ODD can be gifted, yet these students typically do not receive the services they need either because of their behavioral issues or lack of identification as gifted. Students with both a learning difference that makes learning challenging as well as above-average academic abilities or talents are at high risk for underachievement and for not meeting their full potential. This is a particular risk for gifted children with ODD because their diagnosis often masks their abilities, and their unmet needs can fuel the anger and frustration that is funneled into acting out, creating a cycle of unmet educational needs.

Helping Students With ODD

So what is one to do when a child with ODD is acting out in the classroom? It is tempting to simply remove the child from the classroom in an effort to preserve the learning environment for the other students, but that is not a long-term solution and ultimately results in the child with ODD falling further behind.

There are a variety of strategies that have had success in meeting the needs of students with ODD. Positive behavioral interventions and supports (PBIS) are rooted in behavioral psychology and emphasize the necessity of identifying the function of a behavior when children act out. For example, Mary, a 13-year-old student with ODD, is throwing a tantrum, screaming, and throwing

books and papers. Her teacher asks her to stop and attempts to redirect her behavior, and when Mary does not comply, she is removed from the classroom and sent to the principal’s office.

PBIS practitioners would examine this scenario more closely to try to identify the function of Mary’s misbehavior. In this example, it appears that Mary often has tantrums and screams when it is time to do math. When she loudly acts out and displays poor behavior, she is eventually removed from the learning environment. Therefore, the maladaptive behavior’s function could be that of enabling Mary to avoid doing her math schoolwork.

PBIS also emphasizes that a behavior support plan that may work for Mary’s tantrums may not work for Mike’s behavior of throwing desks across the room. Each plan is based on individualized interventions and is the product of a multidisciplinary team, typically made up of teachers, counselors, principals, parents, and school psychologists to ensure multiple perspectives and a holistic view of the child. The team performs a functional behavior assessment (FBA) to determine specific functions of behaviors and to learn more about the variables that relate to behaviors, such as the variable of academic subject matter (math) in the previous example of Mary.

The team works with the student to select interventions and develop a behavior support plan to help the student engage in fewer problem behaviors and in those that are more appropriate and prosocial instead. Strategies for modifying the environment, including the curriculum and interactions with peers and teachers, are implemented, and there is a concerted effort to replace the problem behavior with a prosocial behavior. In Mary’s case, it may be decided that she will work with a paraprofessional during math or will be given rewards when she asks to excuse herself when she feels herself becoming angry and wants to act out. The behavior plan should also include additional strategies to ensure that new skills are reinforced and learned.

Unfortunately, regression is likely when the plan is not implemented fully or is done inconsistently, so it is imperative to monitor the student’s progress to ascertain the effectiveness of chosen interventions. If a child’s behavior is not showing any marked improvement after a reasonable amount of time with interventions in place, it is important that the team reassemble to update and modify the plan.

PBIS emphasizes that it is futile to attempt to force the child to fit to the environment, particularly when working with children with ODD, but instead the environment must adjust to the child to achieve not only a more conducive learning environment, but also to allow the student the opportunity to meet his or her

full potential. PBIS is not an easy fix; however, it has been shown, over time, to be successful in redirecting students with ODD maladaptive behaviors. The key for successful implementation of PBIS is the employment of a collaborative approach that involves key personnel in the school and in the child's home working together and applying interventions consistently and in a variety of settings to ensure that the child is receiving the support needed.

Alternate strategies can either be used alone or in conjunction with PBIS or other comprehensive plans with the goal of reducing maladaptive behavior. Potential classroom management strategies include using humor to help defuse situations. This is a key strategy when working with students with ODD because it is pivotal to stay unemotional and to not feed into their hostility. Humor can humanize authority figures and can also pleasantly surprise angry students and redirect their behavior. However, humor must be used cautiously and within reason; students with ODD are sensitive to put-downs and other negative messages, so humor should not be at the child's expense and should never be sarcastic or mean-spirited.

Nonverbal communication can also help defuse situations in a low-key and nonconfrontational manner. For example, when a teacher notices that Sara is not focusing on her work and is staring out the window, instead of drawing the other students' attention to the matter and possibly escalating the minor behavior issue into a tantrum, the teacher can catch Sara's eye and simply point at her or his watch. By this gesture, the teacher is conveying a nonverbal message that Sara has a limited amount of time to complete her work and reminds her to get back on task in a positive and nonconfrontational way. Nonverbal communication can also be used to affirm positive behavior and encourage the student by recognizing his or her good work. The recognition can be as simple as a smile, a thumbs-up, or a nod, when a teacher notices a student staying on task or displaying positive behaviors.

Another classroom management strategy is giving students choices. Providing choice can be helpful as it encourages autonomy and gives students some control over their schedule. It is important to place some limits on choices, such as offering to work on science homework before or after lunch or showing mastery of a subject through an essay, an oral presentation, a multiple choice assessment, or an artistic representation. Giving students some control over their learning environment encourages differentiation of their curriculum and allows them the opportunity to showcase their talents.

Consistency and structure are pivotal keys for classroom management when working with children with

ODD. It is recommended that classroom rules be clearly established and posted for all students. It may also be helpful to discuss the rules with the student with ODD one-on-one to ensure that the student understands the expectations and the clear consequences when expectations are violated. Some research has shown that students are more likely to follow rules when they are actively involved in the creation of those rules. If possible, allow the class to discuss appropriate behaviors and consequences; this is not only an opportunity to brainstorm solutions but also can contribute to the creation of positive classroom dialogue and allows the students to feel that they are actively involved in the creation and maintenance of their own learning environment.

Still, even with the clearest and best-crafted rules, transgressions will occur. Students with ODD frequently display hostility and resistance to those in authority, so it can be useful to address misbehaviors face-to-face with the student and not in front of other students. Confronting a student with ODD publicly can cause embarrassment, increased hostility, and ultimately damage the student-teacher relationship. Efforts should be made to address transgressions during a calm and respectful private encounter.

Perhaps the most pivotal key when working with students with ODD, whether as a teacher, counselor, school psychologist, administrator, or parent, is flexibility and keeping an open mind. These students can be exceptionally difficult to work with, yet they are burdened both by their often frequent misperceptions of others' intentions as well as by the actual low expectations and negative attitudes that others have toward them because of their behaviors.

Students with ODD tend to do best and potentially can thrive when working in a positive, consistent, and structured environment where their authority figures focus on their strengths. Allowing these students to take an active role in their own educational journey is the key and can help those with special needs to fully meet their potential and become engaged and active learners.

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See also Applied Behavior Analysis; Conduct Disorder; Diagnostic and Statistical Manual (DSM); Functional Behavioral Assessment; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports

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ORDER, MEANINGS AND METHODS FOR MAINTAINING

See Behavioral Approaches, Foundations of; Ecological Approaches; Progressive Education

ORGANIZATION OF CLASSROOMS: SPACE

The organization and setup of a classroom has a huge impact on classroom management. To organize and set up well, teachers must make sure materials and supplies are ready and available for students, ensure the safety of students, and prepare an organization and setup that will help establish the right tone for the rest of the school year. A teacher who knows where his or her materials are located, has a keen sense of the movement of the students about the classroom, and has established a structured yet friendly environment is more likely to have a well-managed classroom for the long run. This entry offers guidelines for organizing a key component of classrooms, namely, the physical space of the classroom. It also provides pointers on where to place materials and furniture so as to establish a better classroom flow.

Organizing to See

Teachers must be able to *see* all that is happening in the classroom at all times. It is wise, then, for teachers to place desks and furniture so that students can be seen. This can be vital for students' safety and for monitoring students' behavior. Therefore, although reading nooks and quiet corners are perfectly acceptable, even desirable, making sure that they are open and visible is important. Remember, if you cannot see the children, they cannot see you and therefore cannot receive the occasional guidance and support they often need. A teacher who can see the entire classroom and knows that all of the children are safe and involved in learning will also be able to attend to small off-task behaviors before they become bigger ones.

Organizing to Have a Place for Everything

A second part of organizing classroom space relates to Benjamin Franklin's motto, "A *place* for everything, *everything in its place*." Franklin may not have had classrooms in mind, but his adage certainly applies to how classrooms need to be organized. If teachers have a place for materials and students, the classroom will appear cleaner and be more organized, more ready for student learning. Labeling and maintaining well-marked areas such as *Homework Turn-In Basket*, *Lost and Found*, and *Notes for the Teacher* will allow students the ownership of placing objects where they belong, making smoother transitions, exhibiting fewer behavior problems, and ensuring uninterrupted flow of the lesson.

Organizing with respect to having a place for everything also means teaching children the procedures that go with materials: practicing how to turn in homework, how to gather materials, and what to do when objects are found on the floor. If students understand both the classroom organization with respect to places for things and the procedures associated with them, classroom management is likely to work well.

Organizing to Reduce Distractions

Along with everything in its place, a prepared teacher also thinks about the organization of certain items such as pencil sharpeners, tissue boxes, and trash cans—items that can cause distractions if not placed properly. For example, pencil sharpeners can create both high-traffic areas and high-noise areas; so moving pencil sharpeners to a far corner and away from students will reduce distractions for those not using the pencil sharpener. Similarly, placing the tissue box near the trash can

prevents tissues from being dropped on the floor where they not only create a mess but also harbor germs. Placing a bottle of hand sanitizer near the tissues and trash can help even more. In other words, strategic placement of often-used items and materials that can be distracting or cause problems if misplaced is important in the organization of classroom space.

Organizing to Make Materials Accessible

A third factor in organizing the physical space of a classroom is making sure that materials are accessible for the students. For younger children, this means having shelves and books at a lower height and in reach of the children. For all children, this means keeping desks and other furniture from blocking materials, so that students do not bump themselves or fall trying to reach materials. In addition, organizing to make materials accessible means making sure that materials are put away properly.

Organizing for Students With Disabilities

Organizing classroom space also means organizing to accommodate students with disabilities. A child with a hearing impairment should have a seat toward the front of class. Students in wheelchairs will need extra-wide aisles and materials that are reachable when sitting.

To make sure that appropriate accommodations are made, teachers can, before the beginning of the school year, try to navigate the classroom as a child with a disability would, for example, by taking a rolling chair and practicing rolling between aisles and around corners. Doing so will serve as a check for any need to widen rows or move furniture to ensure safety and accessibility for all children.

Organizing Seating

Should students sit in straight rows, in desks arranged in clusters, at tables, or in some other arrangement? The answer is, “It all depends.” In particular, it depends on the purpose of a lesson, as well as on the teaching style of the teacher.

With respect to the purpose of the lesson, if cooperative groups are used to have children converse and ask questions, tables or groups of desks might work best. If, on the other hand, children are taking an achievement test where peeking at another student’s answers might be a temptation, straight rows might work best.

As for seating arrangements and teaching style, teachers who use small groups do not mind some productive noise, and so they may encourage teamwork and be comfortable with desks arranged in groups. On

the other hand, teachers who are bothered by noise and who prefer that students work alone would most likely be satisfied with rows of desks.

Organization and the Walls of Classrooms

Along with the overall physical setup of the classroom space, there are a few other factors to consider when organizing classrooms. The first of these is creating a welcoming environment. Regardless of age, students like to enter classrooms where they see color and what interests them and what can make them feel *at home*. Accordingly, classrooms are apt to work better when there are colors and posters and artwork at a child’s eye level—though not so much as to be distracting.

Organizing for Emergencies and for Making Public the Rules of the Classroom

Classrooms should also have visible a list of instructions for emergency procedures, such as procedures for responding to fires, tornadoes, and other emergencies. By including a copy of the emergency procedures or a map showing the location of evacuation routes, teachers model for students how to have a safety plan in place and how to care about safety. Also, visible instructions for emergency procedures help a substitute teacher or visiting adult know and use the procedures without having to take the extra time to ask another teacher. Teachers need to check with their building principal to inquire about the established procedures and whether posting them is allowed, as this practice varies from school to school.

Posting the classroom rules and expectations in a prominent place in the classroom where all can see is also an important factor in organizing classroom space. Regardless of grade level, posting rules and expectations allows a teacher to point to the posting as a quick and easy way to remind children and also allows a substitute or another adult to know the classroom rules and expectations.

Conclusion

In conclusion, organizing the physical space in a classroom deserves careful consideration and planning by all teachers. In particular, organizing space functions to make sure teachers can see and monitor students, have materials and supplies accessible, ensure safety, reduce disruption, and accommodate the special needs of individual children. Finally, organizing space makes it more likely that a classroom will be an inviting and welcoming place, one where children can learn.

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See also Ecological Approaches; Materials in Early Childhood Classrooms; Organization of Classrooms: Time; Space: Elementary and Secondary Classrooms; Spaces for Young Children

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ORGANIZATION OF CLASSROOMS: TIME

Spending time wisely and teaching students how to manage their time can greatly impact behavior and learning in classrooms. A classroom in which time is well planned, where schedules are in place, and where lessons flow smoothly shows that the teacher cares about children's learning. This entry offers ideas for managing classroom time so as to help ensure that every moment can be an optimal learning experience.

Planning Ahead, Teaching Routines and Procedures, Daily Schedules

The first key to time management is of course to plan ahead. Teachers who carefully plan lessons ahead of time are less stressed, less rushed, and much better prepared than those who try to create lessons on the spur of the moment. That is, planning ahead helps ensure that lessons will run smoothly and that less time will be devoted to managing problems.

A second key is to carefully teach routines and procedures. This teaching should start on the first day of school. As the children arrive on the first day, they can

be taught where items (coats, lunch boxes, etc.) should be placed and the routines and procedures (where to turn in homework, how to line up to leave the classroom, etc.) that will be used daily in the classroom. Teachers who take time at the outset to explain routines and procedures spend less time later in the year reteaching routines and procedures and are far more likely to have better managed classrooms.

A third key is to have a schedule of the day's activities clearly posted so that students know what to expect during the day. In upper grades, posting a schedule might mean posting a chart such as the following:

Reading 9:00–10:30

Math 10:30–11:30

Lunch 11:30–12:00

Charts such as this enable older students to know what to expect and limit distracting questions such as “What time is lunch?” And if they nevertheless ask questions about the schedule, a simple pointing to the schedule allows students to look for themselves and maintains the flow of the lesson being taught.

For younger children, a web diagram (a circle with rays or spokes connected to smaller circles around it) or other graphic organizer with the daily schedule will allow children to see what is next in their daily routine. Even children who cannot yet tell time can look at a web or pictorial representation to see that lunch is next on the schedule. Furthermore, by giving the students the schedule, whether in words or pictures, the teacher is more likely to stay on schedule, and there will be less interruption of the daily routine, and the time on task will be much better.

Transitions

Another way that organization of time can help in the classroom is by creating and practicing smooth transitions. Whether the transitions are from one subject area to the next, such as switching from reading to math, or transitioning to the next place, such as moving the entire class from the classroom to the cafeteria, the smoothness of transitions is vital to good classroom management. If a teacher spends too long getting students from one subject to the next, or has to look for materials in the middle of the lesson while transitioning to a new topic within the lesson, the smoothness of the lesson will be disrupted, increasing the likelihood that children will lose interest or misbehave.

Managing transitions well also means giving students verbal cues. Doing so helps students know when activities are to be concluded and helps prepare them

for the next activity in the schedule. For example, in a middle school science classroom, students may be doing an experiment that involves many materials and steps. If a teacher gives a time warning, students will be able to effectively finish the project, clean up, and wait for further directions, allowing the flow of the lesson to go smoothly. A simple cue such as “You have five more minutes to finish recording your results and to put the materials from the experiment in their proper containers” lets students know both the amount of time they have to complete the task and something about what completing entails.

For younger children, telling the children they have until zero to clean up their materials can help with time management as the teacher slowly counts down from 5–4–3–2–1–0. When teachers use this method, the children know what is expected of them and will be less likely to misbehave. Cleaning up after a project and end-of-the-day routines can be especially stressful times for young children. However, by offering a countdown for such procedures, the teacher can limit distractions and focus the children’s attention.

Teaching Time Management Skills

Another way to use time effectively in the classroom is to actually teach students time management skills. For very young children, this may be accomplished by setting kitchen timers for an allotted amount of time to complete a task or by giving verbal reminders about where they are in a time-limited task.

For older students, this may be accomplished by providing an agenda or syllabus for completing a long-term project. For example, in high school, teaching students to complete a *To Do* list or calendar of activities will help them manage a lengthy project such as a term paper. If teachers teach students to allow a week for research, a week for typing, and a final week for editing, and then check to see that the students are indeed on task, the students will be far less stressed, the teacher will be aware of the work in progress, and the projects will be far more likely to be completed on time. By teaching time management skills to students, the teacher not only teaches skills important for learning in school but also teaches important life skills for being successful outside of school.

Managing Time Outside of School

Managing time outside of school is also an essential part of being organized for better classroom management. How one organizes time for one’s personal life deeply affects how time gets organized for better classroom management. Being part of a bowling league on Tuesday

nights might necessitate working longer on Monday nights. Raising small children who need to be picked up after school may necessitate taking full advantage of early morning preparation time. Caring for an aging parent after school may necessitate putting aside time on weekends to prepare for teaching. Teachers who work around their personal schedules rather than let their personal schedules get in the way of planning for the classroom experience less stress and plan better.

One practice that helps with remaining organized and ready to teach is having all materials and plans for the next day out and ready before leaving school. Knowing that the classroom is ready and prepared for the next day is beneficial. First, one never knows when an emergency or sudden illness may happen, and second, the feeling of walking into a prepared classroom each morning saves time and energy and reduces stress.

Think about the practice of having materials and plans for the next day ready before leaving school as comparable to cleaning up after dinner. One can either clean up right away or leave the mess for the next morning. Choosing the first option saves time and energy because the food is less “stuck” and easier to take care of in the moment. It also eliminates the stress that can occur when walking into a dirty kitchen the next morning. In a similar way, taking the time to clean up and prepare for tomorrow makes walking into the classroom a less stressful experience as a teacher can feel relaxed knowing that the room is ready for the start of the next school day.

Organizing for the Long Term

A final area of organization of time is to engage in both short-term and long-term planning and preparation. Whereas many beginning teachers focus on the week and on simply getting through the curriculum, more experienced teachers know the importance of also taking a look at the long term. Knowing that there are standards to meet and a great deal of information to impart in only 9 months can be overwhelming to many teachers. And so it is important to look carefully at the curriculum to make sure that lesson plans are well timed and synchronized with the flow of the school year so as to foster the most effective connections to children.

Specifically, in planning for the long term, it is important to think about the time periods in which subjects are taught and activities occur. For example, a week before a long holiday break, children are often “wound up,” making classroom management harder. During these weeks, building in hands-on activities, special projects, and exciting curriculum can help with classroom management, especially when students are reminded that the activities, projects, and exciting curriculum are special privileges that go hand in hand with expectations about their good

behavior. In other words, time management is not just about getting through the day. It is also about planning the entire school year with classroom behavior in mind.

Conclusion

Organizing time is an important element of classroom management, which creates smoothness in the flow of the classroom and facilitates transitions so as to increase student learning and time on task. In addition, children who see that their teachers are well prepared are far less likely to misbehave. Furthermore, teaching students time management skills allows students and teachers to concentrate on the learning at hand. Finally, organizing time outside of school helps teachers to prepare both for the long term and for each and every school day.

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See also Ecological Approaches; Organization of Classrooms: Space

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P

PARENT–SCHOOL COLLABORATION

One component of effective schools is genuine partnerships with families. Children benefit when the adults in their lives work together. This includes the adults who teach and the adults who parent. To a certain extent, therefore, children’s learning and school success depends on genuine school and family partnerships, partnerships characterized by strong communication, shared concerns and goals, and consistent expectations. This entry focuses on what makes for good home–school partnerships, namely, parent–school collaboration.

Parent–school collaboration depends first of all on parent involvement in schooling and on parent engagement. Parent involvement includes attendance at parent conferences and volunteering in the classroom. Parent engagement takes the home–school partnership further as parents become fully engaged in children’s learning and in the life of the school. Parent engagement is not, then, comprised of one or two activities. Rather, it is built into the fabric of the school’s functions, and it is central to the responsibilities of the school’s personnel.

Learning in the Home

Learning begins before birth and continues with early skills and knowledge developing in the home environment. The essential skills of regulating emotions, attending with interest, and communicating with others have their foundation in early interactions with family members. These early skills take form in interactions with family members, and, in turn, form the basis for how children interact when they enter school.

Much of the predisposition for participation in school is based upon the day-to-day, culturally formed

interactions within families. Interpersonal exchanges such as those involved with feeding and discipline, the types of activities and settings children participate in, and the values that parents transmit to their children, all contribute to children’s readiness for and success in school.

Particularly relevant is the family’s use of language for various kinds of communication. Parents who regularly talk about what children see and do prepare children for the kind of dialogue that takes place in North American schools between teachers and students, including when teachers ask questions they already know the answers to. Studies of cultural and socioeconomic variation indicate that such communication is not universal and hence puts some students who have not experienced this kind of question-and-answer dialogue at a disadvantage in adapting to school-like communication.

Some examples of common cultural practices that do not prepare children for school-like communication are when children are raised not to challenge the knowledge provided by others and, instead, are encouraged to tell stories to get a point across. There is, then, a balance between encouraging families to prepare children for the school setting and continuing to value and encourage the deeply held practices that define their culture.

Most recently, literacy practices within family life have received a great deal of attention as a way in which families prepare children for school. During well-child visits, pediatricians now encourage literacy activities. In a similar vein, early childhood programs have recently incorporated more effective practices in starting young children on a path to reading—encouraging parents to do the same. Reading with young children is generally encouraged and, clearly, the family’s role in providing a supportive environment for the development of literacy is essential.

Some parents, for a variety of reasons, cannot read with their children, and other families simply do not provide text-rich environments. For these parents, schools play a fundamental role in supporting a broad range of resources and options for families as they encourage literacy experiences in the home.

Stress and trauma in children's home lives also affect how children do at school. Current research indicates that the brains of infants and young children are altered by severe stress. Children exposed to stressors at home arrive at school often highly reactive to the school setting. They learn differently because their brains have been shaped so that they are vigilant in identifying and responding to any perceived threat. Or, as a way of coping, they withdraw to a degree that they cannot participate fully in classroom activities.

Hence, some children arrive highly tuned to a school environment, and others, for a variety of reasons, come at a disadvantage. For those families at risk for not preparing children well for schooling, home visiting as well as infant and preschool programs such as Head Start have proven helpful. However, the fundamental predisposition for learning and success in school remains under the major influence of culture and the home environment in which children develop.

Effective Schools See Families as Partners

Successful schools effectively engage parents in supporting their children's education—in ways that create a collaborative partnership. No matter what the culture or experience of the family, schooling is more effective when families see themselves as participants in their children's education.

Central to the home–school collaborative partnership is the exchange of information between schools and parents. Parents have critical information about their child, their child's developmental history (e.g., health factors that might influence learning), relations with others (e.g., household and community members who might support or detract from learning), and interests and temperament. Families also have their own goals for their children and their own predispositions about schooling. All of this information is useful in designing ways to maximize a child's education at school. On the other side, the provision of information to parents is requisite. Sharing information about the goals of a school program, the nature of the curriculum, and specific and understandable data about children's performance is essential.

But the simple provision of information from both sides is not enough. When there is an authentic exchange of information between schools and parents that affects the interaction with children both at school and at home,

then children benefit from a coherent system of relationships that enhances their development and learning.

Different Families Engage With Schools in Different Ways

The relationship between parents and educators varies a great deal across cultures. In traditional, nonindustrial societies, education is essentially an apprenticeship in the activities that sustain the community. In other societies, parents literally hand their children over to educators when their children enter school.

In North American schools, middle-class families typically partner more easily with schools than working-class or poor families, because they have the social and cultural capital to do so. That is, they have relationships with other families and school personnel that give them a voice in what happens in their children's education (their social capital), and they have the knowledge, skill, and access to power (their cultural capital).

Furthermore, the values and beliefs of families affect how families take advantage of the opportunities schools give families to participate in the life of schools. Schools often provide a variety of activities and opportunities for parent participation, from individual parent conferences, to opportunities to volunteer, to participation on committees and boards, to open houses and other public events. These can all be valuable and effective opportunities for improving the education of children. However, in the case of many families, especially families not comfortable or not easily able to participate and take advantage of opportunities to participate, these families need extra supports from schools. Genuine partnership through consistent and systematic communication with families supports such participation.

Families also vary to a large degree in how they are structured and in what context a child is raised. Single-parent families, households that include several generations of extended family members, and those who may be homeless are among the different family structures and contexts in which children are raised. In each case, schools have to identify who may be the most critical family members to communicate with to ensure family involvement in the child's learning. Strong schools adapt to this variation in structure and context.

The expectations and guidelines discussed so far for engaging families in general also apply to families of children with special needs. In addition, there are guidelines covering unique requirements related to the provision of an equal education for children with special needs. But the same expectations for a genuine partnership with schools apply regardless of whether a child has or does not have special needs.

Federal and state regulations govern the inclusion of children with special needs, and schools follow specific guidelines for involving families in the development of individual education plans and adaptations to the school setting, so that their children with special needs have equal access to education. However, again, all of the elements of partnership described for all children apply as well with these families.

Conclusion: How Schools Can Effectively Engage Families

The following is a list of requirements schools can follow to better ensure effective engagement with families:

- **Parents are seen as informants about their children and their children's learning.** Parents have knowledge about their children that teachers do not have. They have a perspective, although less objective, that includes their implicit cultural goals for children's behavior and learning, individual expectations, and history for a particular child. And they may also have expertise that may be useful in developing classroom curriculum and, hence, resources on content such as natural sciences and technology.
- **Communication between schools and families is an ongoing, two-way, and meaningful process.** Parent conferences and open houses are elements of such communication. A fuller partnership emerges when the ongoing dialogue is consistent and available. More importantly, the object of communication is that it is meaningful and of use to both parents and school personnel.
- **Families see the school as a place where they belong.** A welcoming, parent-friendly environment is helpful, as is an attitude on the part of all staff that parents are partners in their children's education. Engagement is the responsibility not only of the teacher or counselor but also of bus drivers, administrative staff, and even maintenance personnel. The physical space can invite parents in or send the message that the space is for teachers and children, not parents. And, again, they may have resources and expertise that can be useful in the classroom or in a broader school setting.
- **The family environment is seen as a place in which learning occurs.** This includes, but is not limited to, homework. Learning that is contextualized in the settings where children live is more likely to be internalized by children. Children spend more time out of school than in school. When treated as competent and capable, parents see themselves as more capable of supporting their children's learning. When made to feel inadequate, they are less likely to be involved in the learning process.
- **Parents are connected to each other and to community resources.** Many parents are socially isolated, and such isolation has negative effects on their children. Schools can be places where parents can meet other families, where they gain knowledge and are empowered by such relationships. They can also be places where connections to other community resources are made, not just those that directly impact children's learning, but also those that contribute to overall family well-being.
- **Parents have power beyond contributions to their own children's learning.** Parent participation in decision making at systemwide, schoolwide, and classroom levels helps build a cohesive and shared responsibility for the community's children. Everyone benefits. As advocates, parents are often the most effective voices in affecting public policy and promoting educational reform.

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See also Home-School Connections; Home-School Connections With Latino Families; Immigrant Children and Families; Inclusive Classrooms; Teachers and Families of Children With Special Needs

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PBIS

See Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports

PEER MEDIATION

Conflict among peers and between students and teachers occurs in the broader context of school and

classroom environments. In schools and classrooms especially, conflicts can disrupt learning and occasionally lead to aggression and violence. It is essential, therefore, that schools develop positive, effective methods for managing conflicts. Peer mediation is one such method. Peer mediation is a process by which youth can resolve conflicts at school in a constructive fashion, using skills for negotiating conflict. Besides helping to bring about constructive resolutions of conflicts, peer mediation can promote positive learning environments, school norms of nonviolence, and students' overall social and emotional learning. This entry provides a framework for understanding peer mediation in schools, a history of peer mediation in schools, a review of peer mediation's effectiveness, and a discussion of peer mediation's applications for minority youth in urban schools and suggests directions for future research.

Framework for Understanding Peer Mediation

Peer mediation can be appropriately understood using a positive youth development framework, one emphasizing youth's contributions, strengths, leadership skills, and ability to form relationships with others so as to peacefully resolve conflicts taking place at school. Peer mediation is likely to be most effective when school professionals model mediating skills on their own. In so doing, school professionals can foster the development of mediating skills in youth and make peer mediation a resource for resolving conflicts at school.

With modeling, direct teaching, and staff support of peer mediation as a means of conflict resolution, the culture of a school can change from one in which aggression is tolerated to one in which it is no longer tolerated, with youth having a path to solving conflicts without aggression and violence. Peer mediation can be an effective means of resolving a wide range of conflicts, including ethnic and cultural disputes; disagreements resulting from episodes of gossip and the spreading of rumors, including through social media; and episodes of bullying, fighting, cheating, stealing, and vandalism. However, peer mediation is not an appropriate means of responding to illegal activity such as alcohol or drug use, acts of assault, possession of a weapon, or physical and sexual abuse.

Peer mediation begins with careful planning within the school and the identification of a leadership team of youth who then work with trained and trusted adults. Central to the success of peers' negotiating conflict is the development of a good working relationship between mediators and individuals in conflict, regardless of whether those individuals are friends or acquaintances. Critical to the success of the process is for mediators

to first recognize and understand the emotions that are inherent in any conflict, acknowledging those emotions as legitimate, and allowing individuals to express their emotions in a safe way.

Effective communication is critical in peer mediation. Mediators learn skills of active listening, acknowledging what others have said, and keeping the focus on problem solving. Typically, peer mediators work in pairs to help resolve conflicts and are on duty during particular periods of the day, such as lunch, recess, or passing periods. Mediation can also be arranged to occur at other times of the school day. Students can ask for help from school mediators or be referred for mediation by another student, teacher, counselor, administrator, or aide. Participation in mediation is completely voluntary, even if students have been referred.

Aligned with a positive youth development framework, youth can become effective mediators and leaders in peer mediation under the supervision and support of a school staff coordinator. The staff coordinator acts as a liaison among various constituents, including the leadership team of peer mediators, school administrators, members of the student body, groups of parents, and outside professionals and trainers. Studies of youth perspectives on mediation have been very positive, with significant benefits for youth self-esteem.

History of Peer Mediation

Peer mediation has a rich history, as described in a 1998 article in the *Harvard Negotiation Law Review*. With roots in Quaker philosophy, peer mediation had its beginnings in community-based mediation as an alternative to intervention by the courts. The goal of community-based mediation programs was to empower individuals to solve their own problems. In the early development of mediation programs for youth, pioneers such as Richard Cohen, and later, David Johnson and Roger Johnson, established guidelines and specific programs for schools, guidelines and programs that taught students conflict resolution and negotiation skills. By the late 1990s, peer mediation was being implemented in schools around the world.

Over time, peer mediation programs have focused on teaching specific skills in conflict resolution, with students learning strategies for negotiating and mediating conflict among their peers. As a result, peer mediation programs have become increasingly standardized, employing consistent protocols and training procedures, some of them now available via online education and training programs. As described by Johnson and Johnson, conflict resolution through peer mediation typically takes one of two approaches: (1) the cadre approach, in which a small number of students are

taught to serve as peer mediators for an entire school, and (2) the student body approach, in which all students in the school are taught how to manage conflicts constructively.

Effectiveness of Peer Mediation

How effective is peer mediation as a means of successful conflict resolution in schools, in particular with the goal of reducing antisocial and aggressive behavior? In a 2007 meta-analysis, Wendy Garrard and Mark Lipsey examined the literature on the effectiveness of conflict resolution programs in reducing antisocial and aggressive behavior and school disciplinary events, such as suspension. The majority of the conflict resolution programs they reviewed employed peer mediation and used a standardized protocol or manual. Garrard and Lipsey found that of 17 studies employing peer mediation, 14 obtained substantial reductions in antisocial behavior. Overall, peer mediation was most effective for older youth, with the largest intervention effects occurring for adolescents (ages 14–17), followed by youth in early adolescence (ages 10–13), and middle childhood (ages 6–9). Overall, the number of school fights dropped by a third in those schools employing conflict resolution education programs (the majority of which were peer mediated), an arguably worthwhile investment for schools.

Clearly, from this meta-analysis, the age of participating students can influence the effectiveness of peer mediation programs, which is not surprising. Adolescents are more likely to have developed the social and cognitive skills to carry out the activities of conflict resolution. In light of this finding, it is interesting that substantial numbers of school districts adopt peer mediation in elementary school and middle school, rather than in high school. The longitudinal effectiveness of youth participation in peer mediation from elementary to middle to high school has not been studied, although studies by Johnson and Johnson, among others, have employed peer mediation programs within an elementary school for as long as 2–5 years.

Peer Mediation for Minority Youth in Urban Schools

In the research reviewed by Garrard and Lipsey, the majority of peer-mediated interventions had been conducted with students from predominately white, middle-class schools. Yet, peer mediation has a great deal of appeal for professionals in urban schools. For example, in Cleveland, Ohio, peer mediation programs have been in place in elementary through high schools since the middle of the 1990s. Beginning in the late 1980s, and as

recently as 2007, a select number of high schools in New York City received funding for training and support in peer mediation. Six schools in Los Angeles, with support from the Los Angeles County Bar Association, have recently launched peer mediation programs, enrolling high proportions of minority students from high-poverty neighborhoods. In Chicago public schools, peer mediation is described as one of many positive options for resolving conflict in the student code of conduct; it is not clear whether there is funding for training and support schoolwide in Chicago as has been the case in Cleveland, Los Angeles, and New York.

Supporting Peer Mediation in Schools

Schools are under tremendous pressure to raise test scores, make adequate yearly progress, and meet the demanding standards of the Common Core. Under this pressure, along with budget cuts, schools may be reluctant to invest dollars and human resources in peer mediation programs. However, researchers in social and emotional learning have demonstrated significant improvements in the academic achievement of students who participate in social and emotional learning programs; likewise, researchers have identified substantial gains in social studies achievement for high school students participating in peer mediation. In order for schools to adopt peer mediation programs in a systematic fashion, administrators need to see the clear academic benefits for students. Researchers can contribute by conducting systematic investigations of the effectiveness of peer mediation on academic outcomes, as well as on antisocial behavior and aggression.

Directions for Future Research

In the middle-to-late 1990s, during the explosion of peer mediation interventions in schools, research had not kept up with evaluating the effectiveness of these interventions. However, since that time, a body of work has accumulated (including literature reviews and a meta-analysis) demonstrating the effectiveness of peer mediation at reducing the number of discipline referrals, suspensions, and overall antisocial and aggressive behavior. Students who become peer mediators report increases in self-esteem; many report liking the option of peer mediation to resolve conflicts. Nevertheless, additional research needs to be conducted with students from diverse cultural, ethnic, and linguistic backgrounds in urban schools. Given the popularity of peer mediation in some urban school districts, it is surprising that more research has not been conducted.

Future research in peer mediation also needs to examine the appropriate developmental timing for its

implementation; that is, during what age and grade span does it make sense to introduce and support the development of peer mediation skills and for how long, in order for peer mediation to be most effective? Longitudinal studies of peer mediation can reveal the key variables for effective mediation in the early grades compared with middle and high school. Furthermore, future research needs to examine the benefits for students at greatest risk for engaging in antisocial and aggressive behavior, particularly over time, and whether the cadre approach to training or the student body approach is more effective. Just as researchers from Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore, Maryland, found lasting positive effects of the Good Behavior Game for students with high levels of aggressive behavior, peer mediation, by changing the norms of a classroom and school, too has the potential to bring about positive effects.

The social world of the school and the power of peers within that world are vital for understanding the effectiveness of peer mediation. That is, by equipping students with skills of negotiation and problem solving along with communication skills, teachers and staff can begin to shape norms for behavior and for class and school climate. In fact, the effectiveness of peer mediation may depend upon the extent to which it helps change the social context in a manner that contributes to positive norms for school behavior. Indeed, as David Henry and colleagues from the Multisite Violence Prevention Project in the United States have found, if school norms reflect nonviolence rather than aggression, those norms can have stronger effects on aggressive behavior in schools than individual students' beliefs about aggression. Clearly, the effective implementation of peer mediation in schools has the potential to change the broader social context of school and classroom environments for the better.

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See also Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning; Conflict Management; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; Quaker Education and Classroom Management

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PEERS AND PEER RELATIONS

School engagement has been defined as the behavioral, emotional, and cognitive orientations that children develop toward school, and evidence suggests that certain forms of engagement (e.g., attitudes toward school, cooperative versus resistant responses to classroom demands, and school avoidance) predict children's achievement trajectories. Most of the research designed to explicate the precursors of children's school engagement has been focused on children's cognitive and linguistic skills, their physical-motor skills, and their socioeconomic and ethnic backgrounds. In recent years, however, it has been argued that classroom peer relations also shape children's school engagement, and this hypothesis has begun to receive empirical support.

Promising lines of investigation are based on the premise that children's participation in classroom peer relationships exposes them to different types of processes (i.e., positive or negative experiences) that, in turn, impact their school engagement. The next three sections review current prominent hypotheses about how classroom peer relationships influence children's school engagement and consider evidence that reflects on these hypotheses.

Classroom Peer Rejection

Peer rejection is defined as how disliked (vs. liked) a child is by group members, and it has been shown that rejected children often act in ways that annoy or harm classmates. Early peer rejection has been shown to predict problems such as negative school attitudes, school avoidance, and underachievement in kindergarten and thereafter. During the elementary years, peer rejection has been linked with behavior problems and academic deficits. Further, rejection in grade school forecasts later-developing problems, such as dropping out of school, truancy, and underachievement.

Two overarching hypotheses have guided efforts to elucidate rejection's effects on children's engagement and achievement. Each hypothesis invokes differing, albeit related, assumptions about rejection-related processes.

Hypothesis One: Rejection Limits Classroom Engagement and Participation

It has been proposed that when peers dislike persons within their group, they act in rejecting ways toward these children (e.g., ignoring, excluding them from activities), and these behaviors become observable indicators of rejection not only for rejected children, but also for the larger peer group. A related hypothesis is that rejection deprives children of social and academic supports (e.g., peer affirmation, tutoring, inclusion in learning activities, study groups) that facilitate learning and achievement.

Examination of these hypotheses is incomplete, but extant evidence shows that rejected children often disengage from classroom activities. In learning groups, for example, disliked children are often ignored or excluded by peers, even when assigned tasks by teachers. Regardless of whether rejection occurs early or later in grade school, children who suffer longer periods of rejection exhibit slower growth in classroom participation. Peer rejection also has been linked with underachievement.

Hypothesis Two: Rejection Engenders Negative Self- and Peer Perceptions

Another influential hypothesis is that peer rejection causes children to develop negative beliefs about themselves and their classmates. These perceptions, in turn, interfere with their school engagement and achievement.

Evidence shows that children who are rejected in grade school tend to see themselves as socially and academically inept. In turn, children who regard themselves as academically incompetent exhibit lower rates of achievement.

Rejection also predicts children's perceptions of classmates. Lucy R. Betts and Ken J. Rotenberg found that peer acceptance mediated the relation between children's trust of classmates and their school adjustment; children who saw peers as untrustworthy tended to be less accepted by classmates and less well adjusted in the classroom.

Taken together, this evidence suggests that peer group rejection discourages participation in learning activities and engenders beliefs that interfere with children's engagement and achievement.

Classroom Friendships

Most children form friendships in school. Unlike peer *group* relations (e.g., peer acceptance, rejection), friendships are *dyadic* and created by mutual consent. Investigated features include participation in friendships,

number of friendships, quality and stability of friendships, and friendship processes (e.g., support, aid, conflict). Three principal premises have guided efforts to understand the role of friendships in school engagement and achievement.

Friendships provide emotional and instrumental support. It has been proposed that friendships contribute to academic engagement and achievement by providing children with emotional security and instructional support. Consistent with these assertions, evidence shows that children who formed and maintained friendships in kindergarten classrooms developed more favorable school attitudes and performed better academically than those who did not. Further, children who saw their friendships as offering support and instrumental aid tended to view their classrooms as supportive environments. Likewise, in studies with adolescents, researchers find that friendship is associated with students' emotional well-being and that emotional adjustment predicts classroom engagement and achievement.

Friendships are a source of conflict. Studies of conflict processes in friendships show that children who experience higher levels of discord in classroom friendships are more likely to manifest negative school attitudes, disaffection during the school day, and classroom disruptiveness. Among kindergartners, it was discovered that those who reported more conflict in their classroom friendships liked school less. In studies of adolescents, conflict in friendships anteceded gains in disruptiveness over the course of a school year.

Friends model social behavior. The premise that friends motivate each other's school success by modeling socially acceptable behavior has received some corroboration. Data imply that children tend to align themselves with friends' goals. In one study, preadolescents who viewed their friends as having lofty academic goals behaved in ways that furthered their own achievement.

These studies suggest that, in addition to peer group acceptance, friendships and friendship processes contribute to children's school engagement and achievement. For younger as well as older students, friendship may provide important emotional, instrumental, and motivational resources.

Peer Victimization

Efforts to identify and study victimized children in school contexts have expanded exponentially owing to educators' and parents' concerns about school violence and safety. Accruing evidence suggests that peer harassment is a relatively age-invariant phenomenon, occurring at all levels of schooling. Two principal hypotheses have guided research on peer victimization and children's educational progress.

Peer Victimization Promotes Poor Mental Health

Peer victimization is seen as a stressor that fosters adjustment problems and weakens children's desire to participate in schooling. Studies suggest that harassment causes children to feel fearful and alienated in school, and these concerns promote school disengagement. In studies with third and fourth graders, victimization forecasted depression, which, in turn, predicted lower grades and achievement scores. Likewise, studies with middle school children suggest that victimization causes psychological symptoms that interfere with school performance (i.e., lower grade point average [GPA], absenteeism). Taken together, the results of these studies suggest that victims of peer harassment are at risk for school maladjustment and that psychological difficulties are one of the mechanisms underlying victimization's negative effects on learning and achievement.

Peer Victimization Promotes Poor Physical Health

Victimization's impact on children's schoolwork may also be mediated through changes in their physical health. Findings show that the combination of peer victimization and chronic abdominal pain was predictive of academic difficulties. Furthermore, peer victimization forecasts declines in physical and psychological health, which, in turn, impair school functioning (e.g., absences, poor GPA).

Victimization, it appears, has the capacity to provoke or exacerbate mental and physical ailments, which, in turn, detract from children's school engagement and achievement. However, because children participate in many types of peer relationships in classrooms, it becomes important to consider the conjoint contributions of these ties.

Contributions of Multiple Classroom Peer Relationships

In recent years, investigators have gathered data on multiple relationships in the classroom and examined the relative associations of these ties to children's educational progress. Findings suggest that relationships make differential contributions to children's school performance.

Studies of grade-school children suggest that classroom peer acceptance and friendships make distinct contributions to the prediction of school engagement and competence. With young children, Gary Ladd found that friendship and peer acceptance uniquely predicted changes in kindergartner's school perceptions, avoidance, and academic readiness. In another study, several

types of peer relationships were examined after adjusting for shared predictive linkages, and some relationships were found to be better predictors of children's school performance than others. Peer victimization, for example, predicted gains in children's loneliness and school avoidance above and beyond associations that were attributable to friendship and peer group acceptance/rejection. In contrast, peer group acceptance uniquely predicted improvements in children's achievement. Overall, these findings were consistent with the view that peer relationships are both specialized in the types of resources or constraints they create for children, but also diverse in the sense that some resources may be found in more than one form of relationship.

Partnering With Classmates for Peer-Mediated Learning Activities

Teachers often create opportunities for classmates to learn from each other by having children collaborate on academic assignments or projects in dyads or small groups. In fact, in nearly 80% of elementary schools and 62% of middle schools, teachers use peer-mediated learning (PML) in their classrooms on a sustained basis. When teachers assign children to dyads or small groups to engage in PML tasks, they are, in effect, creating *temporary peer partnerships* and encouraging children to engage in social interactions that are intended to promote learning.

Not surprisingly, evidence indicates that this aspect of classroom peer relations plays an important role in school engagement, learning, and achievement. However, it is also clear that children differ in their ability to work with peers and, because of this, some are more likely than others to productively engage in PML activities. To account for differences in PML processes and outcomes, researchers have worked from the hypothesis that many children lack *collaborative* skills.

Peer-Mediated Learning Depends on Children's Collaborative Competence

Dion and colleagues report that many school-age children lack communication skills that are essential for PML. Other assessments suggest that peer collaborations break down because children fail to establish shared goals for assigned tasks and because disparities develop in participants' participation (i.e., one child less interested/engaged than others), persistence (i.e., one child stops working or gives up before others), and workloads (i.e., one child does more/less work than others). Moreover, it is not uncommon for work partners to disagree, fight, or disparage each other's work, all of which can derail collaboration and task completion.

Further attempts at skill identification for PML activities have highlighted the importance of seven types of collaborative skills: staying on task, understanding others, communicating and listening, cooperating, emotion/behavior regulating, supporting, and conflict managing. Not only were these skills valued by grade school children and their teachers, but each skill was also linked with positive social and academic outcomes (partner preference, achievement). In third- through fifth-grade classrooms, results showed that the most preferred work partners were those who used the seven types of collaborative skills most often.

Conclusion

There is empirical support for the premise that children's relationships and interactions with classmates affect their classroom participation, engagement, and achievement. Classroom peer relationships appear specialized in the types of resources or constraints they create for children. That is, how peer relationships contribute to engagement and achievement likely depends not only on the functional properties of relationships (e.g., the resources or constraints they confer upon children), but also upon the duration of these relationships (i.e., their history of exposure to specific relationship processes). Extant findings indicate that children's risk for educational difficulties is increased by longer exposures to relational adversities.

Although PML has the *potential* to benefit children socially and scholastically, evidence suggests that children's experiences in this context are not always positive or productive. Children's skills appear to play an important role in their ability to engage in and profit from these activities. When children lack essential collaborative skills, they are not prepared to respond to the academic (e.g., learning, problem solving) and interpersonal challenges (e.g., assisting, supporting partners, resolving conflict) that are inherent in classroom PML activities.

Gary W. Ladd

See also Bullying and Bullying Prevention; Caring Approaches; Climate: School and Classroom; Cooperation and Competition; Cooperative Learning Groups

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PHYSICAL CONTACT AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Many of us remember the affirmation and encouragement provided to us as children at school when a touch on the shoulder or kind tap on the head or, sometimes, even a hug was considered an appropriate interaction between a teacher and student moving in concert to improve the achievement level of the students. As educators, we are taught to support students and appropriate physical contact focuses on the bonding process that makes teaching one of the most intrinsically awarding of all professions.

While the affirmative goal of appropriate physical contact can be understood, there are, regrettably, far too many instances, reported or not, of inappropriate physical contact that violates the trust in educators within and without the classroom itself. Such conduct can and should result in both disciplinary action from the school as well as criminal action from society. The difference between what is appropriate and what is inappropriate is defined by law, all within the parameters of justice and decency. This entry will share some of the legal concerns regarding physical contact with students and offer directions regarding guidelines and actions perceived as appropriate and inappropriate, as well as critical advice. There are several kinds of issues and respective laws that impact physical contact in education. They will briefly be reviewed here. (For further information, see the entry on Law and Classroom Management, this encyclopedia).

Critical Issues and Respective Laws

Reasonable Use of Force

Reasonable use of force is a doctrine common to state law guidelines. It suggests that there can be reasonable, not unreasonable, physical contact such as restraint, that prevents students from being harmed. It is also a doctrine requiring that no harm be done and

that every effort be made to avoid possible charges of negligence or criminal battery.

Corporal Punishment

Corporal punishment is considered to be physical discipline that is corrective in nature and is to be administered following an incident. While some states may allow corporal punishment in public schools for misbehavior in and out of the classroom, these states tend to have restrictions on the timing of the discipline, who witnesses the punishment, reporting to parents, and like-gender characteristics of the student and person delivering the punishment. Further, the law requires that corporal punishment needs to focus on areas of the body that minimize potential harm or bodily injury and the type of written record that needs to be kept regarding the disciplinary incident. Punishing a student through physical action in all areas of the head, genital areas, and other areas of concern, which may also have degrading effects on certain student populations such as the mentally or physically handicapped, may well be considered to be child abuse.

Restraint

Restraint is considered to be *preventive* in nature and is directed at physical contact that is used to prevent a student from harming himself or herself or others. This type of contact can occur if, for example, a student is chasing another student with scissors or another instrument and if the teacher reasonably feels the student can cause harm, and when the student carrying the scissors does not stop after a verbal warning to do so. It can also occur if a teacher steps in to stop an altercation of students fighting, feeling that physical harm might come to one or more of the students. The assumption that physical contact cannot be allowed in situations such as this is erroneous.

Battery

Battery, defined as an intentional and wrongful physical contact with a student, is viewed as criminal behavior. It can result from overzealous punishment to a student directly or indirectly occurring from contact, including corporal punishment and restraint. If corporal punishment is to be administered, it should be done by a neutral party. If done excessively with pain and injury occurring, the so-called corporal punishment may well be criminal battery for which the teacher or administrator may be liable. It is not reasonable force or restraint if the teacher, in preventing a student from hurting

someone, continues to physically commit harm to the student beyond the need to stop the behavior.

Positive Physical Contact

Physical contact that is normatively seen as positive, affirming, and supportive includes such actions as a tap on the shoulder, a “high five,” sometimes a hug at the elementary level, and helping students with jackets before they go home. Further, a coach or teacher helping a student who has fallen or has been injured is acting within the boundaries of the *in loco parentis* doctrine of support that school personnel might necessarily give. What is clear, however, is that such contact does not occur in any situation that might reasonably suggest, or fuel the suspicion, that the contact goes beyond being merely supportive. Regrettably, there are too many instances of inappropriate touching or fondling and sexual misconduct, which may put even the most affirmative teacher and students at risk.

Further, there are some school activities, such as working with special education children with physical disabilities or physical education and athletics, where the need to touch is a necessity to help protect and support young people. However, this type of contact should occur if and only if it is in the best interests of the child.

Essential Guidelines

With the foregoing thoughts in mind, there are several guidelines intended to protect both students and teachers from injurious and inappropriate behavior.

First, because rules regarding physical contact in and around schools are tied to the legal system and the law, it is critical to know the laws of one’s state regarding contact and the district/school rules regarding physical contact in the school, particularly with respect to corporal punishment. It is also critical for parents, teachers, and others to know who to report to if there is any concern about inappropriate physical contact. Even suspicion of such contact should be reported to authorities.

Second, it is critical to focus on the issue of student safety under any and all issues of physical contact and, if at all possible, err on the side of caution. If you do not have background for handling medical emergencies, be cautious of too much involvement without support of others. If a child is hurt in the classroom, remember the rules regarding protecting the child when there is need for help from another source (see *Law and Classroom Management*).

Third, it is critical to use common sense to avoid harming students and/or being accused of inappropriate conduct. For instance, whereas teachers may desire a close relationship with students, it is clearly advisable

to keep a sense of personal distance to avoid any form of interaction that could lead to problems. One should also be careful to avoid unneeded physical contact, with specific concern for avoiding physical displays of affection, and touching students in inappropriate places.

Fourth, it is critical to understand that there is a clear difference in certain circumstances, such as age, mental and physical attributes, grade level, and other student variables, that should influence actions regarding physical contact. An elementary teacher consoling a student with a hug is not the same as a high school teacher hugging a distraught senior of the opposite gender. Teachers should also remain constantly alert to the possibility of student crushes as a factor in student-teacher relationships.

The National Education Association (NEA) notes that men need to be particularly careful in working with young women and teaching in certain areas such as physical education, coaching, and certain activities in the liberal arts (e.g., drama, chorus, and band).

In conclusion, understanding the laws, rules, and regulations of a given state and district, focusing on student safety regardless of the physical contact, and using common sense in recognizing the environment in which educators interact with students, all are necessary for determining when and if physical contact is appropriate. In doing so, there is fulfillment of professionalism and, above all, in keeping students safe, secure, and able to learn, which is, ultimately, the legal and moral duty for everyone.

*Steve Permut, Jenna Ball, Jan Urbanski,
and Arthur Shapiro*

See also Corporal Punishment; Discipline, School and Classroom; Law and Classroom Management; Restraint and Seclusion Policy

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PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Physical education (PE) classes often take place in school gymnasiums or in outdoor spaces. PE calls for somewhat different management practices than those occurring in traditional classroom settings. As in all school settings, establishing a positive learning environment in the PE setting is critical for students to have the opportunity to learn. However, classroom management in a space without desks—and sometimes, even walls—means that teachers must consider how students can move and interact safely during lessons. This calls for space awareness.

Space Awareness

One of the most critical components of classroom management in physical education is space awareness. To establish appropriate classroom management in PE or a physical activity setting, a teacher must first organize and manage space so as to establish a safe learning environment.

As part of a much broader system of movement concepts, George Graham, Shirley Ann Holt/Hale, and Melissa Parker suggest teaching students first about *self-space* and *general space*. Self-space is the space that the body and its parts can reach without traveling from a fixed position. General space is the space that a body can move by locomotion within a defined setting. General space could be within the gymnasium, an outdoor teaching space, or any other defined setting with clear boundaries. Teaching children about self-space and general space, and how to move safely within space (including starting and stopping movement) is a more specific way of defining this critical component of space awareness in PE classroom management.

Protocols, Rules, and Routines

Establishing protocols, rules, and routines for PE should occur during the first class meeting, so that students understand accepted behaviors and can participate in physical activity safely. Teachers must teach classroom rules and provide examples of appropriate and inappropriate behaviors, especially for students in early grades.

Rules are most effective when they are worded in a positive manner, rather than making up a list of *don'ts*. Developing rules with the input of students sends a strong message that they are responsible for establishing a positive learning climate. Student input also reduces the likelihood of students opposing or disregarding classroom rules. Rules should be posted somewhere in the gymnasium or teaching space so that they are highly visible to students and visitors, and they should reflect a respectful and inclusive environment for learning. Rules for PE should also be shared with parents through several means (e.g., newsletter, class website, syllabus).

Routines are the established steps for events that frequently occur in class and they are also critical for maintaining student safety. There are many routines that might occur in both a PE and a regular classroom setting, such as routines for taking attendance and for arrival and dismissal. However, in PE settings, there are several other routines that need to be both taught and practiced. They include, but are not limited to, the following:

- Entering and exiting the locker room and/or gymnasium/activity space
- Starting and stopping activity
- Retrieving and returning equipment
- Grouping for different activities (partners, small groups, etc.)
- Emergency procedures (injured student, fire alarm, etc.)
- Breaks for drinking water or using the restroom
- Lesson closures

Routines need to be modeled and practiced in the first days of class. Students may not learn routines the first time they are taught, so reviewing routines frequently helps students practice the routines until they participate almost automatically. Teachers should provide specific feedback when practicing routines so that students are aware of what they are doing right, or what they may need to improve upon. Demonstrating and practicing routines early in the school year can help to establish a positive learning environment and allow for minimal disruptions during classes because students will know how and what to do in given situations. Some routines will need to be reinforced throughout the school year, especially after long holiday breaks—and in consistent ways. One of the most important factors in maintaining classroom management in PE settings is consistency.

Dressing In and Out

Once students reach secondary grades, the option of *dressing in* and *dressing out* for PE class adds another layer of PE classroom management. If the school has locker room facilities, it may assign lockers to students

for the semester so that students may secure their belongings during class. Teachers must then decide how much time is allowed for dressing in before class and dressing out after class; doing so will affect how long lessons may last. Locker room rules should be posted, and supervision in the locker room should be considered for student safety.

Finally, the question of what students may wear during PE classes will have an effect on PE classroom management. Student safety is paramount; therefore, students should always have on supportive footwear. Sandals, flip-flops, and shoes with heels should be forbidden since they may lead to student injury and may cause damage to gymnasium floors.

Some schools allow students to choose appropriate clothing for participation in physical activity as a way to promote decision making in students. Others insist on PE uniforms. PE teachers must weigh the benefits and consequences of having students dress in and dress out for class activities, as well as the benefits of requiring a PE uniform, when they establish their personal PE classroom management plan.

Consequences

Outlining and communicating the consequences of inappropriate, unwanted, or unsafe behavior to students is just as important as outlining rules and routines. Some teachers choose to post levels of negative consequences near the posted class rules and discuss them on the first day of class. At the secondary level, including the consequences in the class outline or syllabus may be more appropriate.

Content

Regardless of the management choices that a teacher makes, the content included in the PE curriculum also influences classroom management—they are interdependent. If students are not highly engaged in the content presented because of the content itself or the way it is presented, they are more likely to act inappropriately or engage in off-task behavior. If students find the content uninteresting, or if the tasks presented are too challenging or too easy, problem behavior may be the result. PE teachers can engage students by using a variety of teaching strategies, such as by giving students choices and by sharing the leadership and control of the activity with the students so they can be held accountable for learning.

Concluding Remarks

Managing PE classroom settings shares much with managing academic classroom settings. There are

differences, however, especially with regard to managing space awareness and implementing rules regarding movement and space. Regardless of the differences, the same overall principles apply—in particular, principles guiding methods for preventing problem behavior and fostering a positive, warm, and challenging climate where students feel positively connected to both teacher and peers.

Sara B. Flory

See also Beginning the School Year; Routines; Rules and Expectations

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PIAGET, JEAN

Jean Piaget (1896–1980) was a Swiss psychologist whose developmental theory of intelligence—adaptive thought and action—has fundamentally changed the way people think about the growth of the mind. His research and theory have been replicated and supported by investigators all over the world. Although aspects of the theory have been challenged, it remains the world's most widely accepted theory of intelligence.

Piaget's is an *epigenetic* theory. Until the advent of modern science, it was thought that the fetus came fully formed into the world, and that growth was only a matter of increase in size and strength, the so-called *homunculus* theory. Piaget, in line with modern biology and genetics, recognized that new abilities, which are not preformed, emerge in the course of development and are a consequence of both maturation and experience—in other words, epigenetic.

Piaget's theory thus embodies biological, sociological, and psychological components. For example, he uses the biological terms *assimilation* and *accommodation* to explain the development of both the body and

the mind. The infant, for example, assimilates milk and transforms it into nourishment for the body. At the same time, the infant accommodates sucking to the nipple, so that he or she can obtain nourishment.

But people also assimilate new information to existing modes of thought and accommodate existing modes of thought in response to new experience. For example, when people listen to politicians, they assimilate what they hear according to their preexisting political persuasions. On the other hand, they have also accommodated the existing concepts of how information is coded, stored, and communicated in keeping with the concepts of computers and the Internet.

Piaget also argues that mental development has a social dimension in the sense that the child becomes increasingly socialized as a consequence of both mental development and social experience. To illustrate, thanks to emerging mental abilities, the school-aged child, as opposed to the preschooler, is able to judge culpability according to intent rather than to damage done. And thanks to experience, the child learns the language, values, and culture of his or her society.

Although space does not allow for a full account of each stage of development, the following sections outline each stage's major developmental tasks; the entry concludes with observations on the relevance of Piaget's theory and research to classroom management.

Infancy and Object Conservation

To adults, the world appears populated by permanent objects that remain the same whether or not people are looking at or interacting with them. This is not true for the infant, however, and the first 2 years are given over to the task of constructing permanent objects. This is accomplished by the progressive coordination of sensory-motor schemata—mental representations.

For example, in constructing the notion of a permanent object such as a rattle, the child must progressively integrate its perceptual attributes. These include its shape, color, texture, sound, and taste. The child eventually brings all these together into a mental representation of the rattle that permits the infant to appreciate that it still exists when it is not present to the senses.

Conservation is critical to all human thought. As the child matures, he or she must continually construct permanence across apparent change. In the biological realm, the child must appreciate that a pup that grows into a dog is still the same animal. In the physical world, the child must appreciate that a spoon partly immersed in water is not really bent, as it appears to be. In the social world, the child has to learn to distinguish those adults who make a show of liking children and those who really do like children.

Early Childhood and the Symbolic Function

The young infant can respond to *signals*, such as the sound of the mother's voice or her footsteps. Somewhat later, the infant can also respond to *signs*, such as facial expressions, and can even use hand signs to communicate desires. But it is only at about the age of 2 years that the child can effectively use *symbols*, such as words, that bear no resemblance to the object which they represent.

And children can create their own symbols, such as saying *stocks* for mother's stockings and father's socks. Animals can use signals, signs, and symbols, but they cannot create symbols. That is a uniquely human capacity.

Language is, of course, the most important achievement of the symbolic function, and its role in the child's intellectual, social, and emotional development has been well documented.

Childhood and Concrete Operations

The ancient Greeks and Romans spoke of the age of six as the *Age of Reason* and argued that formal education involving rules had to wait upon this development. For the ancients, reason meant the syllogism:

All men are mortal.

Socrates is a man.

Socrates is mortal.

Piaget calls such reasoning *concrete operations* and has shown its relevance for all facets of the child's life, including the social, academic, and personal. This is shown clearly in the child's learning rules that guide behavior in different contexts or situations.

In phonics, for example, the child learns that "When two vowels go walking, the first one does the talking."

In playing with peers, the child learns the rule of *taking turns*. Socialization of all kinds is based on rule learning.

Adolescence and Formal Operations

In their work on adolescent thinking, Piaget and his long-time colleague, Barbel Inhelder, discovered a second form of reasoning that emerges in adolescence. This form of reasoning was first given expression in the nineteenth century in the form of symbolic logic. It is the logic of propositions and truth, which are abstract in the sense they are independent of factual data. It involves reasoning about possibilities rather than realities.

To illustrate, an adolescent who has attained formal operations can entertain contrary-to-fact propositions and reason about them. An adolescent can reason, for example, that in a world in which marshmallows are black, they would turn white when toasted. Such operations also enable the adolescent to deal with probabilities and with second-order symbols such as those used in algebra as well as the words in metaphor and simile. The letters in algebraic formulas and the words in metaphor and simile stand for numbers or words, not things.

Conclusion

This entry can only suggest the richness to be found in the research and theory of Jean Piaget. But what of the relevance of the research and theory to classroom management? Two things in particular: First the research and theory indicate that to create good learning environments and to manage problem behavior effectively (for the long term and not just for short-term order in the classroom), educators must accommodate to the mind of the child. For example, if young children are to regulate their behavior according to reasonable classroom rules, teachers must first stimulate discussion about rules and enlist children in constructing rules—all for the purpose of their understanding the nature of rules and how rules can help classrooms run smoothly.

Second, Piaget's research and theory indicate that teachers must be patient with children, not demand too much, and provide supports for long-term development even as they manage their behavior right now. So, for example, teachers should expect ongoing confusion over rules among young children, and ongoing arguments over what is fair among older children and ongoing challenges to authority among adolescents—because these challenging behaviors are positive outgrowths of development, not *bad* behaviors to be eliminated or simply managed.

In the end, Piaget gives a framework for thinking about classroom management, one that serves more to stimulate wisdom in teachers than it does to provide particular methods for managing.

David Elkind

See also Age and Classroom Management; Constructivist Approaches; Developmental Approaches; Moral Development Theories; Progressive Education

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PLANNED IGNORING

Planned ignoring (PI), also referred to as extinction, is a strategy used to reduce or extinguish disruptive or challenging behaviors. PI is especially effective in a classroom setting as a way for teachers to manage inappropriate and disruptive behaviors. The goal of PI is to remove the reinforcer maintaining the inappropriate behavior and reinforce the more desirable replacement behavior, thereby diminishing the effectiveness of the inappropriate behavior.

For example: Mrs. Smith is a second-grade teacher with 21 students in a small rural school. Jim is a 7-year-old foster child in her class. During instruction (circle time, writing, spelling, etc.), Jim will blurt out comments and/or questions, “Is it lunchtime yet?” and comments about his peers—“Sue took my crayon!” Even though Mrs. Smith provided frequent reminders (i.e., raise your hand and wait to be called on . . .), she felt as if she was spending all of her time redirecting and otherwise attending to Jim and neglecting her other students. Mrs. Smith decided to ignore Jim’s blurring out and provide extra attention to peers who raised their hands and waited to be recognized. She also provided Jim with specific praise when he raised his hand and waited to be recognized. Initially, Jim’s blurring out seemed to increase, and Mrs. Smith felt as if the planned ignoring was only making matters worse. She had two choices: she could either continue with the strategy of maintaining control in her responses to Jim, or she could discontinue using this strategy and try something else. She chose the former, and after about 2 weeks of continuing with the strategy, Mrs. Smith noticed a significant drop in Jim’s disruptive behavior. She also noticed that her other students were improving in meeting expectations that applied to everyone in the class.

In this example, the function (purpose) of the *blurring out* behavior was to access teacher attention; therefore, removing the attention rendered the behavior ineffective. This, in turn, elevated the value of the replacement behavior, *raising hand*, which received the desired reinforcer (adult attention). The teacher using this strategy will need to make sure that the student has been taught an appropriate replacement behavior

and provide the much-desired attention in order to encourage continuation of the replacement behavior.

Steps to Implementing PI

Step One

Selecting and then defining the target behavior(s) is the first step before actual implementation of PI. In addition, the targeted student must be able to actually perform the replacement behavior. For example, if the replacement behavior for *blurring out* is *raising your hand*, then the student must be able to physically raise his or her hand.

Step Two

The next step requires baseline data collection. Frequency (the number of occurrences) and/or duration (how long the behavior lasts) are the most common types of data collection. The same type of data will continue to be collected during implementation to determine whether the intervention (PI) is effective or if modifications need to be made. Data can be graphed to provide a visual representation for easy interpretation.

Step Three

The teacher will need to model and teach the replacement behavior to the target student, providing guided practice and opportunity for independent practice. Frequent and strong reinforcements will need to be provided when the student engages in the desired replacement behavior while the inappropriate behavior is ignored. It is also effective to provide attention to other students in close proximity engaging in the desirable behavior.

Step Four

Consistency of intervention application is crucial to achieving desirable outcomes. If the teacher is inconsistent in responding to the selected behavior, then the target student will get mixed signals and the intervention will be ineffective.

Step Five

Continuation of data collection will be necessary in order to show effectiveness of intervention. Modifications may need to be made if desired results are not achieved. The ultimate goal will be to fade and then terminate intervention after replacement behavior has become established.

Concluding Remarks

When using PI in the classroom, the goal is to ignore the inappropriate behavior while reinforcing the desired replacement behavior. The intent is not to ignore the student but to ignore the inappropriate behavior. Furthermore, there are some behaviors that cannot be ignored, such as behaviors that have the potential to cause harm to the target student or others; therefore, caution must be taken when deciding to use PI.

As with many inappropriate behaviors, there may be a long history of effectively attaining attention. The effects of PI may take time to show an impact on decreasing the inappropriate behavior and promoting the desired replacement behavior. There may also be an increase in the inappropriate/target behavior at the onset of PI, because the target behavior is no longer being reinforced. The student may initially increase the frequency and intensity of the inappropriate behavior; however, consistency in carrying out PI and acknowledging replacement/appropriate behavior is the key to success.

Finally, since behavior does not occur in a vacuum, environmental and instructional conditions need to be assessed to determine if these factors may be triggering/influencing inappropriate behaviors. Also, the function of the inappropriate behavior must be determined before implementing PI. Because teacher attention is withheld when the inappropriate behavior occurs and teacher attention is provided when replacement behavior is displayed, gaining teacher attention must be the desired function of the child's behavior in order for PI to be effective.

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See also Applied Behavior Analysis; Behavioral Approaches, Foundations of; Reinforcement

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PLAY, LEARNING, AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Imagine a school where children rush into their classroom ready to dive into a thematic lesson on flight. Children begin the day folding paper airplanes to the specifications detailed in the diagram at the front of the class as they unwittingly practice their spatial skills. Group reading follows with stories about Lindbergh and Earhart—reading that is populated with rich vocabulary like *aviator* and *pioneer*. Later, children form groups working with the teacher to create a large model of the Wright brothers' plane, learning about history and practicing their math skills. Then the children engage spontaneously in fantasy play about where they would fly if they took a plane the next day. The teacher subtly helps focus the children and ensures that they master the curricular objectives that are carefully woven into the thematic lesson plans.

This panacea sounds fictional but is actually lifted directly from a progressive classroom near Philadelphia where education and playful learning go hand in hand. And, it is the antithesis of the classrooms that stereotypically dot the landscape of most preschool and elementary schools.

Gripped by the fear of falling international test scores in reading and mathematics, American schools falsely equated strong curricular goals with direct-instruction pedagogy. Bolstered by the No Child Left Behind legislation in the early 2000s, education has in many cases become limited to core subjects that appear on accountability tests. These laws were well intentioned and designed with the hope of narrowing the achievement gaps that separate children who come from disadvantaged backgrounds from their middle-class peers. Despite these Herculean efforts, however, the gap remains wide and persistent, unchanged over the past 25 years.

The irony is that the children at this Philadelphia area school succeed. New scientific research suggests why. Because of what is dubbed *playful learning* or *discovery learning*, researchers now recognize that children can master key curricular objectives with the use of a playful pedagogy that gives children more agency in their learning. Indeed, research suggests that both free play and guided play—complementary forms of play activity—provide critical cognitive and social learning opportunities to young children. When children are more engaged in their own learning through play, the assumption is that they will need less external classroom or behavioral management.

Free play occurs when children play alone or with peers, without any support or direction from adults.

It is characterized by children's motivation to initiate and sustain play—as when the children engage in fantasy play about flying and create their own scenarios with blocks or paper planes. Children set the rules and change them freely. *Guided play* allows for child initiation but increases adult support in the form of setting up the play environment, asking strategic questions that are commensurate with children's level of understanding, and providing feedback on the play activity. Building a model plane feels like free play to the children but the setting provides the teacher with opportunities to facilitate and support children's thinking about age-appropriate cognitive, linguistic, and sociocognitive challenges that may not spontaneously emerge during free play about flight.

The distinctions between free and guided play can be more clearly understood by envisioning a 2×2 grid in which are incorporated the person who initiates the play activity (child or adult) and the person who directs or sustains the play activity once it is chosen (child or adult). An activity that is both initiated and directed by adults would be considered *direct instruction*. One that is both initiated and directed by children would be *free play*, and one that is initiated by children and guided or directed by adults would be *guided play*. What makes guided play unique is its support of children's agency within constrained choices that focus children on the correct dimensions for learning. Montessori classrooms offer perfect examples of guided play learning environments, with active and constructive engagement by children around meaningful and playful activities.

A growing body of research asks whether playful learning, sometimes referred to as *discovery learning*, meets academic learning goals. For example, one 2010 meta-analysis, conducted by Louis Alfieri and colleagues, examined 164 studies of discovery learning with children and adults and found that those in the discovery learning conditions generally outperformed those receiving either direct instruction or unassisted discovery. Michelene Chi of Arizona State University and progressive educators in general have argued that learning that is active, constructive, and interactive will yield better learning results, particularly for young children.

Well-designed studies on playful learning still remain somewhat sparse; however, the early returns from what research there is suggests that both free play and guided play lead to better learning outcomes. Looking at free play, a recent review of the role of pretend play in learning, by Angeline Lillard and colleagues, casts doubt on the conclusion that free play helps children meet learning objectives in creativity, mathematics, and problem solving, but their analysis does suggest that pretend play *has* a causal role in augmenting language and literacy development.

The nascent research on guided play provides stronger evidence for play's role in learning, suggesting that spotlighting learning goals within a play setting might foster learning in a fun and engaging way that is consistent with how children best learn. A quick spotlight on some of the findings gives a sense of where playful learning might augment children's outcomes.

Playful Learning in Math and Science

Children naturally experiment with math and science concepts during free play. They spend over half of their free playtime examining patterns and shapes, comparing magnitude, enumeration, dynamic change, and spatial relations. Children's free play with geometric shapes also supports their early understanding of geometry, such that the complexity of preschoolers' block play with and without adults is related to their later mathematical competence.

While there have been studies asking how children in free play allocate their time with respect to mathematics and science, the most convincing findings occur not from studies of free play but rather from studies of guided play. Children who engaged in a guided play activity with an adult with geometric shapes outperformed their peers who merely played with the same shapes. Importantly, they also outperformed children who were explicitly taught the criterial features of shapes (e.g., a triangle has three sides and three angles). Guided play enabled children to include atypical triangles (e.g., not placed on their base and with no point at the top) and to exclude broken triangles from the requested shape category.

Play and Language Development

Play provides children with opportunities to use language that goes beyond the shared immediate reality. Specifically, in pretend play, children face the challenge of communicating pretend identities of everyday objects (pretend this [block] is a cell phone), dramatic roles ("You be the mommy and I be the doctor"), and play scenarios ("Now you call me and tell me that your baby is sick"). Free play is a context that naturally elicits talk that is rich in complex and rare vocabulary words. Children are more likely to use complex language when engaged in free pretend play. Three-year-olds' talk with peers during pretend play is associated with the size of their respective vocabularies at kindergarten.

Guided play also provides a rich context for children to practice language with subtle yet necessary adult support. Adult guidance in the form of structuring play environments by introducing literacy props in play centers encourages children's increased engagement with literacy activities. Thematic fantasy play in which

children take on roles and enact a story read by the teacher also combines literacy objectives with guided play and shows significant gains in children's vocabulary and story comprehension.

Newly emerging research shows that book-reading practices that are supported by guided play improve children's vocabulary acquisition. Vocabulary gains are found when new words introduced during book readings are reinforced through complementary play sessions. Adults set the stage and engage in pretend play while incorporating the new words.

Play and Thinking

A variety of leading development theorists and researchers have explained how play can be a fertile testing ground for children to develop new ways of thinking and understanding the world. For example, the influential Russian theorist Lev Vygotsky argued that for young children, pretend play provides a *zone of proximal development* and a leading source of cognitive development in which they develop two essential capacities needed for higher-order thinking, namely (1) freeing thought from perception, and (2) understanding the rule-governed patterns of everyday living that give a child understanding of what it means to be a family, a sister, or whatever. In a similar vein, Paul Harris and his colleagues have provided cogent arguments that the development of imagination found in young children's pretend play has profound implications for schooling since so much of what is taught demands that children be able to imagine.

Play and Social-Emotional Development

Emerging thinking in the field underscores the teacher's role in promoting children's sociocognitive understanding in pretend play. The untested hypothesis is that children gain competence and extend their sociocognitive abilities when teachers participate in play, guiding the play as a *stage manager* and facilitator who sets the play context and supports the development of play interactions. One study gives impetus for further inquiry. Glenn Schellenberg of the University of Toronto investigated the effects of music lessons versus drama instruction on 6-year-olds' IQs at 9-month intervention. While children in the music group showed small but significant gains in IQ, unexpectedly, children who engaged in drama with the guidance of a drama instructor made unique and significant gains in adaptive social behavior.

Play also provides a context in which children develop self-regulation skills, such as being able to wait for one's turn, resolve conflicts through negotiation, and being able to persist at a challenging task despite its difficulty. Vygotsky began his classic essay on play, not

with reference to play's role in cognitive development, but with reference to play's role in children *realizing unrealizable wishes*—the implication being that play (at least fantasy play in early childhood) serves an important way in which children accommodate for their being less powerful and less competent than the adults around them. As for research findings, children who engage in complex sociodramatic play with their peers show better self-regulation behavior during large group activities and clean-up times in the classroom. Importantly, this relationship holds even for children who are identified by their parents to be more impulsive than their peers.

A preschool program, Tools of the Mind, aimed, through guided play, to increase children's self-regulation along with other school readiness abilities (e.g., literacy). A systematic, large-scale implementation of this preschool program with 24 preschool classrooms found that children who were in Tools classrooms improved their executive functioning skills. This program is slightly more scripted than a Montessori program and has come under some scrutiny. Initial published results, however, suggest that guided play can be sensitively adapted to meet the needs of at-risk children and to provide them with essential and time-sensitive skills that will aid their school success.

Conclusion

Research examining the power of playful learning in classrooms is just beginning. Yet, the first bits of data suggest that there is a role for free play and exploration, especially in the areas of language and literacy, and an even stronger role for guided play in reaching learning goals. Indeed, initial findings on guided play suggest that it offers children a good foundation in learning outcomes while engaging them completely. To this end, educators could organize the activity centers in the classroom to include topic-related materials and participate in children's play as play partners who utilize opportunities that naturally emerge in play to ask leading questions, thereby supporting and extending children's reasoning.

In sum, early research suggests that playful learning has a place in the American pedagogical tool chest. If students do just as well—or better—in playful learning as they do in direct instruction, then why not use a system that promotes learning and that engages and excites them? Those children who learned math through lessons about flight are likely to take the lessons home and remember them many years after the class has ended. They are also likely to be better behaved as active learners than as passive digesters of information.

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See also Developmentally Appropriate Practice; Early Childhood Education and Classroom Management; Interactive Teaching; Vygotsky, Lev

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POINTS OF ENTRY AND CLASSROOM SUPPORTS

When problems arise in classrooms, teachers almost always have a variety of options to choose from—though they may not always realize this. Furthermore, using the variety may be necessary when addressing complex problems. The concept of points of entry is helpful for framing complex problems in terms of a variety of options—with the options themselves constituting different kinds of *supports*.

Framing complex problems in terms of points of entry, a variety of options, and different kinds of supports has a number of advantages over the ways of

framing that trap one into thinking there is one right option or type of support. The main advantage comes from the fact that complex problems call for using more than one option and for providing not just a variety of supports but also different kinds of supports.

Consider, for example, a first grader diagnosed with ADHD who regularly fights with classmates, disrupts (by engaging in off-task behavior, refusing to answer questions, etc.) his pull-out reading group that uses a different approach to reading than that used in his classroom, and who has in the past been cut off from his classmates and classroom teacher by having an aide shadow him and essentially create an activity bubble during class time, a bubble around the boy and his aide. The discerning educator may identify in this situation four different points of entry calling for four different types of supports. The first is the boy's problematic behavior (fighting, refusing to answer questions, etc.); the second is the systemic disconnect between the approach to reading found in the boy's classroom and that found in his pull-out program. The third is the absence of any real relationship between the boy and his classroom teacher. And the fourth is there being no mention of medication. One could add poor peer relationships and other types of problems as well, but these four will suffice to make the point about points of entry and different kinds of supports.

Addressing the problem behavior directly is a point of entry for every approach, but for a behaviorist approach, it is a favored point of entry. And so, thinking in behaviorist ways, one might assess for the functions of fighting and not complying, for skill deficits, and for effective reinforcers to increase desired behavior and effective negative consequences for decreasing undesired behavior—the options within the behaviorist way of thinking about supports are many.

Addressing the systemic disconnect between the two approaches to reading, the one adopted by the classroom teacher and the other adopted by the reading specialist, calls for a different kind of support, namely, changing a system. Here, that change means bringing the classroom and pull-out approaches to reading more in line with one another or at least making them complement one another in ways that don't confuse the boy or make him feel overwhelmed. For this to happen, the classroom teacher and reading specialist teacher need to puzzle together and change the system.

Almost every complex problem in classrooms requires attending to the quality of the teacher–student relationship, and this example is no exception. The point of entry here, that of the teacher–student relationship, calls for the boy's classroom teacher to make a concerted effort to cultivate a positive relationship with him—by positively reframing his behavior to bring out his strengths, by showing warmth and understanding, by

having high expectations that communicate respect, and by doing whatever it takes to make the boy care enough about his relationship with his classroom teacher that he will want to please and contribute. Building the teacher–student relationship is, then, a different point of entry calling for a different set of supports.

The fourth point of entry may or may not be necessary, but it should at least be considered. It is a biological point of entry, calling for supports that have biological effects. The most obvious biological kind of support is medication, and with careful monitoring, administering the right medication at the right dosage and over the right time period may well help.

Again, there are other possible, important points of entry that might be addressed to help the boy in this example—points of entry such as fostering better peer relations, and developing a home–school connection that improves the consistency across settings in the way the boy’s problems are managed. Whether these additional points of entry need to be addressed is determined not by their relevance (they are all relevant) but by whether the boy can be helped enough by addressing only the other points of entry. The rule of thumb is that the number of points of entry addressed should be the minimum to get the job done, and that in complex cases, when one is unsure what it will take to get the job done, addressing more than what seems to be the minimum may be the wisest course to take.

Points of entry, then, is a concept needed in order to break or dislodge a dysfunctional mindset that can easily become the mindset of anyone in the middle of an emotional, frustrating, and puzzling situation calling for managing a serious and complex problem. That dysfunctional mindset has teachers employing one way of thinking only, about one kind of intervention only, and with one focus only. Thinking in terms of points of entry can help anyone in such situations to step back and survey the many options available—and by doing so, being in a position to take advantage of there being more than one option, more than one way to support. Addressing different points of entry means, then, using all the tools in the toolbox.

However, using all the tools does not mean abandoning one’s overall approach to adopt some other. There is an important distinction to be made between addressing more than one point of entry by adopting more than one kind of method and switching approaches. If an approach can be defined broadly as meaning not only one’s favored methods but also one’s theory of change, value system, and style of teaching, then it is possible to maintain a single approach while addressing a variety of points of entry, implementing a variety of methods, and providing a variety of supports. One need not be a chameleon to teach well.

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See also Approaches to Classroom Management: Types; Methods for Managing Behavior: Types and Uses

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POLICY: EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

See Policy, Teachers, and Young Children

POLICY, GOVERNMENT

See Law and Classroom Management

POLICY, TEACHERS, AND YOUNG CHILDREN

In the United States, children younger than five often are in nonparental early care and education (ECE) programs and settings. Many of them, including the majority of 3- and 4-year-olds, are in classroom settings in center-based ECE programs. Others are in their family’s home or the home of a nonparental caregiver. In this entry, the focus will be on policies affecting the quality of early care and education.

The term *early care and education* is used to indicate that both care and education are essential components in a program’s mission, especially while speaking about young children where education and care are inseparable. The term *child care* is avoided as it can refer to custodial care that may not provide education and full support for children’s development.

Quality ECE can have long-term, positive effects on children’s development—in large part because these early years lay the foundation for everything that follows. For one thing, young children’s brains are literally

being built in this period; that is, the architecture of their brains is being determined as neural pathways are formed and neurochemistry is established. For example, young children's brains are creating 700 synapses (connections between brain cells; i.e., neurons) per second during the first 3 years of life. This produces twice as many synapses as will be needed in later years. Later on, the brain prunes these connections based on a child's experiences, keeping the ones that are useful and letting the others wither away. It makes sense to conclude that special attention and support are warranted for this period of life when such crucial processes of brain development are taking place.

The key ingredient for supporting young children's development is quality relationships with consistent, caregiving adults, including teachers in ECE settings and programs. Policies, then, should be aimed at ensuring that those relationships are adequately supported.

Policy

ECE occurs in a variety of settings and under a variety of auspices, including private not-for-profit and for-profit programs, Head Start programs (largely funded by the federal government), and public schools (largely funded by local governments). Policies, therefore, have to take into account this variety.

Policies are formal decisions by authoritative bodies or individuals (e.g., state legislatures). Early care and education public policy refers to governmental activities that affect the nature, availability, affordability, and accessibility of ECE. The public policies that most directly affect classroom management are those providing funding, establishing program licensing, and setting quality standards above and beyond the minimal standards set by licensing.

Licensing

Licensing of ECE programs is done by state governments. Licensing sets the minimal requirements necessary to legally offer ECE services. Most relevant to classroom management are licensing components covering the following: (1) physical facilities; (2) ratios of children to adults and group sizes; (3) interactions among adults and children; (4) curriculum and reporting of children's progress; (5) educator qualifications and professional development; and (6) health and safety. Here, Massachusetts will be used as an example, in part because Massachusetts's licensing standards are among the most rigorous.

Physical facility standards include requiring that indoor space be clean, safely maintained, well ventilated, well lighted, and that it encourage play and learning. A minimum of 35 square feet of activity space per child

is required. Also required is 75 square feet of outdoor activity space per child.

In Massachusetts, ECE licensing standards set the limits at one teacher for every three infants (up to 15 months old), one teacher for every four toddlers (15–33 months old), and one teacher for every 10 preschoolers (33 months old to school age). Preschoolers may be in groups of up to 20 children, toddlers in groups up to nine, and infants in groups up to seven.

The Massachusetts regulations on interactions among adults and children require teachers to be nurturing and responsive, to support child development across the range of domains, to provide guidance in a positive and consistent way based on the individual needs and development of each child, and to ensure the safety of children at all times. Licensed programs must have a well-balanced curriculum of specific, planned learning experiences that support development in all domains.

Clearly, this set of licensing requirements has significant implications for classroom management. As does the fact that programs almost always have the maximum number of children allowed present in a classroom because of the challenging economics of running ECE programs.

Quality Above and Beyond Licensing

Many states are implementing quality standards beyond the standards demanded for licensing. These quality standards derive from a policy calling for a Quality Rating and Improvement System (QRIS). QRIS is being encouraged and supported by federal government policy through competitive grants, such as Early Learning Challenge grants under the U.S. Department of Education's Race to the Top program.

A QRIS typically rates ECE programs' quality using a system of one to four stars, with one star being given for basic or licensing quality, and four stars being given for the highest-quality programs. This rating system makes ECE programs aware of their relative quality, and hopefully, the criteria at each level provide them with guidelines to improve quality. It also helps parents select a quality ECE program for their child.

Massachusetts' QRIS has five components:

- Leadership, Administration, and Management
- Curriculum and Learning
- Safe, Healthy Indoor and Outdoor Environments
- Family and Community Engagement
- Workforce Development and Professional Qualifications

Requirements for program and child assessment are included under Curriculum and Learning. Assessment

receives substantial attention in the ECE field because it is seen as essential for improving quality and child outcomes. It includes assessments of children, the physical attributes of the classroom, and the interactions within the classroom. All of these assessments have implications for classroom management. Perhaps most relevant are assessments of children that allow teachers to understand each child's unique strengths and weaknesses, enabling them to design classroom activities and interactions that respond to those strengths and weaknesses. This accommodating to the uniqueness of each child is at the core of establishing a nurturing classroom environment that supports each child's development. It is what is referred to in the ECE field as *developmentally appropriate practice* and what supports the provision of scaffolding that fosters children's learning and development.

Head Start and the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) also provide systems of standards for promoting quality. Head Start is a federally funded ECE program serving roughly 900,000 children nationwide, primarily 3- and 4-year-old children from low-income households. Its goals are to enhance these children's development and school readiness, which often lag behind those of their better-off peers. It has extensive, national standards that cover a wide variety of program components, not just what goes on in classrooms.

NAEYC is a private, national organization that has developed a widely used accreditation system for center-based ECE programs. As in the case of the Head Start system, NAEYC's system focuses on promoting high quality that supports child development and school readiness. Nationally, 6,600 ECE programs that serve about 580,000 children have achieved NAEYC accreditation.

Funding

In the United States, funding for the ECE is estimated at \$50 billion and comes roughly 60% from what parents pay for services, 30% from the federal government, 8% from state governments, and 2% from the private sector. This does not include the hidden funding that ECE teachers provide by accepting compensation that is less than what they could make, based on their educational credentials, in another line of work. Estimating the size of this hidden subsidy is difficult, but it is substantial, perhaps one third of the true cost of ECE.

Federal and state funding is used primarily to subsidize the cost of ECE for low-income families. With the exception of Head Start, which is free to qualifying children, ECE subsidies are administered by the states, although a significant portion of the funding comes from

the federal government. To support equal access to ECE services and quality for families using a government subsidy, the federal guideline is that the dollar amount of a subsidy should allow a family to purchase three quarters of the ECE services in the marketplace. Therefore, one quarter of the services offered in the marketplace can be more expensive than what is paid for by a subsidy. However, most states do not achieve this level of support. In Massachusetts, although there is variation based on a child's age and region of the state, the subsidy amount is generally sufficient only to purchase the cheapest one quarter of the ECE services provided in the marketplace.

For programs that accept government-subsidized children, the low dollar amounts of subsidies further stress the challenging economics of the ECE business. Unless the program can raise funds from other sources, these limited revenues will have an impact on the program, its quality, and the classroom environment.

Teachers

Requirements for teacher qualifications vary tremendously among states and among settings and auspices. In Massachusetts, center-based teachers must be 21 years old and meet one of the following sets of requirements:

- High school diploma or equivalent, three credits in Child Growth and Development, 9 months' work experience or a practicum
- Child Development Associate credential and high school diploma or equivalent
- Approved 2-year high school vocational program in Early Childhood Education and high school diploma or equivalent
- Associate's or bachelor's degree in Early Childhood Education or a related field, 3 months' work experience or a practicum
- Bachelor's degree in an unrelated field, 6 months' work experience

Today, across the ECE field and as part of efforts to improve quality, child outcomes, and school readiness, the trend is to require early childhood teachers to have a bachelor's degree in early childhood. QRIS, the national Head Start standards, and NAEYC accreditation are all part of this trend.

An unanswered question, however, is how ECE programs will be able to pay the compensation needed to attract and retain teachers with this higher credential. With a bachelor's degree, ECE teachers will find it easier to leave the field, for example, to fill public school teaching positions, which typically pay significantly higher salaries. This could lead to increased turnover, which is already high in the ECE field. Although

enhanced teacher qualifications should improve classroom management and child outcomes, if increased turnover does occur, it is likely to negatively affect quality in ECE classroom environments—the very opposite of what was intended.

Conclusion

Federal and state government policies have significant impacts on classroom management in early childhood programs—through licensing requirements, additional quality standards, and funding. This is especially true for programs used by low-income families. Teachers are, of course, the essential element as they are the lead actors in managing the classroom and in interacting with the children. The developing brain architecture of each child, which lays the trajectory for his or her future path and success throughout life, is driven by experiences in the ECE classroom. ECE classroom management is, therefore, crucial to the future of children and their success in school, as well as their ability to become productive workers for the country's economy, solid citizens of society, and good parents for the next generation.

John A. Lippitt

See also Developmentally Appropriate Practice; Early Childhood Education and Classroom Management; Government Policy and Classroom Management; Kindergarten and Classroom Management; Play, Learning, and Classroom Management

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POSITIVE BEHAVIORAL INTERVENTIONS AND SUPPORTS

This entry briefly describes the features, history, supporting evidence, and misconceptions related to a framework and schoolwide approach designed to enhance academic and social behavior outcomes for all students. The framework goes by the name positive behavioral interventions and supports, or PBIS for short. It is an *implementation framework* emphasizing the use of data for informing decisions about the selection, implementation, and monitoring of progress using evidence-based behavioral practices. This framework organizes resources and systems so as to improve the degree to which an intervention or program is delivered as intended, otherwise known as *implementation fidelity*.

Characteristics of PBIS

The PBIS framework has a number of defining characteristics. First and foremost, using the framework requires making *student outcomes* the basis for selecting practices (interventions), for collecting data, and for evaluating interventions. Student outcomes include academic and social outcomes, as well as individual and small group outcomes. Student outcomes are chosen and judged for their educational and social value and importance.

Second, rather than focusing on specific packaged interventions, the PBIS *framework* highlights evidence-based practices that characterize packaged programs. These practices are organized to provide schoolwide support for students. They also provide support not specific to the classroom, including active supervision, reminders, teaching typical routines, and positive reinforcement. Finally, they provide support specific to the classroom, including effective academic instruction, active supervision during class time, high praise rates, opportunities to respond, as well as supports for individual students that include function-based behavioral intervention supports, explicit social skills instruction, and wraparound processes.

Third and consistent with the response-to-intervention approach, PBIS establishes a *continuum of behavior support* practices and systems. This continuum includes

procedures for universal screening, monitoring progress, team-based decision making, monitoring implementation fidelity, and ensuring local content expertise and fluency. In addition, the PBIS framework establishes embedded and continuous professional development and systems-based competence and supports (e.g., policymaking, leadership, funding).

Linking all of these characteristics, PBIS leads to effective, efficient, and relevant *use of data* or information to guide decision making based on the overall goal of (1) defining needs and priorities, (2) matching needs to interventions or practices, (3) evaluating the research base for selected practices, (4) evaluating student responsiveness and outcome impact, (5) evaluating intervention or practice fidelity, and (6) evaluating social and ecological validity.

Historical Development of PBIS

1980s

During the 1980s, Hill Walker, Frank Gresham, and other prominent researchers called for improved selection, implementation, and documentation of effective behavioral interventions for students with behavior disorders. In response, researchers at the University of Oregon began a series of applied demonstrations, research studies, and evaluation projects and found that greater attention should be directed toward prevention, evidence-based practices, data-based decision making, schoolwide systems, explicit social skills instruction, team-based implementation and professional development, and socially important student outcomes.

1990s

The 1997 reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Act provided a grant to establish a national Center on Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports. The Center's purpose was to disseminate and provide technical assistance to schools using evidence-based practices and supports for students with behavior disorders. Researchers at the University of Oregon were given the opportunity to develop the PBIS Center, which also included partnerships with researchers and implementers from the Universities of Oregon, Kansas, Kentucky, Missouri, and South Florida and from prominent providers of specialized behavior supports (Illinois Wraparound Network, May Institute, and Sheppard Pratt Health Systems).

2000s

The National Technical Assistance (TA) Center on PBIS shaped the PBIS framework (also referenced as

schoolwide positive behavior supports), and provided direct professional development and technical assistance. Other activities of the Center included Web-based collection and dissemination of evidence-based behavior practices and systems, two national leadership and dissemination conferences (October Leadership Forum and March partnership with the Association for Positive Behavior Supports), three best practices and systems *blueprints* (Implementation, Evaluation, and Professional Development), numerous publications and professional presentations, and demonstrations of school, district, and state implementation.

Impact and Evidence Base for PBIS

In 2012, the National PBIS TA Center reported that more than 18,000 school teams had been trained on the PBIS implementation framework (especially tier one or primary prevention). This impact reflects efforts by state and district leadership teams to build capacity for sustaining and scaling up their implementation of PBIS. Schools that are effective in their implementation have more than 80% of their students and staff indicating the desired positive behavioral expectations for a given school setting, high rates of positive acknowledgments for contributing to a positive and safe school climate, more than 70%–80% of their students never experiencing more than one office discipline referral, regular screening for students requiring more intensive behavior supports, and systems for regularly reviewing schoolwide behavior data to guide PBIS action planning and implementation decision making.

Since the 1980s, a number of experimental studies have documented the effectiveness of the PBIS framework at the schoolwide level. These studies support improvements in problem disciplinary behavior, school climate, organizational health, student bullying behavior, peer victimization, emotional regulation, and academic achievement.

Common Misconceptions About PBIS

Misconception One: PBIS Is an Intervention or Practice

Although PBIS comprises evidence-based behavioral practices and interventions that have been shown to improve social behavior and academic achievement, PBIS is more accurately described as a *framework* or an *approach* that provides the means of selecting, organizing, and implementing these evidence-based practices and that emphasizes clearly defined and meaningful student outcomes, data-driven decision-making and problem-solving processes, and systems that prepare and

support implementers to use these practices with high fidelity and durability.

Misconception Two: PBIS Emphasizes the Use of Tangible Rewards, Which Can Negatively Affect the Development of Intrinsic Motivation

The PBIS framework includes practices that provide students with feedback on the accuracy and use of their social skills and behaviors, in the same manner that feedback is provided for successful and accurate academic performance. When new and/or difficult social skills are being acquired, more teacher and external feedback systems might be used to give students information about their social behavior. As students become more fluent in their use of social skills, external feedback systems are reduced and replaced by more natural environmental and/or self-managed feedback. Although intrinsic motivation is difficult to conceptualize and measure from a behavior analytic perspective, little evidence exists to suggest that the use of positive reinforcement, rewards, acknowledgments, and recognition has negative effects on academic and social behavior achievement.

Misconception Three: PBIS Is Something New That Was Designed for Students With Disabilities

The phrase *positive behavioral interventions and supports* was first coined in the reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) in 2004; however, the practices, principles, and systems that characterize PBIS have been described, studied, and implemented since the early 1960s and 1970s. PBIS is a marriage of *behavioral theory, behavior analysis, positive behavior supports, and prevention and implementation science* that has been developed to improve how schools select, organize, implement, and evaluate behavioral practices in meeting the needs of all students.

Misconception Four: PBIS Is for Behavior, and RtI Is for Academics

RtI (Response to Intervention) is best conceptualized as an *overarching* framework for developing and implementing *multitiered systems of academic and behavior support*. RtI is composed of (1) universal screening, (2) continuous monitoring of progress, (3) a continuum of evidence-based practices, (4) team-driven data-based decision making, and (5) the implementation of fidelity evaluations.

The PBIS framework is the application of RtI principles for the improvement of social behavior outcomes

for all students. PBIS is often described as the *behavior side* of the RtI multitiered continuum; however, this description misrepresents the actual integrated implementation of behavior and academic supports.

Conclusion

Although initially established to disseminate evidence-based behavioral interventions for students with behavioral disorders, the National Technical Assistance Center on PBIS expanded its focus to the schoolwide behavior support of all students and placed emphasis on implementing practices and systems. As a result, the TA Center now defines PBIS as *a framework for enhancing the adoption and implementation of a continuum of evidence-based interventions to achieve academically and behaviorally important outcomes for all students*. As a framework, the emphasis is on process or approach rather than on a particular curriculum, intervention, or practice.

The framework and continuum emphasize how evidence-based behavioral practices are organized within a multitiered system of support (also called *response to intervention* or *multitiered systems of support*). They highlight the mutually beneficial relationship between academic success and social-behavior success, as well as the supportive relationship between positive schoolwide and classroom-wide culture and individual student success.

George Sugai, Brandi Simonsen, and Rob Horner

See also Application of Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports to Schoolwide and Classroom Settings; Classroom Organization and Management Program; Evidence-Based Classroom Management; Schoolwide Discipline Policies

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POSITIVE YOUTH DEVELOPMENT AND SCHOOLING

Positive youth development (PYD) is a strengths-based perspective that replaces the current understanding of positive development as the absence of negative or undesirable behaviors with a newer understanding that positive development refers to the presence of positive behaviors (e.g., serving others, developing purpose). PYD aims to promote the view that all youth have strengths and all contexts have assets that can be developed and aligned for positive outcomes. This perspective may be applied to any setting and may be especially valuable in the classroom.

Replacing Negative Views

When you see an adolescent, what do you think? “Oh that one must be hard to handle.” “He’s so lost.” “She must be struggling.” Historically, the study of adolescent development, and consequently the view of adolescents, has been framed by the perspective that adolescence is a time of life guaranteed to bring *storm and stress*. Accordingly, people have come to see adolescence as synonymous with risk taking with respect to substance use, sexual behavior, emotional instability, struggles with authority—to name just a few. This storm-and-stress perspective has perpetuated the deficit view of adolescents, a view of adolescents as in a period of crisis and in danger of becoming *broken*.

In the 1960s, research began to show that this perspective on adolescence was distorted. Although the adolescent period does involve a variety of biological, cognitive, and emotional changes, research has demonstrated that this time of life should be no more

worrisome than any other age period. As a result, contemporary conceptions of adolescence have shifted the focus from *what goes wrong* to *what goes right* in the lives of youth. In line with this shift in focus, the PYD perspective has begun to replace the storm-and-stress perspective on youth.

Relational Developmental Systems Theory

The deficit view of adolescence typically stems from models and theories that place biology or genetics as the primary contributor to human development. In contrast to these models and theories, the PYD perspective is derived from relational developmental systems theory (RDST). RDST sees human development as a result of the relationships between a person and his or her ecological settings and not just a product of inherited biology. This means that individuals both affect and are affected by their families, communities, cultures, and physical ecological settings, and that all these variables contribute to the development of persons. Using this theory of human development, it is understood that no one thing leads to development, but rather behavior and development are the result of combinations of interactions between the individual and his or her context (i.e., culture, family, time in history). This theory promotes PYD with the understanding that no adolescent is destined to be on a destructive path; and because adolescents interact with their world, they are producers and not just products of their context and their own development. Simply put, adolescents affect the world that affects them, and there is a mutually influential relation between person and context.

One of the major assumptions in the RDST theory that also supports the PYD perspective is the assumption that there is potential for systemic change, or plasticity, in one’s development. The concept of plasticity suggests that because there are so many different individual–context relations that impact a person, there will always be the potential for change. The theory and the assumption that there is potential for plasticity have inspired the understanding that youth should be seen as resources to be developed and not as problems to be managed.

Core Concepts of PYD

The potential for change is the first of six core concepts that make up this optimistic view of youth development. The second core concept of the PYD perspective states that all contexts have strengths that can be resourced to promote PYD. The third core concept explains that these contextual resources are *developmental assets* that make

up the *social nutrients* needed for healthy development. The fourth core concept describes these developmental assets as supports that can be found in any context, including—but not limited to—families, youth programs, communities and, of course, schools. The fifth core concept explains that if the strengths of youth align with the contextual assets, then positive and healthy development is more likely to occur. Lastly, the sixth core concept, through this strength-based lens, explains that it is in everyone's power to promote PYD by developing the strengths in young people and by creating more asset-rich settings to support youth development.

The focus on the strengths of youth and the assets of their communities has contributed to the development of a new vision and new vocabulary for discussing youth. The idea that youth are *problems to be managed* is now replaced with the idea that every young person has the potential for successful, healthy, and positive development. This perspective offers a new way for parents, practitioners, educators, and researchers to understand adolescence and to support adolescents by focusing not only on preventing problems but also on promoting strengths.

PYD offers a valuable perspective that can be applied to the classroom and school setting. PYD's application to classrooms and schools can be viewed as that challenge to promote strengths by promoting the *Five Cs*. The *Five Cs* refer to attributes that constitute PYD. They include Competence, Confidence, Connection, Character, and Caring. *Competence* refers to one's actions in domain-specific areas (e.g., social, academic, vocation). By identifying students' interests and strengths and by engaging these in the classroom, it is possible to foster a student's competence. *Confidence* is internal positive self-worth and self-efficacy and can be affected by a student's sense of social support from teachers and classmates. *Connection* refers to the positive and reciprocal bonds between an individual and his or her peers, family, school, and community. By offering opportunity for students to share their voice, teachers can foster greater connection. *Character* is the general respect for societal and cultural rules and a sense of right and wrong. A student's character tends to reflect those around him or her. By sharing values and making sure to align actions with words, it is possible to inspire greater character in students. Last, *Caring* includes showing sympathy and empathy for others—as well as acting in ways consistent with that sympathy and empathy. As in the case of Character, by modeling positive behaviors toward students and the community, it is possible to inspire students to show care.

Researchers theorized that if these *Five Cs* exist in the lives of youth, then a sixth *C* would emerge: Contributions to self, family, community, and to the

institutions of a civil society. Indeed, studies have linked the promotion of the Five Cs with an increase in positive outcomes, such as Contribution, and a decrease in problem behaviors.

Beyond the general promotion of the Five Cs, initiatives that have been shown to effectively promote the Five Cs also share many specific features of youth-serving programs, features that can be, and have been, transferred to the classroom. The first three features have been called *the Big Three*. The first is the presence and sustainability of positive relationships between adults and youth. The second is the promotion of life skills, and the third is providing youth opportunities to use these life skills in local or greater communities. Other features of useful classroom initiatives include having clear goals that are shared with youth and that honor the diversity among youth (e.g., in regard to family, culture, and religion). Last, integrating community assets with the interests of young people and engaging youth in the evaluation of their classroom and extracurricular experiences can be an effective means to promote the Five Cs.

Conclusion

In sum, PYD offers an optimistic perspective on adolescence, one that can be adopted by educators to promote PYD in schools. Rooted in a relational developmental systems model of human development, the PYD perspective suggests ways to substantiate the positive potential of all youth and emphasizes the importance of focusing on youth strengths rather than focusing only on negative behavior. One way to promote PYD is to intentionally design youth environments to foster Competence, Confidence, Connection, Character, Caring, and Contribution. By changing the way in which people view adolescents and by promoting the alignment of strengths within adolescents and the assets around them, it is possible to guide all adolescents down the path of a hopeful and positive future.

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See also Caring Approaches; Character Education; High School and Classroom Management; Just Community; Middle School and Classroom Management; Progressive Education; Promoting Purpose and Learning Environments; Service Learning

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POWER AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

To many, a teacher using her *power* in the classroom might conjure up images of an authoritarian schoolmarm wielding her ruler and system of consequences to subdue and train unruly children. However, power need not mean coercing children. In fact, teachers need to exert power if they are to be leaders in the classroom. Therefore, whether power is or is not appropriate and good is not the question. The question is how power should be used. Here the focus is on teaching styles that differ from one another in the way power is used.

Authoritarian Versus Authoritative Teaching Styles

Adopting Diana Baumrind's category system for distinguishing between parenting styles, contemporary research focuses mostly on the distinction between *authoritarian* and *authoritative* teaching styles—with the latter being the preferred style. Contemporary education research indicates that the *authoritarian* style may actually hinder learning by not attending to students' needs for autonomy and for learning how to self-regulate.

The major distinction between these two main types of teaching styles has to do with reasons and guidance. Authoritative teachers use direct commands and clearly defined rules and consequences, but unlike their authoritarian counterparts, they are responsive to their students' needs for reasons and guidance. And by entering into discussion with students, authoritative teachers are also open to learning about extenuating circumstances for students' behavior, another reason for the authoritative style being the preferred style.

Having an authoritative style does not preclude giving directives without reasons. When authoritative teachers perceive that their students are in danger, or that there is an emergency in the classroom, they may employ authoritarian disciplinary techniques and give directives without reasons. For instance, without giving reasons, "Put those sharp scissors down right now!" is an effective way to make sure that a student does not injure himself or herself.

However, when clear rules and consequences are in place in the classroom, and a student breaks a rule, authoritarian and authoritative teachers are apt to act

differently from one another. Authoritarian teachers are apt to reprimand or implement a punishment without examining contextual factors or the root cause of the behavior. For example, if Tamara puts her head down on her desk and sleeps, Ms. Fly, an authoritarian teacher, will wake her up and assign her lunch detention for sleeping, in keeping with the rules and consequences chart posted on the classroom wall. There is no discussion about the behavior or about the consequence.

By contrast, Ms. Osborne, an *authoritative* teacher, will engage in a conversation with Tamara about why she is so tired and discover that Tamara was up all night tending to her sick little sister. She may use *I* messages, such as "Tamara, I feel concerned and frustrated when you sleep in my class." Ms. Osborne and Tamara then may solve the problem together so that both Ms. Osborne and Tamara get their needs met. For instance, they may arrange for Tamara to come for 15 minutes during lunch or after school to make sure that she has completed the tasks that her classmates finished while her head was down. Or, they may devise a plan for Tamara to finish her missed classwork at home. Doing so will let Tamara know that Ms. Osborne does not penalize her for factors beyond her control. The teacher also does not let Tamara escape from the academic tasks expected of her.

The Power of Choice

Authoritative teachers are aware that students need to develop self-regulatory skills to control their own learning and environment. These teachers design instruction to give students choices, while still holding students to high expectations and learning goals. In the classrooms of authoritative teachers, students may be allowed to choose curricular materials, activities, due dates, or which assignments to complete. Authoritative teachers also create a space in their classrooms that allows students the choice to misbehave. Having this choice makes students truly responsible.

Authoritative teachers are also apt to see extrinsic rewards and punishments as forms of coercing students—because they don't satisfy the innate need for autonomy and for control of one's own behavior. And so, authoritative teachers allow students the choice to conduct themselves appropriately and to understand what natural consequences may occur when they choose not to behave appropriately. They also are more likely to include students in discussions of what should be the classroom rules—so that students come to *own them*.

Warm Demanders

There is a style of teaching that, at a first glance, appears to be authoritarian and, on a second glance,

may be better judged to be authoritative, but upon closer examination seems either to fall in the middle or to deserve its own separate category as a teaching style and use of power. Those adopting this third teaching style have been called *warm demanders*, an apt phrase that, for our current purposes, serves well enough to capture the distinct way that some teachers express and use their power. This way is especially needed for groups of children accustomed to more direct and authoritarian parenting styles, children whose cultural backgrounds and economic status put them at risk for failing in school and for struggling later on.

Warm demanders engage in what has been called *high academic press*; in other words, they set high expectations for their students and provide them with the support needed to reach those expectations. They do so in a no-nonsense way that has much in common with an authoritarian style. However, in contrast to an authoritarian style where the message is mostly about complying, warm demanders aim to convey that their no-nonsense, direct, and high-expectation ways of communicating are signs that they really care about their students and are on their students' *side*—much like successful coaches in the sports world are experienced by their players as tough but caring. Warm demanders also communicate that their students are smart, fully capable, and have every opportunity to succeed.

To illustrate a *warm demander*, Jacqueline Irvine gives an account of teacher Irene Washington facing her first-grade student Darius, who was off the mark when having to provide a story with a particular theme. Rather than guiding Darius back to the assigned theme, teacher Washington rebuked Darius for not sticking to the theme. As Irvine explains, an outsider might be critical of teacher Washington's harsh reply, but Irvine goes on to explain that the teacher's reply was based on accurate and intimate knowledge of Darius (that he knew what was expected of him) and that the harsh reply was in an overall context that helped Darius experience his teacher's reply as a sign not only that she had high expectations for him but also that she cared.

George Noblit tells similar stories and underscores the fact that to the undiscerning eye of an outside observer, warm demanders might look like anything but warm—and yet to the children themselves, the demands are indeed a sign of care. Furthermore, says Noblit, there are apt to be rituals going on in the classroom that emphasize togetherness and connectedness, rituals such as using choral response at meeting time.

Cynthia Ballenger tells a similar story about experienced Haitian American teachers with their Haitian American students. While giving no-nonsense replies to their students when misbehaving, Haitian American teachers are apt to weave into their reprimands reminders of who the children are most connected to and who

cares for them (“Is this what your mother and father let you do?” “Is this what God wants you to do?”).

What this concept of warm demanders gives, then, is a very real and distinct teaching style, one that is good for a great many students who might otherwise be lost at school, but one that has its subtleties. Noblit warns that becoming an effective warm demander is no easy task for those used to the authoritative style so common among, say, White middle-class teachers. One has to work at it, and, even then, it might not come as naturally as it does for teachers whose upbringing and background incline them to be warm demanders.

Conclusion

New teachers often fear that having a student-centered classroom means that students will take control and engage in off-task and disruptive behavior; this is a common misconception. Authoritative teachers who are conscious of power differentials in the classroom know that student learning begins with the learner and must derive from self-regulated students who are allowed to experience natural consequences for their behaviors. This knowledge influences these teachers' decisions about instructional techniques and management decisions. Authoritative teachers expect their students to behave appropriately, but they also give clear reasons for their expectations, and they encourage students to become self-regulated in making choices about their behavior. Furthermore, these teachers realize that students have or should have choices and power, which includes power to subvert the desires and goals of the teacher.

When student-centered classroom management plans are in place, authoritative teachers may spend more time modeling and coaching students to become self-regulated; and when students do *misbehave*, authoritative teachers take these times as opportunities to build relationships and help students to critically examine their actions and the effects those actions have on the larger classroom community.

Warm demanders retain a good deal more power than that retained by traditional authoritative teachers—but they do so in ways that are subtly different from authoritarian teachers. They do so in ways that show care, show confidence in students' abilities, and show students that their actions have consequences not just for themselves but also for those to whom they are connected.

In the end, the subject of teaching styles is a subject about teacher–student relationships, the main message being about how best to integrate discipline and care. The answers vary—not only from teacher to teacher, but also from classroom to classroom. One teaching style does not fit all. But whatever the style, if there is to be a fit, it will come from integrating discipline and care.

Hannah Carson Baggett and Heather A. Davis

See also African American Styles of Teaching and Disciplining; Culturally Pluralistic Classrooms; Culturally Responsive Classrooms for African American Students; Expectations: Teachers' Expectations of Students; Haitian Students; Styles of Teaching; Warm Demanders

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PRAISE AND ENCOURAGEMENT

Praise and encouragement are two methods teachers use in classroom management to increase the likelihood that students will engage in appropriate academic and social behaviors. Effective classroom management approaches foster a positive classroom climate with clear behavioral expectations. Unlike traditional discipline, which focuses on responding to students' behavior problems with punitive consequences, praise and encouragement focus directly on increasing appropriate behavior. When teachers increase the probability that students will behave appropriately, students are less likely to engage in classic problem behaviors such as disruption, defiance, disrespect, and off-task behavior; students are, in fact, more likely to be academically engaged and to learn. Effective teachers incorporate such strategies into the structure of their interactions and instruction that provide both universal support for all students and targeted support for specific students with more significant behavior problems.

Both praise and encouragement involve positive verbal comments or gestures intended to promote positive student behavior; they are distinct, however, in timing. Encouragement is used *before* students engage in desired behavior, whereas praise occurs *after* a student already has engaged in that behavior. That is, encouragement targets behaviors students have not yet displayed, while praise targets behaviors students have just displayed and which the teacher wants to see performed regularly in the future. Given that praise has been studied more

extensively, making it one of the most well-supported methods to manage student behavior, this entry focuses primarily on praise, followed by a brief discussion of encouragement.

Behavioral Principles and Praise

According to behavioral theory, all behavior serves one of two functions: to gain something or to avoid something. For example, a student whispers to a peer to gain her attention, or a student throws his book on the floor to avoid working on a difficult assignment. If the behavior is successful, then the student is more likely to do it again in the future, because the behavior has been reinforced. Reinforcement occurs when some consequence to a behavior makes that behavior more likely to occur again in the future.

Praise is a form of social attention that operates on the behavioral principle of reinforcement. Therefore, a teacher's attention is said to be reinforcing only when a behavior that gains attention occurs more frequently later on. Most students desire positive social attention from their teachers; praise, then, is generally one way of promoting more appropriate behavior in the classroom. But students may also engage in inappropriate classroom behavior to gain a teacher's attention; even though the attention may be negative in the form of reprimands or other consequences, such attention may in fact inadvertently reinforce inappropriate behavior. By using praise in response to desirable behavior, however, teachers can provide the social attention students desire while encouraging behaviors they want to see in class. Essentially, teachers get the behaviors to which they pay the most attention.

Used effectively, praise has been shown to foster a wide array of appropriate classroom behaviors. Praise can be provided in response to academic behavior, such as giving a correct response to a question, or to social behavior, such as raising a hand before talking. Praise has been shown to reinforce on-task behavior, engagement in instruction, following directions, correct academic responding, work accuracy, and work completion. Further, praise can improve academic performance, especially when the praise targets accomplishment of specific tasks, processes students use, or students' self-regulation as they perform academic tasks. When praise results in an increase in these positive classroom behaviors, problematic behaviors such as disruptions, off-task behavior, and rule violations are concurrently decreased.

Effective Praise

Given the wide-ranging potential benefits of praise, including fostering desirable and reducing undesirable

student behavior, teachers are well advised to incorporate praise into their classroom management practice. Praise is most effective when it involves several key characteristics. Effective praise is (1) contingent, (2) immediate, (3) specific, (4) frequent, and (5) individualized.

Contingent

Effective praise is contingent, meaning it is conditional upon a student's performance of desired behavior. When praise is used contingently, students make a clear association between appropriate behavior and positive teacher attention, increasing the probability that they will behave more appropriately in the future. Effects may be diluted or even counterproductive if positive attention is given inconsistently, infrequently, or inappropriately (i.e., when an undesirable behavior occurs).

Immediate

Effective praise is immediate, coming soon after the desired behavior. Students are most likely to be reinforced when praise follows within a few seconds of a desired behavior or response. Quick use of praise may be most important when a student is learning a new skill, is working on a difficult assignment, or has a history of behavior problems. When praise is delayed, students may not make the connection between the positive attention and their behavior, or they may even resort to inappropriate behaviors to get immediate attention.

Specific

Praise has been shown to be most effective when it contains specific information about the desired behavior. The teacher explicitly identifies the appropriate behavior the student has performed and may also provide feedback about the student's performance (e.g., "I like how you opened your book when I asked, Gina"; "Tim, good job raising your hand before talking"; "I like how everybody is quietly working on the assignment right now"). This specific information clarifies teacher expectations precisely for students; they are not left guessing what the teacher wants. While general praise (e.g., "Good job"; "Correct"; "Nice") can serve as a reinforcer, it may be less successful because students may be unsure of what they did that gained this positive attention.

Frequent

There is no definitive number as to exactly how often teachers should use praise, but a general consensus

is that praise should happen more frequently. In practice, teachers tend to use praise, or any form of feedback, at very low rates. Praise rates are especially low for students who exhibit challenging behavior, though these students may stand to benefit the most from higher rates of praise.

Furthermore, praise should be used more frequently than negative feedback. Many researchers recommend teachers aim to praise students three to five times for every one instance of negative feedback. Thus, if a teacher reprimands a student once for inappropriate behavior, such as talking out of turn, she would seek to praise that student at least three times for appropriate behaviors, such as raising a hand before talking.

This ratio has proven difficult for teachers to maintain. Teachers tend to give little feedback and to pay more attention to inappropriate behavior. In some cases, such as for students with emotional and behavioral disorders, the ratio is nearly the opposite of recommended practice, with students receiving three or four negative statements from teachers for every praise statement. Such students are gaining abundant negative social attention for inappropriate behavior, which may be a source of reinforcement despite teachers' intentions to decrease inappropriate behavior with their reprimands.

Individualized

Finally, effective praise should be individualized based on both teacher and student characteristics. Teachers have different personalities and do not need to display false enthusiasm or fake praise. Teacher use of praise should be genuine and honest, delivered with a sincere tone and content that fits teachers' personalities. Furthermore, praise should be customized to the needs and culture of each student. Some students need more frequent praise, especially when learning new skills or undertaking demanding tasks. Other students may not respond well to public praise (which can be the case more often with older students) and will benefit from more private forms of positive feedback, such as a handwritten note or brief comments after class. If a student is embarrassed or acts inappropriately following teacher praise, the teacher may want to adjust (not abandon) the delivery of praise. Most importantly, praise is about reinforcement, so teachers can gauge the effectiveness of their praise based on how each student responds and can individualize praise based on these different student responses.

Criticisms of Praise

Although an extensive body of empirical evidence supports the use of praise in classrooms, some critics

(e.g., Alfie Kohn), have argued that praise negatively impacts students' intrinsic motivation. Praise, critics argue, may impact students' work ethic, potentially causing them to expect or demand compensation for any level of work. Comprehensive reviews and analyses of research on praise have suggested that praise targeted at the self-level (e.g., "You're a good boy") is the least effective form and may indeed have a negative impact on some students' academic performance, which supports the claims of critics to some extent. Such praise, however, is neither contingent nor specific. On the other hand, an extensive body of empirical research demonstrates the benefits of praise, including its potential to actually increase student motivation, especially when praise is specific and targets specific aspects of student behavior, such as task performance and processes student use to solve problems. As noted previously, other reviews of research have provided substantial evidence that praise has a positive impact on student behavior and academic achievement, especially when it is contingent, immediate, specific, frequent, and individualized. Given the extensive empirical evidence in support of praise, teachers and students are likely to benefit from incorporating it into classroom management practice.

Encouragement

Encouragement is another form of positive social attention that can increase the probability a student will behave appropriately. Unlike praise, encouragement occurs prior to the desired behavior and is most often used when a teacher knows a student is unlikely to comply with a particular direction or expectation. Encouragement may take the form of a specific prompt that points out some element of the desired response (e.g., "all you need to do is add these two numbers"), may allude to the consequence that will follow (e.g., "you can use the computer when you clean up your materials"), or may simply be positive words that the teacher believes will help the student take on a clearly challenging task (e.g., "I know you can finish these just like yesterday"). Especially in the latter case, encouragement is most successful in the context of a positive teacher-student relationship built on trust, respect, and positive interactions.

Conclusion

Effective classroom management requires the use of evidence-based practices, such as praise and encouragement, to prevent challenging behavior and promote desirable student behavior. Praise and encouragement are two forms of positive social attention built on the behavioral principle of reinforcement; they are effective

only if they result in an increase in the targeted behavior. Teachers can use both methods to increase the likelihood that students will engage in positive social and academic behavior. Praise occurs after students exhibit desired behaviors and is most effective when contingent, immediate, specific, frequent, and individualized. Encouragement occurs before a desired behavior when a student is likely to have difficulty and is most effective in the context of a positive teacher-student relationship. Given a large body of empirical support for these practices, both teachers and students are likely to benefit from their incorporation into classroom management practice.

Chris Sweigart and Timothy J. Landrum

See also Behavioral Approaches, Foundations of; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; Reinforcement

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PREVENTING ANTISOCIAL BEHAVIOR AT THE POINT OF SCHOOL ENTRY

Over the past several decades, increasing numbers of children have been exposed to a host of environmental conditions of risk in family and community settings prior to and after the beginning of their schooling. As a result, far too many children begin school completely

unprepared for the ordinary demands of schooling, such as sharing, cooperating, complying with teacher directives, and focusing on assigned tasks. Further, too many arrive at school also severely limited in their ability to make friends and recruit a healthy social support network. Far too often, these children show destructive behavior patterns that put them on a path to rejection, first by peers, then by teachers, and finally, at about age 10, by parents and caregivers. Their destructive behavior pattern also produces a reputational bias that is very difficult to turn around. The lament of these students is that even when they change their behavior, they are still rejected by peers and their teachers.

The long-term implications for children who, early on, are unprepared for schooling and who have a destructive pattern of behavior include social isolation and/or rejection, school failure and dropping out, and adoption of a delinquent lifestyle in adolescence. Further, these children can, and often do, become exceptional for their harassing and bullying, as well as for directing their aggressive behavior toward peers and teachers, all in an effort to achieve a kind of social dominance.

Increasingly, teachers of these children are on the receiving end of severe oppositional *and* defiant student behavior, including threats and actual physical assaults. A recent national survey of educators by the American Psychological Association found a steady increase in both attempted intimidation of school staff and actual assaults on teachers. Educators have reported instances of even very young children attempting to intimidate and physically assault teachers. Finally, any perusal of recent news media reports of school violence finds that teachers and school staffs are often targets of physical assaults that sometimes end tragically.

During most of the past century, such destructive patterns of student behavior would have been largely unheard of in the early grades. However, today, it is not unusual to hear of very young children committing acts of deviance in school, acts that one ordinarily associates with teens and much older children. Shockingly, the issue of these young children being expelled from pre-school classes has emerged as a serious concern in public and private school settings.

Risk Factors and Causes

There is, and continues to be, an ongoing debate about the causes of this apparent increase in destructive behavior patterns among young children about to begin or just beginning school. Many researchers have pointed to such factors as a general coarsening of culture, the pervasive infusion of conflict into people's daily lives through media streaming and other avenues, and family stresses exacerbated by poverty, alienation, family

dysfunction, discrimination, and abuse. Collectively, it is difficult to impossible to assign differential weights of influence to these factors. However, teachers know that by age 5 years and around the start of a child's formal schooling, these and other risk factors generally register their cumulative effects, enough so that teachers can identify those children having a destructive pattern of behaving, one that makes them ill-prepared for school and, without help, likely to fail in school for years to come.

Risk factors for school failure and negative developmental outcomes over the long term have been identified in community, family, individual, and school contexts. Examples of risks operating across these contexts include *chaotic neighborhoods with low levels of social cohesion; weak parenting skills and family dysfunction; a difficult temperament in the child, with a penchant for risk-taking; and association with antisocial peers who bully and harass other students.*

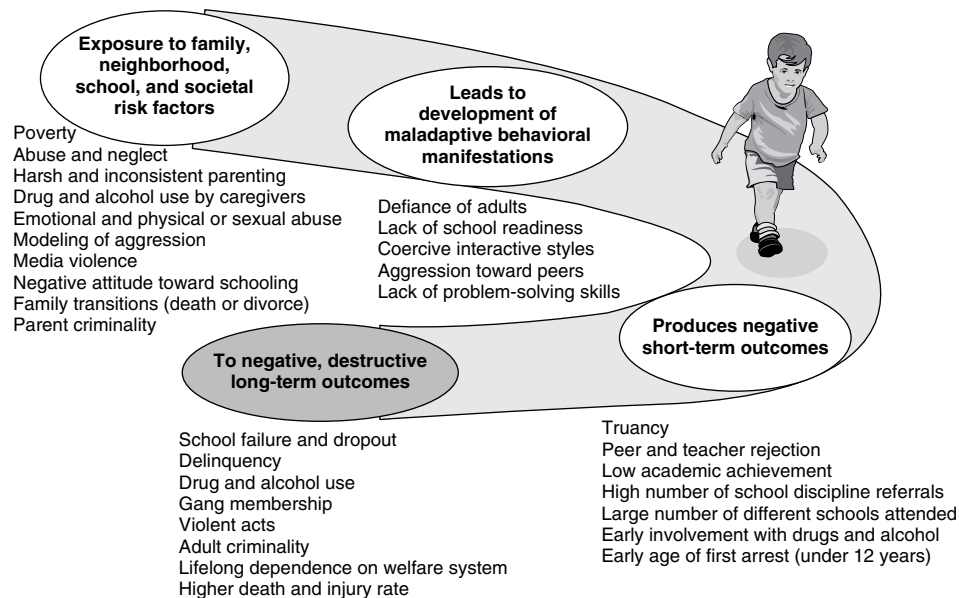
Research has shown that the more risk factors children are exposed to and the longer the exposure lasts, the more likely it is that they will experience problems in school and show destructive outcomes outside the school setting. Thus, risk factors place vulnerable children and youth onto a developmental, risky/perilous pathway or trajectory that far too many follow in their school careers and beyond (see Figure 1 for an illustration of this destructive path).

That said, achieving school success *can* function as an important buffering or protective influence for these children who are just beginning to show destructive patterns of behaving—hence the need for extraordinary interventions at the beginning of these children's school careers.

The Answer: Collaboration and Early Intervention

Unfortunately, a perfect answer for this problem of early destructive patterns of behaving does not currently exist. However, one of the best options available is for parents, community agencies, teachers, and schools to work together collaboratively in making children as successful as possible in their early years of schooling. In particular, school success means that the child learns how to build positive relationships with peers and teachers, how to control and regulate emotions (e.g., anger), and how to take responsibility for completing essential tasks. Parent and teacher support of a child's attempts to learn and master these critical skills is absolutely essential.

The broad-scale adoption of this sort of collaboration could transform schools over several generations. But there is one important caveat to this: while

Figure 1 The Path to Long-Term Negative Outcomes for At-Risk Children and Youth

Source: Walker et al. (2004, p. 26). © 2004 Southwestern, a part of Cengage Learning, Inc. Reproduced by permission.

you never, ever give up on any child or student at any point in their school career, the earlier this collaborative process begins, the better chance it has to produce the desired effect of either preventing children from entering upon a destructive path or diverting them away from it.

Research points to the following key drivers or levers associated with achieving school success: (1) an absence of a destructive, oppositional behavior pattern, (2) mastering important school success skills, (3) reading at grade-level expectations by the end of third grade when reading becomes a tool for learning other subject matter, (4) forging positive relationships with adults and peers in the school, and (5) parenting that uses effective parenting strategies and that supports the schooling process. All other things being equal, children who experience all of the above are more likely to be successful in their school career. Teachers can, therefore, assume that all of the above constitute protective factors that can help define and guide interventions for children entering school with destructive patterns of behaving.

Achieving Effective Early Intervention

The evidence supporting the efficacy and long-term effectiveness of early intervention is powerful when intervention addresses problem areas that can undermine or prevent school success and when intervention focuses on promoting skills that contribute to school success. Perhaps the most important area to focus on

early in a child's school career is a disruptive, defiant, and aggressive behavior pattern. Doing so is the first order of business in assisting at-risk children in having a successful school career. A disruptive, defiant, and aggressive behavior pattern must be replaced with behaviors and skills that teachers expect and that contribute directly to school success. They include *prompt compliance with teacher directives, listening to instructions, focusing on assigned tasks, making assistance needs known appropriately, and displaying cooperation.*

Hill M. Walker and his colleagues have developed an evidence-based program called *First Step to Success*, a program that assists vulnerable children in getting off to the best start possible in their school careers. First Step to Success is designed for at-risk students in Grades K–3. It directly involves the target child, teacher(s), peers, and parents in a collaborative 3-month intervention that teaches school success skills and reduces or eliminates maladaptive behavior. First Step to Success is initially set up by a behavioral coach and then, within 5–7 days, turned over to a classroom teacher. The First Step to Success coach then supervises and troubleshoots the program in collaboration with the general education teacher and also coordinates school and home activities related to the program's implementation. First Step to Success has proved to be an effective early intervention and has been certified as a promising intervention by the What Works Clearinghouse of the Institute of Education Sciences.

Teaching School Success Skills

There is a generic set of school success skills that supports academic performance and social adjustment in schooling contexts. This set of skills is essential for teachers to teach and for students to learn and display. There are very few teachers who would not endorse this set of skills as important for achieving school success and for facilitating a good teacher–student relationship (see Figure 2).

In structured surveys of K–12 teachers, the student behavior that teachers *most* prefer is *compliance with directives and requests*. Failure to comply with teachers' directives and requests is what most often prompts teacher–student conflict. As a rule, teachers and students jointly share ownership of this problem in that (1) teachers often do not deliver the directive in a timely manner or in the correct form and (2) the student resists complying with it for reasons that are often not justifiable (e.g., simply resisting authority).

The First Step to Success intervention systematically develops school success skills among behaviorally at-risk students in a cooperative arrangement between parents, peers, and teachers. In this program, parents learn how to teach specific school success skills at home, while teachers learn how to recognize and praise students at school. Peers provide support and encouragement for the focus child's attempts to master the skills. The First Step to Success program teaches skills such as *complying with teacher requests promptly, doing your best work, accepting limits, and cooperating*.

In the absence of a program such as First Step to Success, it remains extremely important for classroom teachers to (1) systematically and *directly* teach these positive skills to the focus students who are deficient in them, as well as teach these same skills to the entire class, (2) strengthen these skills by showing approval of students displaying them, and (3) regularly re-teach and review the skills, as needed. Equally important, parents should be encouraged to support and teach these same school success skills at home.

Promoting Reading Mastery

Research clearly shows that, by the end of Grade 3, reading proficiency at grade-level expectations is quite important for a student's future school success. No educational achievement in a student's K–12 school career is more important. Every student has the right to expect instruction in the best method(s) of teaching beginning reading. On this note, sound research has shown the need for teachers to provide explicit instruction in skills underlying fluency and comprehension, instruction that addresses students' needs for automaticity in

phonological, orthographic, semantic, syntactic, and morphological systems, as well as for making connections among these systems.

As to the long term, reading proficiency is the key to academic success and postschool adjustment to life and work. Numerous interview studies of adult prison populations have been conducted to determine what would have made a difference in their lives. Huge numbers of those interviewed have pointed to reading failure as the downward turning point in their lives.

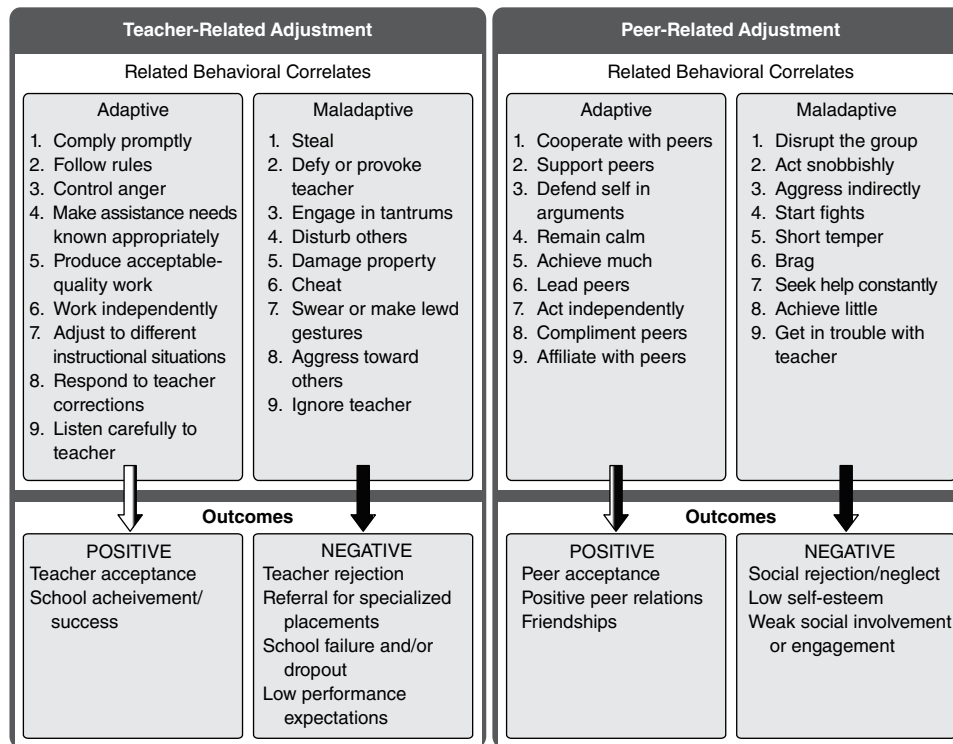
Promoting Positive Teacher and Peer Relationships

Regardless of their backgrounds, when children come to school, they need to learn to get along well with their teachers and their peers. Failure to do so can impair a student's school success; failure in relating to teachers *and* peers can negatively influence a person's life course. Nothing disrupts these relationships more than a pattern of coercive, defiant, and aggressive behavior. Teachers know what is important in determining the quality of these adjustments. Figure 2 lists the key do's and don'ts for positive teacher and peer relationships.

There is broad agreement on the importance of these behavioral indicators. They are based on extensive research conducted over many years and provide a roadmap of sorts for how to assist and support students in making these critical adjustments satisfactorily.

Fostering Parent Involvement

One of the most important roles parents can play in supporting their child's development is the role they can take in promoting their child's school success. That is, by doing everything possible to ensure that their child is prepared for schooling and then actually helping their child succeed in school. Parents can promote their child's school success by (1) modeling positive attitudes toward school, (2) providing assistance and intervention when the child struggles with school, (3) ensuring that homework is always completed, (4) reading to and with their child, (5) spending time each day debriefing with their child about how school went (e.g., discussing what was good and what was not good about the school day), and (6) remembering to provide discipline that is never harsh or punitive, monitor their child's activities, whereabouts and choice of friends, stay involved in their child's life and activities, remembering to use positive parenting techniques whenever possible, and assisting their child with problem solving and conflict resolution as needed. A great deal of research shows that, all other things being equal, these techniques or practices help children develop into happy and well-adjusted teens and adults.

Figure 2 Model of Interpersonal Social-Behavioral Competencies Within School Settings

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Conclusion

A tremendous amount is known about how to help the vast majority of children and youth be successful in school. However, with children displaying destructive patterns of behavior, teachers often do not implement that which is known or it is implemented poorly. The great challenge going forward is to implement well that which is known to be effective, especially with children who are just beginning their school careers and are at risk for school failure primarily because of their destructive patterns of behavior.

Hill M. Walker

See also Applied Behavior Analysis; Behavior Disorders; Behavior Support Plans; Behavioral Online Screening for School Settings; Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning; Conduct Disorder; Council for Children With Behavioral Disorders; Oppositional Defiant Disorder; Social and Emotional Learning; Teacher–Student Relationships and Behaviorally At-Risk Students

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PREVENTING BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS

An important and often overlooked attribute of teachers who are effective classroom managers is their ability to prevent student behavior problems in the classroom. Effective teachers can prevent a variety of behavior problems by establishing a well-organized classroom and using effective management techniques. This entry examines four components that can facilitate the prevention of classroom behavior problems: (1) the classroom arrangement; (2) clear and consistent procedures, rules, and consequences; (3) skills for student independence; and (4) specific prevention strategies.

Classroom Arrangement

Teachers can enhance student learning and prevent student disruption through careful arrangement of their classrooms. A well-planned classroom can lead to both increased teacher monitoring of student behavior and more effective overall classroom management. First, the classroom should be arranged so that teachers and students will be able to see each other at all times. When teachers have a full view of the entire classroom, they increase their ability to monitor students effectively, thus increasing the opportunities to intervene as soon as problem behavior begins. Similarly, when students can see what is going on in the classroom, it can increase their involvement in class activities, thus preventing unwanted behavior. Conversely, when teachers do not have full view of the entire classroom, student inattention and misbehavior may increase because the behaviors may go unchecked.

Second, an effective classroom is arranged to facilitate easy teacher movement among all students and to all classroom areas. When teachers can circulate among students easily, the result is more effective teacher monitoring and more frequent contact with students, thus preventing student misbehavior and increasing student engagement. Classroom areas that are used frequently, such as the pencil sharpener and computer stations, can become sites for distractions and disruptions. High-traffic areas should be separated widely, be easy for students and the teacher to see and access, and student

access should be controlled. Lastly, frequently used materials should be readily accessible so lessons flow smoothly and breaks or slowdowns are avoided.

Procedures, Rules, and Consequences

Procedures, rules, and consequences are an important part of preventing problem behaviors in the classroom because they prescribe the set of student behaviors necessary for the fluent operation of a classroom. Teachers should not assume that students understand how to accomplish daily tasks efficiently, but rather teachers should (1) teach the classroom procedures, rules, and consequences; (2) provide practice opportunities; and (3) check for understanding. When students are taught the classroom rules and procedures explicitly and when they understand the positive and negative consequences that go with them, the classroom will run smoothly because there will be less confusion about what needs to be done, in what manner, and when.

Procedures

Classroom procedures are routines to ensure that specific daily activities are accomplished efficiently, with a minimum of student downtime. For example, every school day consists of shifts in activities or transitions orchestrated by the teacher to direct students to stop one activity and begin another. Transitions can claim excessive instructional time, so teachers need to plan routines that are accomplished quickly and efficiently, so that new activities are begun without undue delay and disruption. Effective transition procedures include (1) preparing tasks and activities in advance to reduce wait time, (2) providing students with transition directions a few minutes before the end of task or activity, and (3) ensuring that communication to students is clear and understood.

Rules and Consequences

Classroom rules define the expectations for appropriate classroom conduct by clarifying the behaviors that are acceptable and those that are not acceptable. Classroom rules set the foundation for expected behavior in a classroom. Rules should be fair, reasonable, and observable. Additionally, rules should be taught directly so that students understand the behaviors that are necessary for maintaining an appropriate classroom environment in which teachers can teach, students can learn, and safety, care of property, and order are ensured. The use of consequences can be as important as the implementation of a system of classroom rules, and teachers should monitor behaviors and acknowledge students when they follow classroom rules.

When students do not follow classroom rules, teachers should have consequences that discourage rule breaking. Implementing clear and consistent consequences when students break classroom rules is an important way to help students understand the association of behavior and consequences. Whenever possible, negative consequences should be logically related to the misbehavior. For example, if a student gets into a fight with another student at recess, a logical consequence may be that the student loses access to the privilege of recess for a certain amount of time. It is important that negative consequences, like rules, be planned in advance. When teachers know what consequences they will use prior to problem behavior occurring, they will become more confident and competent when addressing problem behavior. Basically, a teacher should (1) remind the student of the rule being broken, (2) state in a matter-of-fact manner what the consequence will be, and (3) implement the consequence if the behavior does not stop. When administering a consequence, teachers should do so in a calm manner and privately, so as to maintain the student's dignity and to ensure classroom activities continue uninterrupted.

Skills for Student Independence

Teaching students self-management skills so they can become their own change agents can prevent unwanted behavior in the classroom, can help them observe and monitor their behavior, and help them reinforce themselves when they reach a specified goal. With adult help, students must learn to accurately assess their own behavior (e.g., in seat, raising hand, work completed). Ordinarily, recording sheets are established for students to self-record their behavior, and reinforcement takes place when students reach predetermined criteria.

Another way to prevent behaviors and allow students to learn skills for independence is by teaching them how to efficiently and effectively solve social problems. Social problems are solved through a step-by-step process, starting with an accurate appraisal of a situation and leading to the selection of a solution that is best suited to accomplish a goal. When this skill is learned, students become better at self-control, which can lead to less reliance on adults, and can, in turn, prevent significant problems in the future because students will have learned to solve their intra- and interpersonal problems. In learning how to solve social problems, students also learn to generate a list of possible solutions and evaluate each based on which would be most feasible and effective to achieve the specified goal. Students would then design a plan, carry it out, and evaluate how the plan worked.

Specific Prevention Strategies

There are a number of specific strategies teachers can use to prevent student behavior problems, including using redirects, choice making, group-oriented interventions, and student behavioral contracting for appropriate behavior.

Redirects

At first glance, redirects appear to be reactions to misbehavior, not ways to prevent misbehaviors. Indeed, they are reactions. But they also are ways to prevent future behavior problems. Teachers often use reprimands with the intention of stopping student misbehavior. Reprimands typically take the form of quick, verbal comments by teachers to students who are engaging in problem behavior. For example, a teacher may say, "Stop bothering the other students and get back to work" or "Who told you to get out of your seat?" The problem with reprimanding student behavior is that when delivered publicly, reprimands can disrupt the flow of instruction and divert attention to the student engaging in the problem behavior. Reprimands can actually turn small behavioral infractions into more serious problem behaviors because students may feel compelled to react negatively and engage in a public power struggle.

In contrast, using redirects when behavioral incidents occur is an attempt to divert students' behavior toward the desired behavior with no intent to punish. Redirects should be brief, conducted in private, and delivered quietly so they do not disrupt the flow of instruction. Teachers should use a calm voice and explain if the particular misbehavior continues to occur, a consequence will follow. The teacher should give the student time to comply and follow up with recognition for engaging in the appropriate behavior. Redirecting student behavior back to the more appropriate behavior rather than reprimanding a student can prevent escalation of behavior incidents in the classroom.

Choice Making

Increasing a student's choices in the classroom is a powerful technique that can prevent unwanted behaviors and contribute to a positive classroom climate. Behavior problems can be prevented when students feel in charge of their own learning and have some power to make decisions. Teachers should think carefully about what situations are best suited for allowing students choices so as to avoid confusion or lack of structure during the school day. The choices the teacher gives to the student must be acceptable to the

teacher. For example, a teacher may give a student a choice of (1) selecting a partner to complete an assignment, (2) determining where to do an assignment, (3) deciding the materials that will be used, or (4) choosing the order of problems. The teacher, however, should not give the student a choice of whether or not to complete an assignment.

Group-Oriented Interventions

Teachers may use group-oriented interventions to establish appropriate behaviors and prevent inappropriate behaviors in their classrooms. These interventions use peers to influence the behavior of other students in the class. There are three types of group-oriented interventions: dependent, independent, and interdependent. The major difference among the three types is in how students earn reinforcement.

In a *dependent* group-oriented contingency, the performance of one student, or a small group of students, determines the reinforcement that the entire classroom receives. The teacher determines the reinforcer (e.g., classroom party) and sets the criteria level that must be reached for the classroom to receive the reinforcement (e.g., earn 200 points in 1 week). For the students to receive reinforcement, the designated student or small group of students must reach this criteria level. Whether the classroom receives their reinforcing consequence, therefore, is dependent on the behavior of one student or a few students in the classroom. If teachers want to work on the behavior of a number of students or if they don't believe a student should be singled out, they may randomly select students on which to base the group reward and not tell the students whose behavior will be used to determine the group reward.

In an *independent* group-oriented contingency, the teacher chooses the reinforcer and sets the criteria level that must be reached for the classroom students to earn the reward. To take part in the classroom reinforcement (e.g., classroom party), each individual student must meet the criteria that the teacher sets for participation. The reinforcer that is in effect for classroom students is applied to individual students. Thus, in earning the classroom reinforcement, all students are independent of each other.

In an *interdependent* group-oriented contingency, all classroom students are treated as a single individual. As in the other types of group-oriented interventions, the teacher determines the reinforcer the class can earn and the criteria to earn it. Whether the classroom receives the reinforcement is dependent on the entire classroom of students reaching these predetermined criteria. Thus, the students in the classroom need to work together to earn the reinforcement.

Behavioral Contracting

A behavioral contract is an agreement between a teacher and a student, and sometimes other parties (e.g., parents, administrators), that specifies each party's responsibilities in fulfilling the terms of the contract. Student behavioral contracting begins with a written agreement that can take the appearance of a legal document complete with signatures of all parties. Typically, a behavioral contract will include a description of the student behavior that will change, the specific conditions that must be met for the contract to be fulfilled, and the rewards that are available when the contract is successfully completed. Behavioral contracts should be as clear as possible, fair to both teacher and student, and the contract must be honored if the student meets the behavioral conditions of the contract.

Conclusion

Over the past several decades, it has become increasingly clear that good classroom management includes ways to prevent problem behavior from happening in the first place. Indeed, there has been a shift away from thinking about management of behavior problems as having mostly to do with reacting to problem behavior and toward thinking about ways to prevent behavior problems. This shift has brought a positive perspective on both classroom management and what to do about behavior problems—positive not only for life in classrooms but also for the long-term development of students.

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See also Ecological Approaches; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; Proactive Classroom Management

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PROACTIVE CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Classroom management is the ability to establish an environment that is safe, conducive to learning, and promotes respect in the classroom community. Over the past decade, a new perspective on managing student behavior has become prevalent. Whereas in the past, schools often emphasized managing reactions to individual student's problematic behavior, there now is a focus on anticipating possible areas of difficulty and addressing problems proactively not only with regard to individuals but also with regard to the classroom as a community (or potential community) and as a complex environment needing to be organized and developed to serve many goals. As an example of the new emphasis on a proactive approach to classroom management, many educators now emphasize the need to create a warm and caring classroom climate where expectations are clear, students understand their responsibilities, teachers are mindful of how instructional practices impact students' behavior, and instruction is carried out with careful attention to pacing and differentiation.

Therefore, proactive classroom management focuses attention on the core components of organizing and developing classrooms so as to proactively minimize problems and maximize learning. This entry focuses on several of these core components so as to make clear the meaning of adopting a proactive approach to classroom management. The components discussed are *establishing behavioral expectations*, *instituting routines and procedures*, *actively supervising*, as well as *adopting instructional strategies* such as *providing differentiated lessons* and *controlling instructional pacing*. With proactive classroom management, attending to these core components helps promote learning and positive social interaction while reducing problem behavior.

Behavioral Expectations

It is much easier to choose the right action when one knows what the expectations are for the classroom and other noninstructional areas. It is critical that students are explicitly introduced to the teacher's expectations, see them modeled, and have an opportunity to practice and receive reinforcement for meeting expectations. It can be easy to make the mistake of assuming students already understand what a teacher expects.

Another common mistake is thinking students know how a teacher expects a particular rule or action to be carried out. Teachers can have very different ideas of how the same task or activity should be completed.

Making expectations explicit for students increases the likelihood they will be met.

Most teachers follow the practice of choosing three to five positively stated expectations (e.g., "treat each other with respect" instead of "no name calling") to guide classroom and school interactions. Some teachers like to involve students in choosing the expectations while others choose them in advance. Either way is effective as long as teachers decide in advance what expectations will be necessary and makes sure they are included one way or another.

Once the expectations have been introduced, teachers should demonstrate or explain what they look like in a variety of situations. When the rule is to treat each other with respect, teachers can explain how getting in line respectfully means being careful not to jostle or push one another. Similarly, they can explain how getting the teacher's attention respectfully may mean raising one's hand and waiting patiently until called on. Whatever the expectation is, the teacher needs to provide, demonstrate, or explain using examples. Then, students should have opportunities to practice and receive reinforcement for doing what is expected.

Routines and Procedures

Routines and procedures provide wonderful ways to proactively promote student independence and good behavior in a classroom. If students can anticipate how to deal with routine tasks, they have no need to ask the teacher. This saves teacher time by reducing repetitive requests and questions. It also makes transitions more efficient and eliminates interruptions when working with small groups or when working one-to-one with a student.

Routines can be employed for managing a variety of situations such as when students first enter the classroom and when students are getting ready for the next lesson. Ideally, a teacher will identify every activity that takes place in the classroom and decide beforehand how students should proceed. This includes the most common activities, such as sharpening a pencil and passing in homework, to the least common such as responding to an emergency drill.

After introducing routines and procedures for handling tasks, students are more likely to follow them if teachers are consistent in reminding them they know what they are supposed to do or providing cues to help them remember. Without reminders and cues, some students will use the "Can I . . . ?" or "What do I do now?" as a way to garner teacher attention or out of genuine confusion. Just as with establishing expectations, directions for following routines should be explicit and modeled, and students should have an opportunity to practice following them.

Active Supervision

Active supervision means being aware of what all students are doing at any given time—what educational theorist Jacob Kounin called being *withit*. By being *withit*, a teacher is able to prevent problems before they arise. Active supervision requires frequent scanning to check all areas of a classroom and moving throughout the room while interacting with students. Close proximity to students offers the chance to proactively redirect students to act more appropriately, even (or especially) when students' behavior, though not entirely appropriate, has yet to rise to the level of being disruptive or problematic.

Teachers should remember to praise students who are on task and who are working hard. For most students, a teacher's verbal praise is a powerful reinforcer for on-task behavior. However, praise should include information as to why praise is being given (e.g., "Nathan, thank you for completing the outline on time and so thoroughly!"). By using behavior-specific praise rather than more general praise (e.g., "Good job, Nathan!"), students receive unambiguous information on what is expected and valued, as well as a clear indication that the teacher is aware of their effort or work.

Constantly keeping an eye on 30-plus students so one can intervene *before* there is a problem is not an easy undertaking; however, it is a crucial aspect of proactive classroom management because it anticipates problems rather than reacting to them.

Instructional Practices

When thinking of the core components that comprise classroom management, instructional practices might not immediately come to mind, but they are essential to proactive classroom management because they determine the level of students' engagement in their academic work, and students who are engaged are much less likely to exhibit undesirable behaviors.

Although instruction involves many aspects, the most important include the following: (1) providing the appropriate level of difficulty, (2) differentiating for readiness, interest, and skill, and (3) adjusting instructional pacing.

Level of Difficulty

The optimum level of difficulty for learning a new task is slightly above a student's current level of competence—what psychologist Lev Vygotsky referred to as focusing on a student's zone of proximal development. A teacher should scaffold new material so that the student can learn it with teacher assistance.

It should be neither too difficult nor too easy. When students are asked to engage in tasks that are too difficult and lack appropriate teacher support, they are likely to be off task or experience frustration, both of which can lead to problem behaviors. On the other hand, when work is too easy, students will be bored. This can also lead to problem behavior.

When students are required to work independently, the teacher should be sure the assigned task can be completed without assistance. If assistance is needed, students should have access to a more knowledgeable peer or to other supports (e.g., a times-table chart to support math assignments requiring multiplication) that allow them to work independently.

Differentiation

Another technique for ensuring student engagement in academic work is to differentiate aspects of both the curriculum and instructional techniques. In addition, students can be offered the choice regarding how they demonstrate their knowledge.

Leveled reading groups provide one example of differentiation in content. Students read text at their instructional level rather than at a level defined as the grade level for a text. Another example occurs when teachers decide which aspects of a lesson to emphasize. It may not be possible to teach everything about a topic, so a teacher will choose one particular area to examine in depth.

Instructional differentiation occurs also when teachers decide how to present content. They may choose from a variety of methods, including direct instruction, whole-group lessons, cooperative learning, constructivist approaches, or a technology-based format.

Finally, students can be offered a choice in the products they create to show their acquisition of the material. For example, at the end of a unit, a student may have the choice of creating a written report or an oral presentation.

Differentiation contributes to enhanced student engagement because it respects and capitalizes on the different abilities and interests students bring to the classroom. When learning is interesting and accessible, it is inherently more engaging, which leaves students with little incentive to be off task or disruptive. Differentiation is, then, a proactive strategy in preventing misbehavior.

Pacing

The pacing of a lesson has a significant impact on students' attention levels. When teaching, the instructional pace should be rapid enough so that students stay in the rhythm of the lesson, but not so fast that they cannot absorb and understand the lesson. Some common pitfalls of slow pacing occur when a teacher interrupts

a lesson to admonish a student, digresses from the lesson at hand and talks about another topic entirely, or takes an inordinate amount of time to explain an activity before students are allowed to discuss or begin work on their own. Students can easily lose their focus in these instances, and when that happens, it can be difficult to regain their attention. Similarly, if the content is covered too quickly, students cannot follow and may, as a result, stop paying attention. In either case, students whose attention wanders are prone to misbehavior.

Conclusion

Demonstrating good classroom management is arguably one of the most important jobs of any teacher, because without it, all other instructional endeavors are difficult to achieve. Here, managing classrooms proactively is shown to be more productive than is managing reactively; proactive classroom management reduces behavior problems and contributes to a warm classroom environment where students are happy and more eager to learn.

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See also Ecological Approaches; Organization of Classrooms: Space; Organization of Classrooms: Time; Preventing Behavior Problems; Routines; Rules and Expectations; Zone of Proximal Development

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PROGRAM OF ACTION

See Ecological Approaches

PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION

Progressive education is a movement committed to creating learning environments that facilitate and inspire

students in developing their potential, as well as their sense of social responsibility. Having an understanding of progressive education is important for those interested in managing classrooms that contribute to the realization of a more just society. After outlining the historical context of progressive education, this entry describes the philosophical foundations of this movement and concludes with a discussion of teaching methods that exemplify progressive education.

Historical Context

In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, schools in the United States operated under a humanist or mental disciplinarian regime. Education was designed to cultivate the faculties of the mind, which was compared to a muscle that could be strengthened by strict discipline, monotonous drill, and repetition. This was thought possible only by teaching a curriculum that reflected the *best* of Western civilization, such as ancient Greek and Latin language and culture, and mathematics. However, many found the appropriateness of a curriculum based on that of Renaissance Europe questionable for a rapidly changing industrial society. Several reform movements appeared on the scene in reaction to the humanist agenda, proposing a range of alternatives.

There were three main reform movements. The social developmentalists were interested primarily in education that was aligned with the child's interests. Their curriculum was critiqued heavily for being too child-centered and for its lack of social utility. Second, the social efficiency reformists were concerned with preparing students with the skills needed for entering the labor market. The main criticism they received was for treating youth primarily as future workers, prioritizing economic stability over a well-rounded citizenry. Third, the progressive education movement was concerned primarily with preparing students with the skills necessary for ameliorating social ills. This movement was most commonly critiqued for its undefined leadership and vague objectives.

Philosophical Foundations

Although there is no consensus on how to define progressive education, it is safe to say that fundamental to the movement is faith in the human being as well as faith in education to bring about social progress. This movement is often linked to the ideals of democracy and the belief that democracy can only be sustained by knowledgeable citizens.

Unlike normative education that views knowledge as something *external* to the child to be deposited by the teacher, progressive education views the child as an active participant in knowledge making. This approach

is child centered and adult supported, viewing the role of the teacher as a *guide* rather than an authoritarian figure. Having a grasp of the interests and needs of the child is of supreme importance in order to make a given lesson relevant to the child, for it is believed that children learn best when they see utility in a subject matter and can link it directly to their lives. Essential to progressive education is providing children experiences that lead to solutions of real personal and social problems, thereby directly benefiting children and the broader society.

Progressive education does not claim to be value-free. As its ultimate aims, it seeks to redress social injustice and promote emancipation for all beings. It is not suggested that a teacher avoid exposing students to opposing viewpoints; quite the contrary. Progressive educators present students with a variety of points of view for the purpose of collective scrutiny and for students to better understand their social context. It is important for a progressive curriculum to provide students with a thorough understanding of the world in which they find themselves, which includes diverse perspectives.

To facilitate the development of knowledgeable, socially responsible citizens, several qualities are nurtured in the child. The first is the desire for lifelong learning, which is facilitated by presenting lessons in a way that students can exercise agency and identify clearly the relevance and utility of the subject matter. The second is critical thinking, fostered by allowing students to co-create knowledge instead of simply memorizing and reciting what has been presented. The third is making connections to, and taking responsibility for, other human beings, as well as for society at large, fostered by developing a classroom community, service learning, and other methods having to do with caring for others and for the group.

Progressive Teaching Strategies

A common practice in progressive education is to intentionally create a sense of community in the classroom. This is often done by implementing community-building activities as well as rotating leadership roles so that students have opportunities to experience a range of responsibilities and group dynamics. It is also recommended that students help in the planning of their projects to ensure active participation and interest on the part of the child. Often, the progressive educator attempts to model democratic living by creating a classroom culture in which decisions are made collectively with the well-being of the whole in mind.

Activity-based learning, or *learning by doing*, is another practice supported in progressive education. The goal of student engagement in educative activities is not to deliver an end product, but rather the growth that comes from the process of problem solving with others.

As previously mentioned, helping students see how what they learn in school relates directly to their lives is important; therefore, activities should offer opportunities for students to explore a variety of connections as well as learn a range of skills and practical wisdom. For example, if visiting (or starting) a community garden is possible, students can learn about the lives of plants and animals, the seasons' effects on nature, and can practice the self-discipline required in caring for wildlife. Cooking is another activity where teachers can introduce lessons relating to the chemistry of food, nutrition, and self-care, as well as broader issues regarding food and questions of ethics and justice. This activity also allows students to learn how to cooperate with and take care of one another.

It is also a common practice to take students on field trips to places related to social issues discussed in the classroom and to reinforce the idea that students are members of a larger community. For example, if a teacher chooses to address a particular social injustice in class, it can be beneficial to then involve the class in a relevant service-learning project. Participation can be followed up with group discussion, which can help raise students' sensitivity, help cultivate a sense of agency, and strengthen students' sense of connection to others in their community. Activity-based learning that is aligned with progressive education offers opportunities for all participants (teachers included) to address current social issues, facilitating the development of students toward becoming adults who are socially aware and responsible citizens.

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See also Anti-Bias Education; Democratic Practices in Classrooms and Schools; History of Classroom Management; Human Rights Education

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PROMOTING PURPOSE AND LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS

Purpose is a stable aspiration that is central to one's life and that organizes and influences behavior, plans, and

goals. Purpose includes several components that distinguish it from most other types of (everyday, short-term) aspirations: It is personally meaningful to the individual, but it also has an outward-directed component. Also, a sustained action directed toward this overarching and personally meaningful aspiration may be considered evidence that an individual has in fact identified and committed to a purpose. Although purpose can be positive and prosocial, by definition it can also be destructive. In the context of classroom management however, positive, rather than antisocial, purpose is intended.

Purpose pertains to classroom management because students with a sense of purpose about their lives and how school-related goals and behaviors connect to that purpose are easy to teach and motivate. When students have purpose, both they and their teachers can spend more time on learning and less on behavior remediation. Thus, a sense of purpose that is connected in some way to one's school experience can play a vital role in fostering a positive learning environment. This entry discusses what is known about how purpose develops, what supports it, and what educators can do to promote it.

The Development of Purpose

The development of purpose is worth supporting in youth. It is associated with greater hope and life satisfaction, as well as with humility, self-control, positive emotions, general psychological adjustment, and other good characteristics during this age period. Consequently, educators have turned much of their attention to understanding how purpose develops and is supported in adolescence and emerging adulthood, because it is during these periods that individuals are psychologically and socially furnished with opportunities to seriously ponder who they are, why they are, and what they want to contribute to the world.

Purpose is a holistic construct, yet researchers find it useful to decompose it into different parts. Central to purpose is having an intention that one is working toward accomplishing something that is personally meaningful. It is also directed at making a difference in the world beyond the self. And, finally, engaged action around that intention is frequently considered evidence that one has in fact committed to a purpose. These dimensions, taken together and occurring across time, can be said to constitute full-blown purpose. Thus, cross-sectional research by Seana Moran found that among adolescents and emerging adults, purpose falls on a continuum that includes different arrangements of engaged, self-oriented, and beyond-the-self manifestations. Some youth report no purpose; others are dreamers with inspiring intentions but no corresponding actions; others have active and clear self-oriented purpose, and still

others report active beyond-the-self purpose. Full-blown purpose in the form of sustained action beyond the self is more frequent among emerging adults than among younger youth.

The development of purpose does not occur in a linear fashion. Instead, life stages and individual and social contextual factors are key. The roots of purpose are grounded in early childhood experiences, but as it grows, it may follow several pathways. Todd Kashdan and Patrick McKnight propose three pathways: through proactive effort over time; through triggering by a transformative life event; or through social learning. According to Kendall Bronk's research, characteristics of each of these routes are apparent in the lives of young people who evince exemplary commitment to noble purposes. The pathways are not mutually exclusive.

Youth purpose exemplars usually start out with relatively minor commitments to their areas of interest, with action preceding a sense of meaningfulness—attending a fundraiser for cancer research, for instance. Purpose commitment proceeds through the proactive effort and stalwart characteristics of the individual: personal passion and steadfast embracing of challenges sustain the purpose commitment. The progress of purpose at this point is slow but steady. It may appear to proceed in starts and spurts, influenced by transitional life events, but as a whole it follows an arc of growth. As it escalates, purpose is bolstered by positive feedback and through encouraging and formative relationships with like-minded peers and mentors—both artifacts of social learning.

As they emerge into adulthood therefore, highly purposeful youth find new ways to achieve their purposes when faced with apparent roadblocks or changes in opportunities. They may use different means to enact their purpose commitment (e.g., serving God through studying religious texts in high school, but through practicing one's profession after college), or they may expand their focus to embrace a wider range of goals (e.g., focusing on addressing one environmental issue in high school but addressing many during college). Finally, young purpose exemplars tend to experience triggering events that fuel their commitment. For example: a frightening shooting in one's neighborhood leads to a commitment to end gun violence; securing an important job at a political think tank intensifies one's involvement in politics; or witnessing oil pollution spurs commitment to environmental causes.

Supporting Purpose in the Classroom and Beyond

The developmental pattern described thus far generally pertains to young people who successfully and intensively

sustain purpose over a period of time. Not all American youth achieve this, nor do all appear to be able to articulate a clear life purpose. It is estimated that less than 50% of contemporary American college youth achieve full-blown purpose, and even smaller percentages of middle and high school students do so. Interestingly, many high school and college students identify personally meaningful self-oriented goals in the absence of the beyond-the-self dimension, suggesting that this is the dominant end form targeted by American culture.

This is not to say that the trajectory of American youth is without hope or direction—purpose might flourish for many people in adulthood. Also, among more typical adolescents and emerging adults, purpose can be supported in a variety of developmentally appropriate ways. Heather Malin and her colleagues suggest that youth at different ages focus on different tasks related to purpose: middle school youth on being empathic; high school youth on finding a role to put purpose into action; high school graduates on reevaluating priorities because of transition to college or work; and college students on finding pathways to support their purpose.

Because of apparent age-related differences, purpose support sources will vary. Early adolescents benefit from parent-supported empathy development, through modeling of prosocial behavior. In contrast, the shift to the stronger pull of peer influences during this time can either sustain or undermine positive purpose—depending on the nature of those peer influences. In middle adolescence, family and social supports help define more specified roles for enactment of purpose. Structured opportunities in which youth explore roles, through career development or similar opportunities, become helpful during this period, and their importance solidifies during the high school years. In the transitions that occur beyond high school, adoption of family roles can stabilize purpose for some youth.

School Supports

When asked about the content of their purposes, many youth discuss school achievement. Youth who perceive their teachers as both supportive and competent also tend to be more purposeful. Accordingly, school is a promising venue for purpose promotion.

What classroom strategies can educators employ to successfully promote purpose in their students? The research in this area is nascent; however, several activities show promise. For example, in one school-based program, Bryan Dik and his colleagues had eighth graders interview parents or another close adult to understand how these individuals' work was personally meaningful and directed beyond the self. Next, students identified their most important work-related values using a

card-sorting exercise. Students then played a game where they analyzed how different professions contributed to community service outcomes. Students exhibited growth in a range of purpose-related competencies as a result of participation in these activities, including a greater sense of direction in thinking about future careers and a greater ability to identify personal interests.

For the high school years, Jane Pizzolato and her colleagues found that activities that engage students in thinking about their purpose, discussing their purpose, creating a timeline of goal accomplishment around their purpose, and identifying networks of support systems for their purpose are effective for low-income students. In the college years, formally engaging students in deep reflection about their purposes in life, through interviews or similar contemplative activities, may shield them from the loss of goal directedness that is often normative during this transition period.

Out-of-School Supports

Thus, an array of teaching activities is available to school professionals, and often they are easily integrated into the current curriculum. It is important for educators to note, however, that underlying the use of each of these strategies is the principle of transfer: It is possible that youth who are deeply committed to a purpose may transfer motivation in that domain to their schoolwork. David Yeager and Matthew Bundick found that adolescents who had adopted a purpose related to their future work also experienced more meaning in life and in their schoolwork than those who had not. Clearly then, out-of-school time contexts and activities can also be powerful contexts for supporting purpose.

Exploring how out-of-school time purpose supports functions, Seana Moran and her colleagues discovered that purposeful young people tend to use social and institutional support beyond school differently than less purposeful peers. In general, young people reference family members, good friends, and others they feel close to as offering the most global support to them. However, whether purpose emerges out of such relationships and out of social opportunities may partly be a function of (1) how the youngster orients to the relationships and opportunities, and (2) the degree to which the relationships and opportunities meaningfully engage the youngster in beyond-the-self experiences.

It is not uncommon for young people to enjoy close support from individuals and institutions in their environment, but youth with purpose integrate these contexts into opportunities for furthering their purposes. These youth draw support from a range of places—perhaps suggesting more opportunity to engage with them in the first place. Often, religious and service organizations are

the most frequent venues, maybe because they focus on prosocial goals. However, according to Devora Shamah, sports teams, where youth learn to value serving team goals over personal goals, and work experiences where youth develop meaningful personal relationships and a sense of responsibility, may also be fruitful venues. Along these lines, young people should be exposed to a wide range of opportunities to engage in thinking and action around goal-directed and beyond-the-self aims, and they should be encouraged to transfer what they learn in those types of contexts to other venues.

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See also Identity; Moral Development Theories; Service Learning

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PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

Prosocial behaviors are actions that are intended to benefit or improve the welfare of others. Teachers who

routinely manage their classrooms in ways that encourage students to interact in a respectful and considerate manner, form meaningful relationships, and care for and support one another—especially through personal and academic difficulties—are likely to promote prosocial behaviors. A classroom environment in which prosocial behaviors are widespread offers students not only inherent value, but also a sense of belonging and added motivation to confidently navigate school's many challenges. Prosocial behavior is both a worthwhile objective and an avenue through which to enhance classroom management.

Prosocial Behavior Further Defined

The term *prosocial behavior* is sometimes used interchangeably with altruism. However, these terms are not synonymous. Altruism is characterized by actions driven solely to benefit other people, without any potentially self-serving motive. Prosocial behaviors can be driven by both altruistic and self-interested motives, including empathic concern and personal values, as well as by feelings of guilt or social obligation. Among the array of prosocial behaviors, the most common are helping, volunteering, sharing, comforting, supporting, inspiring, listening, and cooperating.

Prosocial Behavior in the Classroom Context

Through effective and purposeful classroom management, educators can promote prosocial behavior and create caring learning environments. In particular, classroom management strategies that focus on students' sense of belonging and identity, nurture students' compassion and emotion skills, and generate opportunities for helping their peers are likely to foster prosocial behavior. To the extent that teachers employ these strategies, they can also contribute to an overall positive classroom climate that emerges from students' sense of belonging, compassion for one another, and readiness to help their peers.

A Sense of Belonging and Prosocial Behavior

Teachers can cultivate a sense of belonging in many ways. One way is for teachers to give students frequent chances to share stories and experiences from their daily lives. Provided with a richer picture of their peers, students may be better able to relate to and bond with one another in meaningful ways. Developing a genuine sense of belonging builds a class identity as well. Students who experience a class identity are more attentive to and in

tune with their peers' well-being and, thus, behave more compassionately toward them, especially toward classmates perceived as outsiders. When a class forms a collective identity, the language becomes *we* rather than *me*, which shifts behaviors to reflect this value.

Compassion and Emotion Skills in Prosocial Behavior

Compassion plays a central role in prosocial behavior. Compassion allows students to experience, in their minds and in their bodies, the misfortune of others as if it were their own. As they see more lucidly the need for and value of helping others, compassion increases students' motivation to behave prosocially. One tested approach to increasing students' compassion is for teachers to help their students to recognize and manage their emotions more skillfully.

Emotion recognition is an ability that underlies compassionate responding because students must first be able to identify their peers' emotional states (e.g., sadness, shame) before they can know a peer is in need and determine what behaviors might be helpful for that peer. Educators can teach emotion recognition, for example, by asking students to explore the cognitive, physiological, and behavioral shifts that they undergo when they and their classmates experience particular emotions during the school day.

If students are to be compassionate and behave prosocially, it is also important that they understand how to effectively manage their own emotions. Students who have trouble relieving unpleasant emotions (e.g., frustration, anxiety) may find it difficult to detect or seize opportunities to act prosocially, as they are immersed in their own feelings. Classroom management approaches that directly foster compassion and emotion skills are thus more likely to create a class of prosocially inclined students.

Norm Setting and Prosocial Behavior

Teachers can establish prosocial action as a normative behavior in the classroom, playground, and school by providing students with plenty of opportunities to help and support each other. Teachers can afford students chances to assist with various classroom tasks, from organizing a group activity to cheering up a disappointed peer. Teachers can reinforce students' prosocial behavior with public displays of pride and gratitude for kind acts. Further, teachers can explicitly encourage students to aid their peers. For example, when students finish an assignment early, teachers can ask them to see if their classmates need assistance with finishing their work.

Establishing a culture of prosocial peer support can be extended to the school level. Students can assist one another across grades through peer mediation or buddy programs with matters ranging from interpersonal conflicts to science projects. The more students engage in prosocial activities with their peers, the more likely they are to engage in spontaneous prosocial behaviors when opportunities arise. Experiencing pleasure from receiving help also motivates beneficiaries to behave considerately, thereby creating a positive feedback loop of prosociality. Accordingly, it is valuable for educators to routinely offer and teach their students to seek helping opportunities throughout their classroom and school community.

Social-Emotional Learning and Fostering Prosocial Behavior in the Classroom

Over the past decade, a wide range of programs has emerged to promote social and emotional skills that increase prosocial behavior through evidence-based classroom management. Social-emotional learning (SEL; also known as social and emotional learning) is founded on the notion that just as reading, writing, and arithmetic can be taught, so too can compassion, emotion skills, and social bonding. The SEL movement has gained notable public policy and scientific traction in recent years, as mounting evidence suggests that many SEL programs foster prosocial behavior and a positive classroom climate.

RULER is an example of an SEL program that focuses on managing a classroom well by developing social-emotional skills and encouraging prosocial behavior. The Emotional Literacy Charter is a RULER tool that students and teachers co-create to build a positive classroom climate and to facilitate a sense of belonging and purpose. Unlike classroom rules, the Charter provides individuals in the learning community with an opportunity to express (1) how they would like to feel while they are together, (2) what they need to do to create an environment conducive to those feelings, and (3) how they will handle conflict and uncomfortable emotions as they arise. The Charter is specifically used as a means to promote prosocial behavior by asking students to collectively determine the particular behaviors needed to support a prosocial classroom environment (e.g., offering peers encouragement after academic or personal setbacks).

The Responsive Classroom (RC) is a program for teaching that emphasizes the social-emotional as well as academic development of students within a caring learning environment. The RC focuses on classroom management and organization strategies that foster prosocial behavior, self-regulation, and responsibility

and motivation for learning. The *morning meeting* is an example of a classroom management technique embedded into teachers' daily practice. The morning meeting is designed to build and maintain a sense of classroom community by asking students to learn about each other and share personal experiences. During morning meetings, the teacher can act as a facilitator, or as a participant, allowing students to follow or lead the meeting. RC has been shown to decrease behavioral problems, increase student engagement, and create a positive classroom community with a shared purpose.

Conclusion

Prosocial behavior is behavior intended to benefit others. Prosocial behavior plays a significant role in classroom management as both an outcome and a means through which to promote well-managed classrooms. Among the many ways teachers may increase prosocial behavior through classroom management are practices that emphasize a sense of belonging, develop compassion and emotion skills, and provide ample opportunities for students to be there for one another. As the focus of classroom management continues to shift away from solely preventing conflict and disruption to cultivating caring and compassion, the potential of educational environments to transform students' lives is increased.

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See also Caring Approaches; Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning; Cooperation and Competition; Emotion Regulation; Responsive Classroom Approach; Social and Emotional Learning

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PROXIMITY: MEANING AND USES

Effective classroom management does not necessarily lead to complicated interventions or to intricate discipline management techniques. On the contrary, there are simple strategies that teachers can employ without appearing to be doing anything dramatic. One such strategy is *proximity* or *proximity control*, a simple strategy that allows teachers to manage minor disruptions at a close range without the loss of academic time and without singling out students publicly. This entry outlines the meaning of proximity control, the research behind proximity control, and appropriate applications of proximity control.

Meaning of Proximity Control

As its name implies and in the context of the classroom, proximity control refers to teachers strategically placing themselves near a student or students for the purpose of having their location alone be what helps the student or students exercise self-control. When used appropriately, proximity control can be an efficient, quick method for reminding students to remain focused and on task. Therefore, proximity control can serve as an advantageous and straightforward method allowing teachers to prevent misbehavior from occurring or cutting short minor instances of misbehavior before they become major interruptions.

Research

Fritz Redl and David Wineman advocated the use of what they called *surface behavior management techniques*, that is, techniques that do the job of managing children's behavior (or helping children manage their own behavior) but not at the expense of mismanaging children's underlying emotional issues. In their clinical work, they found that students who lacked *controls from within*, as they put it, may be helped to exercise self-control simply by having an adult be nearby or in proximity.

In a similar vein, Jacob Kounin found that if a teacher demonstrates *withitness*, that is, shows awareness of everything that is going on in the classroom (the proverbial *eyes in the back of the head*), it will help reduce instances of misbehavior. Being *withit* includes scanning the room and, when trouble or potential trouble is spotted, physically moving closer (e.g., increasing proximity) to students.

Similar to Kounin's emphasis on *withitness*, Fredric Jones determined that the most basic factor governing

the likelihood of student misbehavior is the physical distance between teacher and student. In essence, the closer the teacher is to a student, the less likely the student is to misbehave. Conversely, the farther away the teacher is from a student, the more likely the student is to initiate a classroom disturbance. Jones concluded that the proper arrangement of classroom furniture is what allows for maximum teacher mobility to make physical proximity possible in a very short time. Proximity cannot occur without clear, wide walkways that allow for easy movement and access to all students. Consequently, what matters is not so much where the furniture is as where it is not. As teachers assess their room arrangement, they need to give careful consideration to how each student can be reached in no more than four steps. Ultimately, if teachers are constantly moving during instruction and if furniture is arranged to maximize easy access, then no student will be left outside of a teacher's physical proximity range for any significant period of time.

How to Use Proximity Control

Research has demonstrated that effective teachers use physical proximity as one way to manage behaviors. Therefore, effective teachers are constantly on the move and not anchored behind a desk or lectern. Additionally, effective teachers follow the natural inclination to couple proximity control with other common management techniques, including silent signals and redirection.

Proximity and Silent Signals

Although proximity can be effective when used on its own, teachers often find it beneficial to simultaneously implement silent signals or quiet reminders to students as they move around the classroom.

Nonverbal signals such as eye contact, facial expressions, a touch on the shoulder, or a private signal between the teacher and the student, all can result in aiding reduction of unwanted student behavior.

Proximity and Redirection

Proximity control facilitates the use of verbal and nonverbal redirection. When classroom disturbances occur and when teachers move closer to a misbehaving student(s), they can choose to address the misbehavior globally rather than individually. For example, a teacher may state, "Everyone should be listening when someone else is talking" while concurrently giving a firm, nonverbal stare to the offender(s). In so doing, the teacher uses both physical distance and verbal redirection. In addition, close proximity allows the teacher to lean in and

quietly whisper a redirection that remains private (e.g., "Please keep your eyes on your own paper").

Conclusion

Close observation and the study of successful classroom managers have revealed that proximity control is a widespread and fundamental practice for preventing and managing misbehavior—even when teachers may not be able to explain their success by referring to their use of proximity control. The importance of proximity control as a method for managing has, in part, to do with its allowing teachers to intervene at a minimal level while producing substantial results. Doing so provides room for students to exercise at least some degree of self-control, perhaps the central goal for any thoughtful approach to classroom management.

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See also Impulse Control; Jones, Fred; Kounin, Jacob; Monitoring; Preventing Behavior Problems; Redl, Fritz

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PUNISHMENT

Punishment is commonly used to mean the application of a penalty when someone has done something wrong. This understanding of punishment is so prevalent that the behavioral definition is often ignored or misunderstood. This entry provides the behavioral definition of punishment; identifies the two types of punishment, with specific examples; describes side effects produced by the use of punishment; and concludes with a discussion of ethical considerations.

Definition

Behavior analysis employs a technical vocabulary so that terms are precise and actions or events can be

measured precisely in order to evaluate their success. Technically, a consequence is something that occurs after a behavior. If it increases behavior, it is called reinforcement; if it decreases behavior, it is punishment.

Technically, punishment occurs when (1) behavior is followed immediately by a consequence and (2) the consequence decreases the probability that the behavior will occur in the future. Both conditions must be met. An act can be identified as punishment only if it follows a behavior in close proximity *and* the behavior occurs less often or not at all in the future. This behavioral definition of punishment is distinguished from the everyday use of the term, which focuses almost solely on the aversive nature of the stimulus identified as a punisher and assumes that a decrease in behavior will follow.

For example, a parent who reprimands a child for misbehavior identifies the reprimand as punishment because it is an aversive event. If the child continues to misbehave, the reprimand was aversive, but it was not punishment. This is true of all types of behavior. Someone who steals a car faces penalties that may include an arrest, reparation, and incarceration. Although most would agree that these are aversive events, they do not constitute punishment if the person continues to steal cars.

In addition, events that you might consider pleasant or instructive can be punishing in the behavioral sense if they are followed by a decrease in behavior. For example, when a student correctly responds to a question asked during a lesson, a teacher generally praises the student. However, people who do not want the attention that accompanies praise may try to avoid it by failing to respond correctly to questions asked during lessons. In this instance, praise is punishing, not reinforcing. Punishers weaken the behavior they follow, even if that was not the intent.

Punishment doesn't have to be delivered by a person or be part of a behavior change plan. It may also occur as a natural consequence of a behavior. For example, if you put your hand on a hot stove, you burn it. If you then refrain from touching a hot stove in the future, the burn was a form of punishment. Behavior analysts call natural consequences that decrease behavior unconditioned or unlearned punishers. Unconditioned punishers include virtually any stimuli to which an individual's receptors are sensitive—such as light, sound, temperature, and pressure. In fact, any stimulus can be intensified to the point that it suppresses behavior.

Types of Punishment

Any event that follows a behavior and decreases the likelihood that the behavior will occur in the future can be a punishment. Behavior analysts distinguish between two types, positive and negative punishment.

Positive Punishment

In applied behavior analysis, positive and negative do not identify something as *good* or *bad*. *Positive* means something is added and *negative* means something is taken away. Positive punishment is defined as the presentation of a stimulus (such as a reprimand or correction) contingent on the occurrence of a specific behavior, which results in a decrease in the future frequency, duration, and/or intensity of that behavior. Receiving a ticket for speeding is a positive punishment if it decreases the frequency of speeding. In this case, the term positive means that the ticket was *added* to the environment after the behavior occurred.

Within the category of positive punishment, there are a few techniques that have been researched and are more commonly used in schools. These include reprimands, response blocking, and contingent exercise.

A *reprimand* or *correction* is any expression of disapproval. It can be verbal, a pointed finger, or a critical facial expression. Teachers use reprimands frequently as their first option when a student exhibits a problem behavior. For example, when a student is told not to talk when the teacher is talking or to stop playing with the objects on his desk, the teacher is reprimanding or correcting the student with the expectation that he will stop what he is doing.

Response blocking is physically preventing a behavior from occurring. This procedure is often used in interventions designed to decrease self-injury and/or eating nonnutritive substances (a behavior called *pica*). For example, if a student picks up objects from the ground and puts them in her mouth (i.e., *pica*), response blocking would consist of the teacher putting a hand in front of the student's mouth to prevent the student from inserting the item.

Contingent exercise consists of forcing the person to engage in some form of physical activity after a problem behavior occurs. The exercise must be a physical activity that the person is capable of performing without harm and that doesn't resemble the problem behavior in shape or form. For example, standing up and sitting on the floor 5–10 times is a type of contingent exercise that was used with severely emotionally disturbed students who were physically and verbally aggressive. It has also been found to be effective when used with self-stimulatory, disruptive, aggressive, and self-injurious behavior.

Positive punishment can also include events such as spanking or *belittling* (e.g., "You stupid child"). Most states no longer allow school personnel to spank students.

Negative Punishment

Negative punishment is defined as removing a stimulus (such as attention, a treat, or an object), which

results in a decrease in the frequency, duration, and/or intensity of the behavior it follows. For example, sending a child to his room (or the principal's office) is punishment if the future frequency of the behavior decreases. It is negative punishment because something (access to attention and/or preferred items such as TV) was removed. Response cost and time out are perhaps the best-known examples of negative punishment.

Response cost is the removal of a preferred item after the occurrence of a problem behavior (e.g., removing a toy that caused a dispute between siblings or losing your driver's license for drunk driving). Schools that have token economies or point systems use response cost if the students begin the day with a certain number of points that can be exchanged for preferred items and lose points or tokens when problem behaviors occur. The loss of tokens is an aversive event. It is punishment if the behavior decreases or is eliminated in the future.

Time out is the removal of attention and preferred objects or activities when a target behavior (e.g., yelling, refusing to follow directions, kicking, and screaming) occurs. Time out includes a range of procedures from mild to more intense.

Two forms of time out are nonexclusion and exclusion time out. During nonexclusion time out, the student remains in the setting in which the behavior occurred but no longer has access to reinforcement. The most common example of nonexclusion time out is called *contingent observation*. This procedure is accomplished by moving the student to an area of the room that is separated from other students and classroom activities. The student sits and watches the activity while the other students are free to participate and, presumably, receive reinforcement in the form of praise and/or an enjoyable learning activity.

During exclusion time out, the student is removed from the environment (e.g., classroom or communal area in the school) when the problem behavior occurs. In most cases, the student is removed to another room. However, any removal to a separate area (e.g., the hallway) can be exclusion time out. Most schools no longer keep a *time-out room*. However, sending a student to detention may be exclusion time out if attention and other preferred activities are withheld.

Time out can be effective if the student is being reinforced by attention or the activity. However, if escaping the activity is reinforcing for the student, the time out is not only ineffective; it can reinforce the very behavior the teacher is trying to eliminate. Moreover, time out only works if the regular environment provides reinforcement. Review the contingent observation example in this section. If the student sits and watches a boring activity in which students are infrequently acknowledged for their appropriate behavior, the only difference between that and the time-out environment is that the student in time out does not have to perform.

There are many ideas about how long a time out should last. One frequently quoted rule is that the time out should be no longer than the person's age. However, a short period of time out, 2–3 minutes, should be effective if time out addresses the function of the behavior. Longer periods are likely to lead to side effects and keep a student from the learning environment.

Factors Influencing the Effectiveness of Punishment

Just as there are factors that influence how well a reinforcer works, similar factors influence the effectiveness of punishment. These include immediacy, intensity or magnitude, schedule, and reinforcement.

Immediacy

Maximum effect is obtained if the punisher is delivered immediately or as soon as possible after the behavior occurs. If a student refuses to complete an in-class assignment on Monday, telling him he will receive lunch detention at the end of the week may not be punishing. The detention is too removed from the behavior, and the reprimand (telling the student he will receive detention) may not be intense enough.

Intensity/Magnitude

The effects achieved by varying the intensity of punishing stimuli have been thoroughly studied in basic behavioral research. That research has identified three effects. First, the more intense the punishment, the faster it suppresses the behavior. Second, the more intense the punishment, the less likely it is that the behavior will recur when punishment is discontinued. Third, a high-intensity punisher will be *ineffective* if you begin with a low intensity and gradually increase the intensity of the punisher over time.

However, only a few applied studies of intensity have been conducted in community settings, and the results have been inconsistent and sometimes contradictory. In addition, there are many issues connected to using punishers at high intensity. These include side effects and ethical considerations that are discussed later in this entry.

Schedule

Schedule refers to when and how often punishment is administered. A behavior is more likely to be suppressed if each occurrence is followed by punishment. If a teacher sometimes reprimands a student for speaking before raising his hand, sometimes ignore it, and

sometimes respond to the student, the reprimand will be less effective than if it is always delivered.

Reinforcement

A critical factor in making punishment more effective is how reinforcement is delivered. Punishment is less effective if the behavior you want to decrease continues to be reinforced. Take, for example, a case in which a student is engaged in tantrum behavior (crying, throwing himself on the floor, or kicking nearby furniture and people). A functional behavioral assessment (FBA) identified the function of the tantrum as a demand for attention (i.e., the student received attention from adults and peers when he threw a tantrum and this attention reinforced the behavior). The punishment procedure was identified as time out, which is designed to reduce attention. However, the behavior only decreased moderately because the student continued to receive some attention during his tantrum in the process of moving him to time-out. Once that attention was also eliminated, the procedure was more effective.

Punishment is also less effective if the problem behavior is the only way for the student to get reinforcement. Revisit the example of the student who threw a tantrum. Punishment will be more effective if the student is able to access the attention he seeks by exhibiting a more desirable behavior, such as asking the teacher for a break. An even more effective practice would be to provide additional attention when the student worked on assignments, followed directions, and was engaged in academic tasks. These reinforcement options are important because they teach the student a necessary skill while punishment procedures only stop behavior and are often accompanied by a number of side effects.

Side Effects of Punishment

Punishment does not have to be an extremely aversive stimulus or event. Nor must it include physical or emotional pain. It simply must decrease behavior. However, even mild forms of aversive stimuli have the potential for a variety of side effects.

Aggression

Punishment can produce aggressive behavior. This is especially true in the case of more severe forms of positive punishment. For example, a child who is frequently spanked may hit and kick the person who delivers the spanking (something referred to as *fighting back*). In addition, students may become aggressive if aggression has allowed them to avoid punishment in the past. For

example, a student who can avoid time out by screaming and flailing around, hitting furniture and any person who comes near will be negatively reinforced and the aggression will continue to occur.

Escape and Avoidance

A natural response to aversive stimuli is to escape or avoid them in the future. The student who is reprimanded for an incorrect answer may refuse to raise his or her hand or respond to questions in the future to avoid being reprimanded. The child who has privileges revoked (response cost) for a bad grade in science may avoid taking science classes in the future. In addition, students may skip class or school or find some other way (e.g., daydreaming, drugs) to *check out* or *tune out* of a punishing environment.

Recovery From Punishment

Recovery from punishment refers to the understanding that the suppressive effects of punishment are often temporary. In fact, sometimes the frequency, duration, or intensity of the behavior that was suppressed not only recovers but exceeds the level at which it occurred prior to implementation of the punishment procedure.

Differential Response to Punishment

In some cases, the person or environment in which punishment is delivered becomes a conditioned punisher. For example, merely seeing the person who delivers reprimands (punishment) may decrease behavior even in the absence of reprimands. This may pose a problem for two reasons. First, students need to be able to go to teachers for help and need to pay attention to them during lessons. If the teacher becomes a symbol for punishment rather than reinforcement, other appropriate responses and behaviors may be suppressed. Second, the target behavior may decrease in the presence of the person who delivers the punishing stimuli, but remain the same or increase in situations in which punishment is not delivered consistently or as effectively.

Modeling Punishment

Children who are punished may imitate the punishment procedure. For example, small children playing school or house often spend a portion of their time reprimanding, spanking, or putting their pretend children or students in time out. This becomes even more problematic if the spanking is severe or the reprimands are inappropriate and applied to real people.

Increasing the Frequency or Intensity of Punishment

When an aversive stimulus loses its effectiveness (i.e., no longer decreases the target behavior) or the effect is temporary, the person administering the stimulus may resort to progressively more frequent or intense procedures. If 5 minutes of time out doesn't work, perhaps 10 or 15 or 20 minutes will. If removing privileges for a day doesn't work, perhaps removing them for a week will. This gradual and progressive increase in the intensity of punishment makes the punisher ineffectual and can lead to more and more severe side effects.

Ethical Considerations

The ethical implications of using aversive procedures to decrease behavior must be considered carefully. The first consideration is the safety of the person being punished and others in the environment. Although those using punishment as an intervention may develop and follow strict guidelines for safe implementation of the procedure, the side effects must also be considered and addressed. Aggression, efforts to escape or avoid aversive stimuli, modeling punishment procedures, and increased problems in environments in which punishment is not used can result in unsafe situations, no matter the original intention.

Second, aversive procedures must be implemented in a way that avoids stigmatizing or being disrespectful to the person being punished. Interventions are *safe* when they cause no physical, social, or psychological harm.

Third, punishment can be much more intrusive than other behavior change procedures (e.g., reinforcement). The aversive procedures discussed in this section restrict a person's freedom of movement (e.g., time out and response blocking) and/or are intrusive (contingent exercise and response cost). In behavior analysis, the least intrusive procedure must be attempted and found lacking before more intrusive procedures are attempted.

Fourth, people who use punishment often do so because it has an immediate effect. If a student stops talking to the person next to him when he is reprimanded, that suppression reinforces the teacher who delivered the reprimand. However, suppression of the problem

behavior is not sufficient. It must be accompanied by procedures that teach the student what he or she *should* do. The introduction of a replacement behavior provides an option for the student to learn a new skill and access reinforcement for exhibiting that skill. This is an especially important consideration for teachers because the primary goal of schools and teaching is for students to learn—to acquire a repertoire of behaviors that will enable them to be contributing members of society.

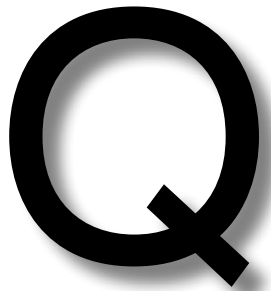
Murray Sidman noted that when punishment and the threat of punishment are used to get others to act as one expects, it is coercion. In his widely read book on coercion, he contends that the result of punishment is always to “sow the seeds of personal disengagement, isolation from society, neurosis, intellectual rigidity, hostility, and rebellion” (Sidman, 2001, p. 2). In contrast, reinforcing new, appropriate behaviors provides students with the skills needed to make decisions and choices that provide benefit for themselves and the environments in which they live.

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See also Behavioral Approaches, Foundations of; Extinction; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; Reinforcement; Token Economies

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QUAKER EDUCATION AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

The Quaker educational tradition in the United States dates back more than 300 years. Today, Quaker colleges and Friends schools (as Quaker elementary and secondary schools are known) exist throughout the country and have earned a high reputation. Though Friends schools are deeply rooted in the Quaker faith tradition, Quaker education is open to families of any and all religious backgrounds. Unlike many faith-based educational models that explicitly teach religious creeds and openly promote one particular view of God and religion, a Friends education does not promote any particular set of beliefs about God. Rather, it teaches about spirituality in a more general and universal sense, as it might relate to any faith tradition or to none at all. While Quaker educators do not specifically teach the more faith-oriented aspects of Quakerism in the classroom, their overarching educational framework and founding principles are largely informed by the Quaker faith. This unique educational philosophy has profound implications for the ways classrooms are managed and organized.

One fundamental principle of religious Quakerism is the idea that there is *that of God* within everyone (also referred to as *the light within*). From this belief stems a commitment to act in ways that represent the light within oneself and recognize the light within others. This emphasis on leading lives that attest to the goodness within all people has led to a long history among Friends of activism and peaceful protest of social injustice. In 1947, the Friends, as a worldwide religious group, were awarded the Nobel Peace Prize for relieving suffering and feeding millions of people during and after the two world wars. Friends were also among

the first to campaign for women's rights and the abolition of slavery, and they were crucial participants in the Underground Railroad, a clandestine network that helped slaves to reach the safety of free states. Today, the Quaker commitment to social justice represents a central tenet of Friends education. Indeed one of the most striking aspects of Friends schools can be found in their dual focus on fostering students' academic achievement and growth, as well as their moral development. This dual emphasis leads to an approach to classroom and behavior management with a distinctly Quaker identity.

Quaker Testimonies: The Moral Backbone of a Friends Education

At the heart of a Friends school are six Quaker testimonies that form the foundation for everything that transpires at the school. In the Quaker tradition, a testimony refers to a universal value or guiding principle. The word *testimony* has a particular meaning in the Quaker context. Friends use this word to remind one that values must be *attested to*; they must manifest in one's actions, as well as in one's thoughts. A testimony is, then, a way of living, not a belief or creed. For example, the peace testimony refers not to a belief in peace, per se, but to a committed *action* arising out of a belief in peace. The six testimonies at the heart of a Friends school are *simplicity, peace, integrity, community, equality, and stewardship* (often represented by the acronym SPICES). These values inform every aspect of the school—from curriculum to pedagogy, discipline, and classroom management.

Friends schools' commitment to the Quaker testimonies is complemented by an emphasis on reflection. Opportunities for students to reflect on their lives, their identities, their behavior, and on the Quaker testimonies

abound in a Friends classroom. A poignant example can be found in Meetings for Worship—a staple of most Friends schools. These meetings are typically held on a weekly or monthly basis and involve all members of a Friends School community coming together in silent reflection. During meetings, everyone sits quietly, teachers as well as students, and all are encouraged to open their minds and hearts to larger questions and concerns that can get overlooked in the everyday busy-ness of living. And when so moved, some are likely to share what they have been thinking and feeling about these larger questions and concerns.

Through their promotion of students' opportunity and capacity for reflection, Friends schools establish a climate for learning in which the children are highly self-aware and can develop an ability to reflect on the consequences of their actions and recognize their responsibility to the greater school community. In addition, Quaker schools maintain a school context that is built upon and truly embodies the SPICES values. Together, it is possible that these two aspects of the school environment could contribute to a decreased likelihood of problematic student behavior.

Managing the Quaker Classroom

The Quaker educational model not only offers a preventative approach to behavioral problems but also sets forth guidelines for how classrooms are managed and how problems are solved when they do arise. Teachers model the six testimonies in their classrooms at all times. This means that even discipline is handled in a manner that embodies peace and equality—not words typically associated with behavior management. Toward this end, Friends school teachers are challenged to handle discipline in respectful ways that reject the typical reward-punishment model in favor of a method that places more emphasis on the lifelong lessons students can learn through positive disciplinary experiences. For instance, when a teacher notices a child repeatedly engaging in a problematic behavior, the teacher does not simply demand that the child stop the behavior and then follow through with punishment if the behavior persists. Instead, the teacher might arrange a one-on-one conversation in which the teacher and the student can agree on the problem, try to understand why it arose, and work together to find a solution. If the problem is relevant to the entire class, the teacher might even call a classwide meeting to discuss possible solutions with the group (without identifying the student with whom the issue originated).

Rather than promoting an eye-for-an-eye mentality through a punishment model in which children's misbehavior is met with time-outs or other negative consequences, the Quaker approach enhances students'

sense of community by involving them in cooperative problem-solving efforts. It promotes peace by engaging children in less vindictive and more constructive conflict resolution processes. It models equality by treating students with respect, as equal partners in the effort to change their problematic behavior rather than as subordinates subject to the commands of their teacher. In addition, this approach supports and is supported by Friends schools' emphasis on reflection, which represents a key component of the problem-solving process. In this model of behavior management, a classroom management challenge—be it a student who often speaks out of turn or a conflict between two children on the playground—is viewed not as a burden but as a teachable moment, an opportunity for the troublemakers to reflect, learn, and grow.

The Quaker approach to discipline is consistent with another important manifestation of Friends schools' equality testimony, namely the maintenance of an egalitarian power structure in the classroom. Quaker educators reject the idea that their teacher status elevates them to a higher rank than their students. Rather, they offer students the same respect they expect from them. This means that Friends school teachers are mindful to talk *with*—not down to—students and to offer explanations and rationales for their requests that go beyond “because I’m the teacher and I said so.” In addition, Friends schools maintain an egalitarian decision-making process in which all parties affected by a particular decision (including students) have a voice in making it, and students are provided with opportunities to make meaningful choices about their own schooling experience whenever possible. Providing such opportunities may involve allowing students to choose between a number of different activities that fulfil the same objective. For example, if the goal is to identify the theme of a story, the teacher might allow students to draw a picture representing the theme, write a paragraph describing the theme, or discuss the theme with a teacher or fellow student. Students may also be involved in decisions about the structure of the school day, such as whether to hold math lessons before or after lunch. These kinds of choices provide students with opportunities to consider the consequences of different options, listen to one another's opinions, and work to reach a consensus.

Quaker testimonies also affect classroom management by encouraging teachers to foster cooperation, collaboration, and peaceful conflict resolution in the classroom. The testimonies of peace and community lead Friends schools to adopt pedagogies and curricula that are designed to allow students to work together and learn from one another to every extent possible. Quaker classrooms emphasize cooperation over competition, focusing on how students can help each other learn, rather than

on delineating which students understand and which do not. Furthermore, Quaker educators support students' development of interpersonal skills and ability to work well with one another by requiring peaceful negotiation of conflict in and out of the classroom, and teaching students the skills necessary for such negotiations.

Conclusion

In summary, the Quaker educational model has several implications for classroom management. Quaker schools maintain a school climate that serves as a measure of prevention for problem behavior by fostering students' commitment to the values of simplicity, peace, integrity, community, equality and stewardship, as well as an awareness of self and capacity for self-reflection. Furthermore, a Friends education calls for teachers to model the SPICES testimonies in all of their interactions within the school community and to create opportunities for students to practice acting in accordance with these values. This effort manifests in the Quaker model of constructive, rather than vindictive, discipline. It is also enacted through the maintenance of an egalitarian power structure in the classroom and in a propensity for collaborative rather than individual work in the classroom and conflict resolution education. Through these classroom management practices, teachers can effectively manage their classrooms and their students' behavior in ways that serve to not only reduce and resolve behavioral problems but also foster peace, integrity, community, and equality in students who represent the citizens and leaders of tomorrow.

Madeleine Lavender

See also Caring Approaches; Character Education; Climate: School and Classroom; Community Approaches to Classroom Management; Democratic Meetings; Democratic Practices in Classrooms and Schools; Japanese Model of Classroom Management

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science is attention to methods for answering important questions. Therefore, a critical piece in determining the quality of a study is the quality and suitability of a study's method for answering one or more research questions. Here, the focus is on how the formulated research question is the central element of a clear and well-designed study, as well as the basis for determining its methodology and which research paradigm should be employed. The focus too is on the characteristics of various research paradigms used in classroom management research and on illustrations of each paradigm to show their strengths and limitations for studying classroom management.

The Research Question(s)

Whether you are reading research studies and/or conducting investigations of interest to you, the presence of well-designed and clearly identified overall research question(s) is critical. In fact, the credibility of a study's results hinges on the formulation of the research question(s) and the determination of how to investigate the inquiry. The lucidity of the research question is of paramount importance because there is simply no ideal study that exists in classroom management specifically, or in studies of education more generally, despite every investigator's wish to conduct a perfect study. By making the decision to control for (not investigate the influence of) a large number of factors (such as student age, gender, race/ethnicity, home language, school), investigators limit their ability to generalize findings to *all* students. For example, if researchers wanted to investigate young girls in their study, they cannot generalize their findings to boys or to older students. Additionally, research questions aid in providing significant parameters of the study by identifying who the subjects are (e.g., teachers vs. students) and specifying the environment of the investigation (e.g., middle school classroom, vocational setting).

Almost all classes or textbooks place a heavy emphasis on the importance of research questions. However, some instructors and authors fail to share why well-developed research questions are important. Furthermore, there is a tendency to rely heavily on the particular methods and techniques that one is most at ease with when conducting research. For instance, a social studies teacher with a particular proclivity and skill for talking with individuals and for writing may find conducting focus groups and interview sessions comfortable and enjoyable. Alternatively, a technology specialist with an expertise in numbers may prefer conducting statistical analyses and be efficient with producing tables and graphs.

However, by being open to a range of methodological techniques and selecting a thoughtfully chosen

QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDIES

Studying classroom management scientifically is central to educational research, and one of the hallmarks of

approach, there is the potential to more fully unlock the research question(s) of interest. It is similar to what a good classroom teacher does; she or he has a bag of tricks—multiple strategies to try with students who are struggling to learn a new concept. In like manner, it is quite beneficial to have a good supply of strategies in the pedagogy bag to decipher which one to appropriately apply. Without exception, research questions provide the necessary direction for choosing the optimal methods to conduct the inquiry—in other words, for selecting the research paradigm.

In classroom management, there are countless provocative research questions applied to classrooms ranging from preschool through high school, as well as applied to the study of preservice education and the education of inservice professionals. For example, within the last 5 years, researchers have been involved with investigating the following:

- What are the components of a classroom management course that are important to preservice teaching candidates?
- Does self-administered or consultant-mediated videotape modeling tend to have beneficial outcomes on teachers' use of classroom management strategies in a preschool setting?
- Is the professional development classroom management model effective for reducing at-risk elementary school students' misbehavior?
- How do teachers' classroom management styles interrelate to one another?
- What are the practices in classroom management often used by high school vocational teachers, and why?

Research Paradigms

After identifying the research question(s), researchers need to determine how to conduct the study; essentially, the investigator selects a research paradigm. What is meant by a paradigm and what paradigms exist in educational research, and specifically in classroom management?

Paradigms represent a purification of how we conceptualize the world and go about inquiring. The two major paradigms for conducting research are quantitative and qualitative.

Quantitative Paradigm

A *quantitative paradigm* for inquiry is generally grounded in the assumption that features of the social environment constitute an objective reality, one that may be relatively consistent across time and settings. There can be exemptions to this rule based primarily upon the field. However, the quantitative paradigm

generally calls for gathering numerical data on behaviors, achievements, and/or attitudes. Researchers using quantitative methods may wish to know *how much*. For example, how many times does a child act out during a class? Quantitative investigators might want to inquire, “Is there a difference between/among groups?” For example, researchers may want to test which of two professional development models produces a limited number of classroom incidences. In this example, the data are subjected to statistical analysis to make comparisons among groups. Furthermore, a researcher may wish to investigate relationships among two or more variables. For example, researchers may wish to study the correlation between family structure and classroom behavior.

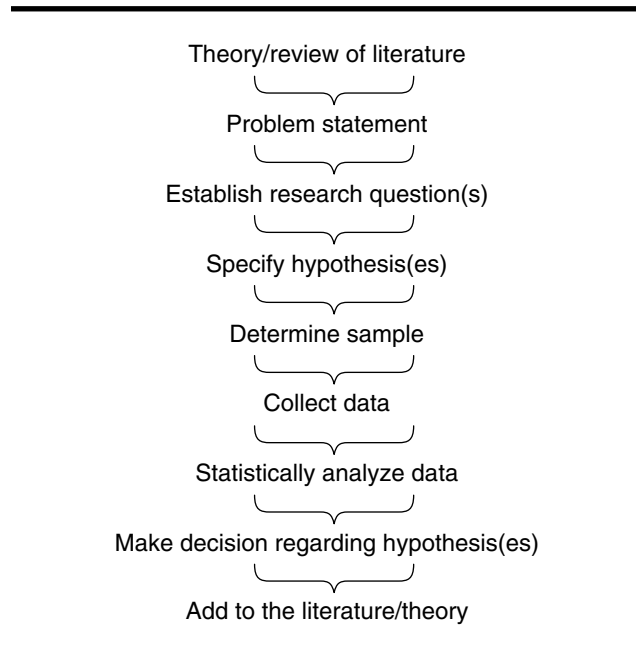
Sometimes, when only a single subject is the focus, the research method and design may be referred to as a single-subject quantitative design, in which the subject's behavior is compared at different times and/or under different conditions in systematic ways that get at the research question. Many behaviorists often use this method when determining whether a particular intervention is helping a student—by first getting baseline data, then introducing the intervention, then withdrawing the intervention, and then reintroducing it. Also, it is often used in today's schools that follow the response to intervention (RtI) strategy. Both behaviorists and advocates for RtI believe a potential cause of improvement can be inferred from an increase in a desired behavior following baseline, then a decrease when the intervention is temporarily removed, then an increase when the intervention is reintroduced.

Additionally, a quantitative method, when designed and used scientifically, derives from existing information and observations and previous research, from a problem statement and corresponding research questions, and from an overall conceptual framework or theory. Often, a hypothesis is specified, which will be tested once the necessary data have been collected. Figure 1 provides an overview of the quantitative method approach.

Some research studies of classroom management use quantitative methods to answer their research questions. For example, in a study exploring the effect of the professional development classroom management model on reducing at-risk elementary school students' misbehavior, researchers could gather office referrals prior to this series of teacher workshops. Then, for the remainder of the year, they could gather the number of office referrals every 2 months. In this way, they would be using the quantitative paradigm to examine whether office referrals decreased following the training.

In reading the narrative of quantitative studies, the analyses used may be identified as descriptive (e.g., mean, percentage, standard deviation), or

Figure 1 The Quantitative Research Process to Inquiry



inferential (e.g., *t*-test, analysis of variance [ANOVA], discriminant function analysis [DFA], hierarchical linear modeling [HLM], factor analysis [FA]). The previously mentioned research question examining whether there is a longitudinal effect of teachers’ self-efficacy influencing efficient classroom management and instructional quality is illustrative of a quantitative mode to inquiry.

Qualitative Paradigm

In contrast to examining group differences or determining *how much*, qualitative researchers focus their studies on addressing *why* questions. Qualitative researchers may interview and/or observe a classroom to answer such questions as, “Why is classroom management in Mrs. Jonun’s class so unsettled?” “What were the most effective traits of the professional development program offered at Mt. Francis School?” “Why do home characteristics influence classroom behavior?” As illustrated here, the questions are slightly different from a quantitative approach. Each of these approaches generally does not look to causality, but seeks to find trends and/or add to the theory.

A qualitative approach to inquiry is grounded in the assumption that individuals construct social reality in the form of meanings and interpretations, which tend to be transitory and situational. Researchers who use qualitative methods generally conduct case studies in the natural environment. They collect data by observing, reviewing existing documents, and asking questions

to form an analytical interpretation primarily focused on why. For example, a social studies teacher might conduct focus groups and interviews to answer a particular question about how a particular aspect of the class is going.

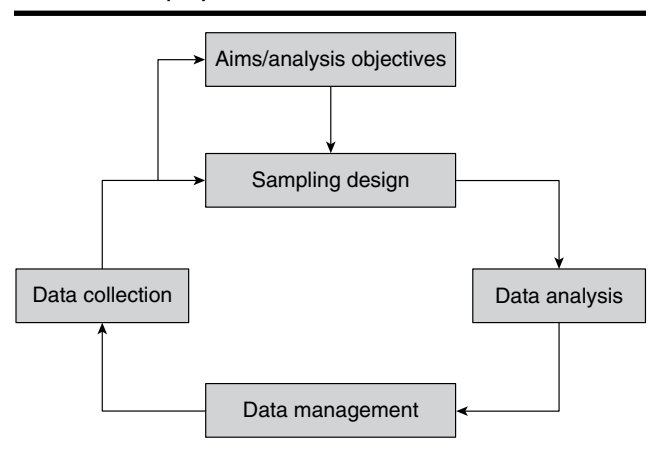
Studies in the qualitative paradigm tend to have only a few participants while penetrating a specified area of in-depth investigation. Still, they examine data, but in a different manner than a quantitative approach. Their data may come from interviews, focus groups, and observations. Figure 2 illustrates a process used in this approach to inquiry.

In a qualitative investigation, researchers might perform observations of preservice teaching candidates’ interactions with African American students in an urban environment in order to explore how they make sense of the issue of power and caring in the classroom. In another example, researchers could conduct focus groups of informational technology to ascertain their problems in classroom management along with underlying reasons and possible solutions.

Quantitative Versus Qualitative Methods

There are several general distinctions between qualitative and quantitative methods to inquiry, as summarized in Table 1. These include distinctions having to do with the roles of the researcher, with theoretical perspectives, with purposes of the inquiry, and with perceptions about human behavior. There are also distinctions between basic assumptions about the nature of reality that distinguish the two paradigms. Most pertinent to the actual research process are differences in the

Figure 2 The Iterative Qualitative Research Process to Inquiry



Source: Crabtree and Miller (1992).

Table 1 Comparing Qualitative and Quantitative Research Paradigms

| | <i>Qualitative</i> | <i>Quantitative</i> |
|---|---|--|
| Terms used | Postpositivist, interpretivist, social constructivism, naturalistic | Positivist, scientific |
| Role of the researcher | The primary instrument; biases may be known to the participants; participant characteristics may be known by the researcher | Aloof; researcher is only tangentially involved with participants; biases are not known to the participants; participant characteristics deliberately hidden |
| Epistemology (nature of the inquiry approach) | Subjective; multiple realities; realities are multiple, constructed, and holistic | Objective; single realities; reality is single, tangible, and fragmented |
| Perception about human behavior and values | Value-bound; dynamic, situational, social, and personable; interested in the <i>why's</i> and making sense of the lives, experiences, and world of people | Value-free; no need to examine meanings as the numbers tell the story; regular and predictable |
| Assumptions | Concerned with process | Concerned with product and/or outcomes |
| Review of literature | Surface level | In-depth |
| Purpose of research | To understand and interpret social interactions | To test hypotheses; perhaps make predictions; possibly examine cause and effect |
| Nature of research question(s) | Inductive as the research builds abstractions, concepts, hypotheses, and/or theories | Deductive as the researcher has an established null hypothesis and then uses the scientific method |
| Participants/samples | Few participants and not randomly selected | Many participants and often randomly selected |
| Method of data collection | Fieldwork in natural environment; may include observations, records, and/or interviews | Seldom involves fieldwork; may include gathering of numbers |
| Nature of data collected | Open-ended responses, scripts from interviews, participant observations, field notes, and reflections | Force-choice answers to questions, existing data, validated instruments |
| Research design | Ethnographic design; grounded theory; phenomenological research; narrative design | Experimental strategy of inquiry; true experiment; quasi-experiment; correlational |
| Data analysis | Themes and narrative | Statistical testing |
| Reporting of results | Narrative with contextual description and direct quotations from participants | Statistical reports with things such as correlations, comparisons of means, and statistical significance |
| Possibility of generalization | Only time- and context-bound hypotheses are possible | Time- and context-free generalizations are possible |

Source: Modified from Yakimowski and Wagner (2013); this is a composite listing across multiple researchers.

approaches to data collection and analyses and reporting of results. For example, the role of the researcher in qualitative studies is to be the primary instrument for inquiry, often by becoming embedded within the context of the research, while in a quantitative inquiry, the role is to remain aloof and stand at a distance as an independent observer.

In previous years, there was a greater dichotomy between those using qualitative methods and those using quantitative methods, and tension between the two groups was the norm. Over time, researchers have increasingly accepted that both quantitative and qualitative methods have much to offer. In fact, many now view research as occurring on more of a continuum between purely quantitative and purely qualitative.

Multiple (Multi-) Methods

Researchers who employ different methods of data collection within a single research paradigm apply what is called a multimethod of inquiry. For example, a researcher could collect data using multiple qualitative methods such as a series of interviews, focus groups, and classroom observations.

Mixed Methods

A researcher is said to use mixed methods if both quantitative and qualitative types of methods work together. For example, in examining how components of a teacher's classroom management style interrelate with one another, researchers might use both surveys and interviews. A survey could be administered to determine effective classroom management strategies, and as a follow-up, interviews of some of the respondents could be used to get at respondents' thoughts about why some classroom strategies were effective while others were not. Often, a researcher may choose to implement a mixed-methods design for the purpose of triangulation, to gain validity or accuracy of the results. There are relatively few studies using mixed-methods research designs because these studies tend to be more intensive and require more time and resources.

A mixed-methods design in classroom management studies should not be confused with multiple methods, as it has both quantitative and qualitative components that are aligned. A multimethod approach uses many techniques but only within one paradigm. In general, mixed methods tend to be much more complex than multimethods, and researchers need knowledge of how to collect the data and integrate the findings in both paradigms.

Strengths and Limitations

Often, the strength of one particular method is the limitation of the other. For example, a qualitative approach allows for in-depth interviews or observations so that you can address the *whys*. However, it is also a limitation as only a few focus groups and interviews can be realistically covered. A quantitative approach allows for many subjects, such as the number of office referrals for each student in the state. These numbers provide objective data that incorporate many subjects and can be easily analyzed. However, while you can determine that patterns exist, you cannot answer questions of why the patterns have been found.

Bottom line—a research question may lead you to consider one paradigm over the other. A large group and/or numerical data versus few individuals and/or interviews might lead you down the correct path. But, be sure to proceed cautiously. Continue to read the entire manuscript as perhaps the research question is further operationalized and/or perhaps subquestions are posed. Also, the study could be using both paradigms.

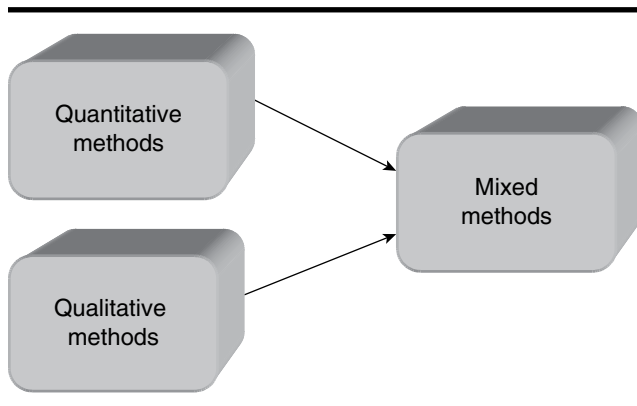
A mixed-methods study can capitalize on both the qualitative and quantitative strengths and minimize their weaknesses. For example, in a mixed-methods study, the research asked 68 teachers and 119 students to take a survey with 25 items on a 4-point Likert scale that measured aspects such as self-efficacy. Teachers and students were administered the survey, allowing comparison of the two groups. Four of the teachers were also interviewed, thus enabling the researcher to gain further elucidation into their why questions on classroom management.

Conclusion

Using mixed and multiple methods can capitalize on the different strengths of different methods and offset their different weaknesses. Using mixed and multiple methods allows for more comprehensive answers to research questions. But, can we incorporate mixed and multiple methods in the study of classroom management?

Perhaps we can explore qualitative data to develop an instrument or to identify variables to test in a later quantitative study. Perhaps naturalistic observations and focus groups can help us understand classroom management or teacher efficacy in managing student behavior. What if, based on what had been observed and/or interview responses, a survey instrument was developed, validated, and administered to determine if many others felt the same way? In this example, qualitative methods can be followed by a new component that incorporated a quantitative method. The resulting research design would be mixed methods (see Figure 3).

Figure 3 Qualitative and Quantitative Components to Produce a Mixed-Methods Study



Making decisions about how best to sequence and combine methods depends on the nature of the research questions we investigate. Although it might be impossible to have the perfect research design, it is always something to strive for. Planning how to conduct a study is both a science and an art; it is a matter of both judgment and experience.

Two further points about quantitative and qualitative methods: First, designing mixed-method studies requires knowledge of and familiarity with both paradigms and also experience with mixed methods. Second, adding another paradigm involves collecting more data and/or conducting more analyses. This often means a greater time commitment for researchers. Interdisciplinary collaborations can address both challenges. An interdisciplinary approach brings colleagues from different fields together to combine their unique

perspectives and skill sets to address complex research questions.

In summary, the formulated research question is the central element of a clear and well-designed study and the basis for determining its methodology. There are distinct characteristics distinguishing quantitative from qualitative modes of inquiry, and multiple methods versus mixed-methods approaches for the inquiry. The quality of any given scientific study of classroom management will, then, depend a great deal on the quality of the research questions and on the limitations and strengths of the methods used.

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See also Assessing Classroom Management; Evidence-Based Classroom Management; Treatment Integrity

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R

READING, LANGUAGE ARTS, AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

The language arts involve the study and practice of speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Reading and language arts classrooms are settings where teachers and students use oral and written language to learn from texts and from each other. For this reason, language arts classrooms need to be structured for engagement and sharing.

Classroom management in language-rich environments requires forethought about the physical environment, opportunities for social interaction, quality materials and curriculum, and varied grouping strategies. In this entry, the following topics are addressed: (1) creating a language-rich environment, (2) providing authentic tasks for student engagement in reading, writing, listening, and speaking, (3) planning structures and routines in the classroom for students to interact with each other and literacy materials, (4) utilizing evidence-based instructional practices, and (5) grouping students for differentiated instruction.

Creating a Language-Rich Environment

To encourage engagement in reading, writing, listening, and speaking, teachers replicate settings similar to those used outside the classroom by readers and writers. For example, classrooms may house collections of books in a library center for students to use for independent reading, collecting information for projects, or participating in a book club.

The classroom space affects how learning takes place—both in how it facilitates social interactions and in the provision of literacy-related tools. Arrangement

of desks, stations, shelves, and physical spaces for discussion, listening, reading, and writing all contribute to what experiences are possible within the classroom. Components of the physical environment that encourage language learning might include

- furnishings that support reading, writing, listening, and speaking, such as writing tables or easy chairs;
- storage and display containers that support literacy events, such as bookshelves or containers;
- classroom areas and layout that are adequate for working on, discussing, storing, and displaying literacy products, and meeting in various-sized groups; and
- a variety of texts, including fiction and nonfiction books, magazines, electronic tablets or computers, charts, labels, directions, and other print artifacts

Just as texts in a language-rich classroom must be accessible, it is also recommended that texts vary in form and content to meet the divergent needs of students. Researchers point to the direct impact of flooding a classroom with a variety of topics, levels, and genres of books. A well-organized library with a range of texts leads to increased literacy activities by students. Equally important in classrooms is the presence of local texts made up of student and teacher voices and creating openings for a stronger classroom community. Inclusion of local texts provides opportunities for students to engage in the language arts and make meaningful connections with their world and each other.

Authentic Tasks for Student Engagement in Language Arts

The language-rich classroom is set up as a workshop to mentor students in the use of speaking, listening,

reading, and writing for real-world purposes. Particular activities will change depending on the age level of students, their level of literacy and language development, and their interests. Following is a series of examples.

Preschool and Kindergarten

Early childhood education settings provide opportunities for language practice through dramatic play centers, science exploration centers, and teacher-guided conversation. Young children reenact real-world events such as going to the post office or the grocery store. Familiar stories, songs, and poems are chanted and retold, sometimes through the use of puppets or other props. Students listen to their favorite stories over and over and soon begin to retell them on their own. Student language is written down on paper, and links are made between oral language and print. Children are encouraged to write lists, notes, and stories *the best they can* using developmental writing. Children are provided with opportunities to find interesting books or other reading material to explore and learn from.

Elementary School

Elementary classrooms provide an apprenticeship in using language and literacy that they apply to events outside of school. During the elementary years, students grow in their reading abilities and extend the range of materials they can access on their own, including longer books, electronic texts and websites, advanced informational content, and dictionaries and other reference materials. Often, elementary students develop strong preferences for particular types of texts based on what they have been exposed to in the classroom or school library. The types of authentic activities that students experience in writing also expand greatly throughout the elementary years. Examples of writing activities include journaling; keeping data in a science notebook; writing informational reports; creating scripts, lists, newspaper articles, and reviews; and writing personal or collective books. As students' writing matures they may work through a writing process that includes planning, drafting, sharing, revising, editing, and publishing.

Studies of talk in the classroom highlight the inordinate amount of time that teachers, not students, spend talking. A key goal in the language-rich classroom is to provide additional opportunities for students to engage in authentic oral language use. Such experiences might include cooperative group work, student presentations of learning, interviews, conferring with teachers, role playing, dramatic readings or presentations, brainstorming, and participatory games. Listening skills can be supported through structures such as partner

sharing, paraphrasing, author's chair, and pointing out what attentive listening looks like.

Secondary School

As students' language and literacy skills continue to grow, an even greater number of authentic language arts experiences are included in the repertoires of middle school and high school instructors. Depending on the course subject and skill levels of students, authentic activities may range from debates and speeches, to individual or collective presentations, to book clubs. Students may also create scripts and digital artifacts that allow them to communicate their knowledge, interests, and passions to others. Digital and print texts are utilized for information, enjoyment, social connection, and creative expression. When students learn how to fill out a job application or practice being part of a professional interview, the language arts become a gateway to college and career readiness.

A key focus on oral language at this level involves the acquisition of advanced vocabulary and academic language structures. Learning about generative morphology—how word roots and affixes contribute to a word's meaning—supports conceptual understanding of the disciplinary content and provides access to morphologically similar words. Students identify and discuss unknown words in the material they are reading and attempt to use these words in their own writing.

Structures and Routines

A key element of effective classroom management is the use of well-thought-out procedures and routines to help students participate productively and minimize confusion related to inclass expectations. In the language arts classroom, students actively engage with each other in oral and written language tasks, so there is a special need for clear structures and guidelines. Routines are designed to communicate succinctly how an activity should take place, the materials involved, and other needed details. Routines help students understand what to do, when, and how. Through the use of routines, students practice and develop their interpersonal and academic skills.

Structures and routines in the language arts classroom are designed to help students use literacy materials as well as improve their interactions with each other. For example, a preschool classroom may have a routine for accessing books in the classroom library; an elementary classroom may have a routine for how a book club meeting takes place; and a high school classroom may have a routine for giving feedback about a peer's writing.

All of these structures help students develop their oral and written language skills in the context of a bustling classroom. Well-managed classrooms contain clear procedures for all aspects of literacy spaces and centers. The following typical literacy centers and activities would profit from clearly stated routines and procedures: using the computer center, selecting materials from the classroom library, making books, practicing word study, playing games, participating in book clubs, organizing vocabulary notebooks, using reference materials, and presenting a research paper.

Effective teachers model the routines, provide opportunities for students to practice them, and informally assess their implementation. Desired instructional routines will only become automatic if students are held accountable for following them.

Using Evidence-Based Instructional Practices

The use of evidence-based instructional practices supports students' achievement in reading, writing, listening, and speaking. A balanced literacy approach is one in which instruction includes adequate time for students to engage in reading, writing, listening to texts, word study, and oral language development. Instruction in the language arts classroom revolves around a set of key elements: phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary and oral language, comprehension, and writing. Teachers use a repertoire of research-based practices with their students in these areas, ensuring that all students are receiving instruction at their developmental level based on data gathered from both formal and informal literacy assessments. Instruction is systematic and explicit so that it is understandable to students, and instruction for English learners is tailored and explicitly taught so that it supports their language acquisition. Literacy instruction occurs in the areas of reading, writing, and word study; however, there are meaningful opportunities for students to interconnect all three areas throughout the day. The goal of literacy instruction is that all students in preschool through 12th grade advance toward becoming proficient and critical readers and writers, and that they will be motivated to read and write throughout their lives.

Effective developmental reading instruction involves explicit lessons from the teacher followed by extended time to read and practice the skills and strategies taught in these lessons. The components of reading instruction include short skill lessons, small group guided practice, partner discussions, and individual conferences with the teacher. Skill lessons occur in the areas of phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. Students have extended opportunities

to practice reading books of high interest and from a variety of genres in which they can read with ease. As students become fluent readers, they spend more time discussing books with their peers and in book clubs. These discussions allow them to explore the information, themes, and characters in the books they are reading and create connections across multiple books.

Evidence-based writing instruction also involves explicit lessons from the teacher based on students' instructional level, followed by guided practice and time to share their writing with peers. These components support best practice because they involve explicit instruction, modeling of quality writing, and guidance through a developmental writing process. Students are supported and challenged through this process as they gain independence in the strategies. The most effective grammar instruction occurs within the context of real reading and writing; students make decisions about writing conventions and get feedback from peers and teachers. Students are taught that writing is a life-long process of continual learning, and that there are always ways to expand one's writing skills and knowledge across multiple genres.

Word study is the development of orthographical understanding in a given language. In word study, students learn the patterns and generalizations relating to the sounds, spellings, and meanings of words. Emergent and beginning readers refine their understanding of the alphabetic principle, while almost-fluent readers investigate spelling patterns in the English language. Intermediate and advanced readers learn about morphology such as Greek and Latin roots. Students' vocabulary development is a key goal for every component of the language arts classroom and also extends to other discipline-specific subjects taught throughout the day. For example, studying the Latin word part *script* (meaning *writing*) in the language arts classroom will lead to connections in other content areas through words such as *inscription*, *transcript*, *prescription*, and *scripture*.

Evidence-based instructional practices involve the gradual release of responsibility starting with the use of teacher modeling and ending with student's independent mastery. To begin, the teacher demonstrates to students how to successfully complete a given literacy activity. Next, the teacher supports students as they try out the task. At this point the teacher clears up any sources of confusion, especially when a new concept is introduced. During modeling and guided practice, students have opportunities to ask for clarification and guidance. Teachers adjust the task based on students' level of understanding. Providing modeling and guided practice allows students to successfully participate in the apprenticeship approach and eliminates the frustration that can come from not understanding how to successfully complete a task. Students are able to immediately

engage in the activity and are less likely to disrupt the teacher or their classmates due to lack of understanding.

Grouping Students for Differentiated Instruction

A key component of evidence-based instruction involves working with students at their level of understanding so that they continually build on their current foundation of understanding. In order to deliver differentiated, developmental instruction, teachers work with students in large groups, small groups, and through one-on-one instruction.

Whole-group instruction in the language arts classroom is an opportunity for the entire class to come together and work as a community on specific topics. The teacher introduces literacy concepts and provides information on how they support students as readers or writers. Teachers use assessments to identify an area of need within the class. For example, if the informal reading assessments of a fifth-grade classroom indicate that students are struggling with making evidence-based inferences, whole-group instruction will likely be a good opportunity to model this practice. Effective teachers carefully select relevant whole-group topics and do not expect students to be passive recipients of generic knowledge. In whole-group instruction, students need opportunities to engage with partners periodically or show their understanding through active participation. In the elementary grades, whole-group instruction is a time when teachers engage the class with oral or written language such as with big books, choral readings, shared reading, readers' theater, read-alouds, interactive writing, student presentations, and so on. In middle and high school, the teacher models strategies by using shared texts that are visually projected for all to see. Strategies may focus on generating and revising theories about character, change, and other literary elements. Or, they focus on features of informational text that are key to a full understanding of the material. The theories modeled and discussed during whole-group time support other work the students complete in class, such as book club discussions or narrative or expository essays. During whole-group time, students of all ages are provided with the opportunity to discuss the strategy as a group or with a partner, as well as ask questions and share connections.

In order to address students' varying literacy levels, exemplary language arts classrooms are organized for small group work. Small groups allow students to engage with one another while focusing on a specific literacy skill or strategy. Students may work with each other in literacy centers, in a teacher-supported reading group, or in book clubs. Grouping students gives

teachers a structure for delivering targeted instruction at developmental levels based on instructional priorities. The use of small groups makes the language arts instructional block more manageable, because students rotate through a series of routinized learning activities. Instead of the one-size-fits-all approach to instruction, small group instruction allows students to review and extend their reading knowledge through various language arts tasks such as reading workshop, writing workshop, and word study. Students engage in varied tasks that support their individual needs, and the activity helps prevent students from becoming bored or disengaged.

Within small groups, students use instructional conversations and practice their oral language skills. They share their learning with each other and clarify confusions through questioning. In middle and high school, students learn from each other in small groups as they discuss their ideas about the texts they are reading and make connections to the outside world. In summary, learning activities that are organized in small groups provide an avenue for students to learn from each other, share their learning with peers, and engage in authentic literacy tasks. Small group work is a way for teachers to deliver differentiated instruction.

At the level of individualization, teachers meet with their students in reading and writing conferences. In this setting a teacher might ask specific questions about what the student is reading or writing, and what the student is taking away from the experience. Conferences provide teachers with a chance to learn more about who each student is as a reader or writer. They also give teachers the opportunity to address individual student needs based on what surfaces in the discussion. For example, a teacher who discovers that a student's independent reading of a book is too difficult can make recommendations for a *just-right book* that fits with the student's interests.

Conclusion

Classroom management in language-rich environments includes the structuring of the physical environment, opportunities for social interaction, quality materials and curriculum, and varied grouping strategies. Environments that support the development of speaking, listening, reading, and writing are complex and require clear planning in order to be successful. This extra effort is paid back generously to teachers as they see their students fully engaged and demonstrating progress in the language arts.

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See also Cooperative Learning Groups; Dyslexia: Individualizing Instruction; Learning Disabilities; Managing Classroom Discussions; Managing Groupwork; Reading Specialists and Classroom Management; Story Writing

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READING SPECIALISTS AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Reading specialists are educational professionals who work in elementary and secondary settings to advance literacy learning and teaching within these schools. As a regular part of their duties, reading specialists often meet with students in small groups either within a classroom or in a separate location. Particular classroom management challenges may surface in the work of reading specialists, such as the need to help struggling students maintain motivation or ensuring that supplementary instruction connects to students’ core academic program. This entry defines the role of reading specialists

and identifies the set of skills they need in order to fulfil that role. Next, an overview of effective management in reading intervention programs is shared, along with challenges that may present themselves and possible solutions.

Who Are Reading Specialists and What Do They Do?

There is great variability in the work of reading specialists. Their roles and responsibilities are multifaceted and influenced by the context in which they work. For the purpose of this entry, a reading specialist is a professional with advanced preparation and experience in reading who contributes to the improvement of student learning through instruction, assessment, and leadership. The traditional focus of these professionals has been on students who struggle the most with reading. Since the passing of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 2000 and the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2001, and with the U.S. Department of Education’s Reading First project (2003), reading specialists have also been providing literacy coaching to teachers of reading. This added responsibility addressed the focus of Reading First—to provide high-quality, comprehensive reading instruction to students, particularly in Grades K–3.

The Response to Intervention (RTI) initiative of 2004 has also triggered a change in the job description of reading specialists. In an RTI framework, reading specialists are one avenue for providing focused and frequent intervention for students identified as needing supplemental instruction. Reading specialists also provide informal, collaborative support to teachers.

Reading specialists use data to make decisions about students’ needs in planning appropriate interventions and then to carefully monitor their progress. Such monitoring helps to determine whether the selected intervention is working; if the student is not progressing, the requisite adjustments can be made in a timely manner. Reading specialists may teach literacy lessons to a classroom of students, modeling best practice instruction to classroom teachers and others. Reading specialists may work with early childhood, elementary, middle, secondary, or adult learners in various settings: public, private, or commercial schools, reading resource centers, or clinics. Reading specialists’ tasks will vary according to the age of those with whom they are working. For example, while working with secondary and adult learners, in addition to providing diagnostic testing and planning appropriate interventions, reading specialists might guide content area teachers in the teaching of reading or help these teachers find texts that students are able to read and understand.

Professional Knowledge Needed by Reading Specialists

To implement their job responsibilities effectively, reading specialists need both the content knowledge to diagnose and remediate reading difficulties and the pedagogical knowledge to successfully apply small group interventions with students who are not meeting grade-level expectations. Reading specialists are most effective when they are able to select appropriate informal and formal assessment tools and use evidence from students to make data-based instructional decisions. Excellent reading specialists have a range of evidence-based interventions to use with students at different levels of reading development; they hold a belief in all students' potential to succeed and can motivate learners who are frustrated or disheartened.

Because of their role in coordinating streamlined and appropriate intervention services, reading specialists must be exceptional communicators. They are called on to engage students and to communicate with parents, classroom teachers, building principals, and district-level leaders. They are frequently asked to provide training and support for other teachers. Exemplary reading specialists possess effective cross-cultural communication skills for working with students and families and bring in school- or community-based resource people to support their goals as needed.

Reading Specialists and Classroom Management

Effective classroom management in self-contained classroom settings involves structuring the physical environment for productive learning, clearly communicating behavioral procedures, fostering positive teacher-student and student-student relationships, and presenting curriculum that students can understand and are motivated to engage with. There is a consensus that the role of the teacher is the most important factor in student achievement in self-contained classrooms. Similarly, students who are below grade level need exemplary supplementary instructors even more critically in order to catch up to their peers.

The same criteria regarding excellent classroom management hold true for students in supplementary instruction settings. Students profit from developmentally appropriate instruction in safe and orderly spaces, with an instructor who creates a productive relationship. However, additional challenges affect the smooth implementation of supplemental instruction for a reading specialist. These challenges may include student frustration from difficult work or limited progress that could lead to lack of motivation, cross-cultural misunderstanding,

a mismatch between materials at students' instructional level and their maturity level, or distress at being taken out of the core classroom or identified within the classroom as someone needing extra help.

A repertoire of possible solutions may be needed to address these challenges, given that students bring unique histories, motivations, and background experiences to the reading intervention setting. Most students respond positively to having a choice about the materials they use or the activities they participate in. Wise reading specialists learn about their students' interests and offer an assortment of enticing books and digital sources to help motivate the readers. Assessments help reading specialists to identify the appropriate developmental level for materials, and care is used to ensure that materials appear to match students' maturity level. For example, a high school student with second-grade reading skills will be embarrassed to be seen reading elementary-level material. In this case, the reading specialist will be more successful in using high-interest, low-difficulty specialty publications, reducing the font size on work pages, or allowing students to dictate their own stories and reread them over again.

Many students are motivated and gain confidence in their own abilities when they see evidence of their growth in reading. Reading specialists collect data in systematic ways, and students can participate in goal setting and monitoring during their supplemental instruction. For example, students who are working on improving their reading fluency might tally the number of words read correctly in a minute over successive readings of a practice passage. These numbers can be recorded on individual graphs and reviewed regularly by students to measure progress toward their goals. There is evidence that, when dealing with difficult behaviors, positive rewards may help students to improve. External rewards are best used in a limited manner and discontinued when no longer needed.

A strong student-teacher relationship helps motivate students to do well in supplemental settings. It is useful for reading specialists to find out about students' background experiences and languages and to bring in books and writing assignments that involve students with similar backgrounds. This activity has multiple effects: It strengthens the connections between the student and the specialist, helps the specialist to learn about and gain respect for the student's capacities, and provides a model for the student to see culturally familiar representatives in texts. In addition, involving parents in sharing about their children or learning about the intervention setting will help improve cross-cultural understanding.

When students are upset about being taken out of the classroom for special instruction, or working

separately from classmates, there are several possible solutions. Reading specialists who find it necessary to work with students in a space outside their classroom must explain to students the reason why a new location is needed—so as to reduce feelings of isolation. It may be possible to have students bring a friend along to the intervention group from time to time. Encouraging students in a small group to support each other as a team may provide additional motivation. When possible, the specialist works with a small group within the classroom or may co-teach with the classroom teacher to solve the feelings of isolation. When students feel that the supplemental instruction is helping them to progress, and when the instruction is engaging, students will be more likely to participate eagerly in this work.

Communicating with the classroom teacher to maintain continuity in curriculum, using similar rules and procedures, and acknowledging that work done in supplemental instruction can count toward mainstream class assignments are all characteristics of exemplary supplementary instruction. In addition, reading specialists' organization and preparation, their high expectations for students, their engaging lesson implementation, and constructive feedback are critical in achieving a well-managed specialist setting.

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See also Co-Teaching for Inclusive Classrooms; Elementary Education and Classroom Management; Inclusive Classrooms; Interdisciplinary Team Teaching; Learning Disabilities; Reading, Language Arts, and Classroom Management

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RECESS

Student development at school occurs inside and outside of the classroom, as academic-related objectives and outcomes extend to the playground. Historically, schools have accepted the fact that children require time and opportunity to play, and so regularly scheduled recess is common at elementary schools. However, despite compelling evidence that recess plays an important role in supporting learning in the classroom, the National Center for Statistics found that total recess time has been reduced nationally by as much as 15 minutes per day and that some schools have eliminated recess entirely to focus on academics. The purpose of this entry is to discuss the benefits and challenges associated with recess and how these relate to classroom function.

Benefits Associated With Recess

For school-age children, recess offers a range of opportunities to engage individually and spontaneously with the environment and each other, in a natural way that extends their knowledge of the world. Furthermore, recess contributes to children's general well-being and overall health. Recess also contributes to positive outcomes in four primary and interconnected developmental areas: cognitive/academic, social, emotional, and physical.

Cognitive and Academic

Recess allows students to take a break from the sustained attention required for academic tasks in the classroom. This break allows for better focus and recall after recess and helps to improve attention and reduce restlessness in the classroom. Both hands-on and imaginative recess contribute positively to children's cognitive development.

When recess is structured to allow spontaneous choice of activities, students can recharge based on individual preferences. For example, some children will choose to play detailed or rule-governed social games, while others will choose quieter, independent activities. Children will gravitate toward activities that meet their individual needs and benefit cognitively from the break from academic demands regardless of the type of activity they choose.

Social

One of the primary roles of recess is to promote social development. Recess provides the largest amount of time in the school day for students to work actively

on social relationships, which is often not possible in the classroom due to the highly structured curriculum. Recess promotes student–student interaction while also introducing relevant life problems, thereby providing children with an opportunity to practice important social skills. For example, through organized games, sharing playground equipment and physical space, and identifying play partners, children learn to navigate complex social situations and to practice skills such as cooperation, negotiation, communication, self-control, problem solving, and compromise. These social skills develop reciprocally with academic competencies, and both are necessary for school success.

Emotional

Recess is a time for children to relieve stress by providing them with a break between more structured academic activities. When children move quickly between cognitively demanding tasks, they often become distracted and their ability to process information is interrupted. Recess provides a cognitive break that serves to reduce stress and promote information processing and focus.

For children, imaginative play also provides a space for exploring and conquering their fears and for building confidence. For some children who struggle with the academic demands of the classroom, recess may also provide the only opportunity for positive reinforcement at school. For children who excel in the physical, social, or creative skills used on the playground, recess provides a space to demonstrate and develop these strengths, which has important implications for these students' self-concept and school engagement.

Physical and Health

In addition to providing a break from the cognitive demands of the school day, recess also provides a break from the sedentary nature of most school settings. The opportunity for physical movement contributes to the development of children's motor skills and health, which in turn can influence children's social and emotional development. The chance to practice physical activities and to develop motor skills during recess also contributes to children's ability to engage in physical activity outside of school. While physical education also serves to promote physical health, the reciprocal cognitive, social, emotional, and health benefits noted above are unique to the child-directed types of play associated with recess.

Challenges Associated With Recess

The relatively unstructured and often boisterous nature of recess can present challenges for students, teachers,

school administrators, and parents. Many behavior problems and social conflicts are reported from playground experiences. Recess often generates more student office referrals than any other time of the day because it tends to be disorganized and difficult to manage. Yet, guidelines for maximizing learning (and reducing behavior problems) on the playground are mixed. For example, some guidelines suggest that school-age children benefit from unstructured and child-directed recess experiences, while other evidence suggests that more structure and supervision on the playground produce safer and happier recess experiences.

Creating Learning on the Playground

For learning to occur on the playground, teachers must be aware of students who need support to benefit from play opportunities. Sometimes, these are students with characteristics that place them outside of the majority group. Students who are often at risk at recess are students who are members of marginalized or underrepresented groups (e.g., students with disabilities, students with social skill deficits, students from racial or ethnic minority groups, students new to the community). However, most students are at risk at one time or another. Schools have high expectations for social management and inclusion at recess, and many if not all young students require support with the highly sophisticated skills necessary for successfully navigating playground requirements. Elementary students, in particular, are still developing awareness of their own and others' social interaction skills, as well as appropriate cultural norms for interaction. It could be argued that school expectations for positive, independent social interaction on the playground are even too high given the children's developmental skills.

Social interactions can be facilitated for students with a playground buddy system or by planning playground activities. Students who have difficulty entering into social interaction and play are most successful when the situation is predictable. Therefore, structured play with rules and roles (e.g., kickball, four-square, tag) is likely to be more successful than unstructured play. In unstructured play, a student must figure out how to join the group (i.e., social initiation) and engage naturally and spontaneously (i.e., social responsiveness). In unstructured play, the student must also figure out the rules of the group and understand social cues from others in the group. In short, to participate competently in many unstructured playground activities requires a great amount of social skill, and not all children are able to do this successfully.

Teachers must be aware of student interactions during recess. Given the larger space of the playground,

aggression and teasing can become common without adult intervention for conflict resolution. Negative interactions can be detrimental to a student's emotional well-being and self-concept and may impact classroom learning. In some cases, learning may be impacted for the rest of the day and over time. Bullying occurs, with repeated aversive interactions with the same students.

Students having negative playground experiences must be supported, validated, and coached toward better outcomes. Students producing undesired playground experiences must be met with consequences. Just as classroom rules and routines support and maintain academic expectations, playground rules and routines support social learning. To identify students having negative playground experiences, teachers should watch for undesired behaviors. These undesired behaviors should be identified by school rules (e.g., hitting, teasing, tripping). It is important to recognize that negative peer interactions can be covert or overt, brief or drawn-out, and physical or verbal.

Because students are developing self-awareness and perspective taking, and are exploring the formation and maintenance of relationships, they will not always make the right choices in social interactions. Therefore, recess requires adult supervision. Playground outcomes can be improved by examining teacher/student ratios, adult placement on the playground, use of physical space, visibility of student interactions, and consistency of student consequences. Teachers should be able to hear student interactions and see students at all times. Teachers should be available to model appropriate interactions for the students who need them and to help others solve social problems through conflict resolution.

Promising Playground/Recess Programs

One effective and proactive behavior management program for the playground is positive behavior intervention supports (PBIS). PBIS on the playground is structured around teaching positive expectations and social skills instruction and involves active teacher supervision. PBIS is used to improve student behaviors and has been shown to reduce problem behaviors on the playground and student office referrals. Similar to schoolwide PBIS models, target behaviors are defined clearly for the playground (e.g., hands off others, misuse of equipment, hurtful language/name-calling) in order to identify compliance for reinforcement and noncompliance for intervention. When schoolwide and playground PBIS models are used, behavior expectations can be linked for continuity and enhanced student compliance.

Another playground program is Playworks. Playworks trains adults to create an inclusive, healthy recess experience for all, one that promotes a positive school climate.

Teachers learn to proactively manage student behavior at recess, reduce bullying behavior, and increase healthy physical activity so students can return to the classroom ready to learn. Specifically, Playworks coaches use games, play strategies, and group management techniques to teach students how to play well together, share, resolve conflicts (e.g., rock-scissors-paper), and develop leadership skills. Schools implementing Playworks have reported fewer discipline incidents and more positive student engagement on the playground.

Conclusion

Recess is often a supervised, but unstructured, time with little adult interaction (as compared to physical education). That is, recess allows students to play and interact as they wish. This opportunity for free play impacts children's cognitive, social, emotional, and physical development. Because children's experiences during recess influence their classroom functioning, social and emotional development, and physical health, recess contributes significantly to students' overall academic experience. In short, experiences both inside and outside of the classroom (and throughout the school day) are reciprocally related and entwined—and they contribute collectively to daily learning.

However, the child-directed nature of recess can lead to negative experiences for some students (e.g., bullying, accidents causing physical harm). Schools and teachers must, then, implement strategies for creating positive playground experiences for all students. Those strategies can involve the regular teaching staff or outside help from specialists in recess management. Whichever the form of supervision, providing good recess management will better ensure that recess provides all of the positive opportunities it potentially offers—for restoring energy for academic work in classrooms; for supporting physical, social, and emotional development; and for providing children with positive experiences and positive feelings about their schooling.

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See also Bullying and Bullying Prevention; Peers and Peer Relations; Play, Learning, and Classroom Management; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; Prosocial Behavior

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REDL, FRITZ

Fritz Redl (1902–1988) is sometimes called the father of psychoeducation. Redl was perhaps the foremost leader of his times in showing how the education of children can be instrumental in supporting their mental health. From his perspective, teaching and classroom management can and should be for promoting both learning and mental health.

Born in 1902 in Austria, Redl grew up wanting to be a teacher and did, in fact, work for a while as a high school teacher. His educational philosophy was progressive in nature—emphasizing the importance of providing children with hands-on experience and cultivating teacher–student relationships that empower. Later, his

focus was on becoming a clinical psychologist, and he studied with some of the most influential founders of the child psychoanalytic movement, Anna Freud and August Aichhorn in particular.

After receiving his doctorate in psychology from the University of Vienna, in 1936, he made his way to the United States to participate in a program sponsored by the Progressive Education Association, and soon thereafter, he began his teaching career, which included appointments at the University of Michigan, the University of Chicago, and Wayne State University. While at Wayne State, he and David Wineman developed a treatment center, called the Pioneer House, for troubled (delinquent) children and youth. Some of his most influential writing is based on the work at the Pioneer House. Later, he worked at the National Institute of Mental Health as the chief of the Child Research Branch. Redl died in 1988 in North Adams, Massachusetts, at the age of 86.

Contributions

Fritz Redl's contributions are apt to go unnoticed today because both the language and theories that dominate today's discussions of clinical work and classroom management are different from the language and theories of his day. While today's language tends to focus on diagnostic categories (attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, autism spectrum disorder, learning disabilities, etc.) and the theories are mostly cognitive-behavioral, socio-cultural, ecological, and neurological (brain-based), the language of Redl's day was that of surface symptoms, mental hygiene, intrapsychic conflict, and other terms derived from psychoanalytic theory, which was the dominant clinical theory of the day. Redl, then, might be dismissed as someone who operated with an outdated system for understanding and addressing children's problems and for developing good classroom communities and schools.

However, a closer inspection of how Redl and his colleagues used the language and theory of his day shows him to have had impressive insights and wisdom in not only treating emotionally disturbed children but also creating classroom environments conducive to both learning and long-term healthy development. His insights and wisdom show mostly in the ways he applied his clinical training to the everyday problems of managing children's behavior, helping them get out of bed in the morning, participate in some group project, complete a math assignment, and so forth. Redl demonstrated how any seemingly mundane or nontherapeutic moment and task can become relevant to providing therapy for troubled children or good mental health support for all children.

Overcoming the Split Between the Clinical and Educational Worlds

At the heart of Redl's work was his mission to overcome a split between the clinical world of those doing therapy with children and the education world of those teaching and caring for children in schools and residential homes. With this mission constantly in mind, Redl worked to explain to clinicians and educators how good teaching and providing good care for children in group residential centers is instrumental for the mental health of children—and how educators and child care workers can do their job of supporting mental health using their own special expertise that is different from but equally valuable as the expertise of the psychotherapist.

A simple example may suffice to show what this means—an example Redl and his co-worker, William Wattenberg, gave in their book *Mental Hygiene in Teaching*. The example was that of a teacher noticing a child at his desk having trouble with decimal points in a multiplication problem. The teacher assesses the trouble by noticing the frown on the child's face. When she walks over to the boy, she questions him in a caring way to help him figure out the solution to the problem, as well as the rule for solving it. She then gives him another problem, which he solves with his newfound understanding of the rule for solving. And when he proudly shows his teacher his achievement, she responds, simply, "That's right," in a way that does not patronize with lavish praise but rather communicates to the boy that he knows what he is doing and is now empowered to take on such problems in the future and on his own.

It is these kinds of simple but hardly simplistic interactions with children by teachers and child care workers that Redl specialized in, and they all share several messages in common. The first message is that teaching and caring for children requires constant assessment and inquiry. But unlike the assessment and inquiry of some approaches (e.g., behavioral approaches), the assessment and inquiry that often matters most is an on-the-spot assessment and inquiry about a child's feelings and experience in the moment. In the example above, the teacher assessed the child's feelings as a result of her observing his frown and then inquired about how and why the child was failing to solve the math problem—all to set up and determine the right methods for intervening. In this example, the right methods included a short lesson in multiplication as well as a matter-of-fact, validating way of responding to the boy's succeeding. With another child struggling with multiplication, the right methods might have been something different.

The second message is that teaching and caring for children demonstrates how, with the right supports, learning and simple acts of everyday living (getting up

in the morning, participating at group meals, participating in recreational activities) can contribute to mental health. This second message led Redl and his co-workers to focus not mainly on the deep, psychic conflicts of the child (the usual focus of the psychoanalytically oriented clinicians who dominated the clinical world at that time) but on the seemingly mundane tasks of the moment—analyzing them for their meaning with respect to a child's inner life and needs for supports. This message leads one to carefully analyze just about everything in a child's immediate surroundings—to create surroundings that support a child's learning, making good decisions, and exercising self-control. In the above example, the teacher not only provided guidance about how to multiply when decimals are involved, she also provided a setting and task that helped the child multiply with decimals on his own.

Redl's third message derives directly from the psychoanalytic tradition's emphasis on adult-child relationships as being the principal context for a child's overall development. This third message is about cultivating a particular kind of teacher-student relationship that is not only generally positive and caring but also specifically positive and caring in just the right ways for what a particular student or group of students may need. This message addresses the often complex and competing feelings that students may have around wanting help while wanting to achieve on their own, around wanting an adult to care while being wary (mistrustful) of adults, about wanting adult approval while also wanting the approval of peers (often the two can be in conflict—especially in early adolescence). The list of conflicts having to do with feelings and wishes and fears related to the teacher-student relationship can be long indeed. In short, teachers and child care workers, in order to effectively manage both children and classrooms, must do so with students' inner lives in mind—their feelings and thoughts but more specifically the powerful conflicts that may characterize their feelings and thinking around relating to a teacher.

Conclusion: Judgment Versus Measurement

Redl's messages are as contemporary and relevant today as they were during his lifetime—because the messages are timeless. However, they can get lost in today's discussions about behaviors and about empirically based best practice. This is so because Redl's methods call first for clinical analysis of children and for clinical judgment about what method is best for a particular child or group of children. Once clinical judgment is used to dictate a method, it is difficult if not impossible to measure, empirically, whether the method chosen is generally

effective. Put another way, using the clinical perspective advocated by Redl, the effectiveness of a method lies in whether it addresses the inner life of the child (his or her thoughts and feelings) as well as in whether the method works not only for the short term (e.g., to restore order to a classroom) but also over the long term (e.g., the overall mental health a child much later on) as well. In the end, he cautioned us when employing methods to manage children to at least be *antiseptic* and do no harm either in the short term or in the long term. Regardless of how difficult it may be to measure methods based on clinical judgment, Redl provides us with clear guidelines for ways to inquire about how a child experiences our words and actions—and guidelines to modify our words and actions accordingly.

Christina Massrey and W. George Scarlett

See also Milieu Management for Students With Emotional and Behavioral Special Needs

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REFLECTIVE PRACTICE

One can think reflectively only when one is willing to endure suspense and to undergo the trouble of searching.

—John Dewey (1933, p. 16)

After a long day of teaching, Sarah finds herself driving home, thinking about her lessons and her learners. She thinks about Akeem and wonders if he understood the underlying concept of the math lesson. She remembers how Jana, David, and Neve used the reading strategy she taught during independent reading. And she reprimands herself for the way the science experiment had apparently failed. But as she thinks through her reactions to the failure, she realizes that the students' questions and her instructional decisions actually provided an unexpected opportunity for genuine inquiry. As Sarah drives into her neighborhood, she decides that she will revisit the science experiment in class tomorrow and have her students analyze the procedure and results

again. Her decisions show that Sarah is engaging in reflective practice.

Teachers often find themselves asking three fundamental questions: What happened during instruction? Why did instruction and learning unfold as it did? And what does this mean for future planning? These questions are at the heart of reflective practice.

Defining Reflective Practice

Reflective practice is a cognitive process through which an individual attempts to make sense of the world. Asking oneself the questions “*What happened?*” “*Why did that happen?*” and “*What should I do next?*” becomes a habit of mind that leads to deeper understandings and improved outcomes. Reflective practice is also a behavioral process in that the understanding one gains from contemplating an experience is then used to impact future actions. Simply stated, reflective practice requires a person to think about what worked and did not work and then decide how to proceed.

Being a reflective practitioner requires making professional decisions based on the present context and the wisdom gained from prior experiences. It moves beyond submitting to a prescribed method or authority, and it requires seeing beyond the boundaries of repetitive training and common practice. Engaging in reflective practice is an indicator that one has attained professional status in a given field.

Reflective practice is prevalent in many fields and disciplines. Educator Donald Schön (1930–1997) presented reflective practice in terms of professionalism: “Competent practitioners usually know more than they can say. They exhibit a kind of knowing-in-practice” (1983, pp. 8–9). In education, teachers work toward a goal of providing instruction that will enable growth and learning with many students each day. Schön’s *knowing-in-practice* is essential for teachers to be able to efficiently plan and teach. Reflective practice requires that a teacher unpack and examine that unspoken knowledge to confirm efficacy, to challenge assumptions, and to consider innovation. When a teacher considers the conditions and actions that have led up to the present situation, she or he builds a foundation to consider possible courses of action from which to choose.

As introduced earlier, Sarah, a seventh-grade teacher, found herself thinking through her instruction from the school day, considering and reconsidering where her well-planned science experiment had gone wrong.

The magnet experiment did not work today. When the students were trying to determine if several mystery substances were magnetic, some of the substances didn’t react at all. I

didn't know they had oxidized and would not respond to the magnets like I had planned. Two of them should have been attracted to the magnet, but nothing happened. At that moment, I thought I should just stop and tell them what was supposed to happen. I also thought about asking them just to read the textbook example to see how the experiment was expected to go. But I'm glad I didn't. Jaime asked why the metal shavings, which he knew were supposed to move, were not moving. Instead of giving my hypothesis, I asked the class to take a minute to discuss why they thought the metal shavings were not responding to the magnet. Some of the reasons were feasible. Some of them were not. A few of the students took pride in defending their reasons, and the conversation seemed to last a long time. I think the students were as glad as I was that the bell rang and the class period was over.

Even though Sarah could have referred students to their textbooks, explained the scientific principle herself, or simply ended the lesson, her *knowing-in-practice* provided an opportunity for her students to construct their own understanding. Moreover, it helped Sarah see herself as a thinking facilitator as well as a learner with her students.

So tomorrow what I need to do is divide the students into two groups, one with the mystery substances we used today, and the other with mystery substances that I will try ahead of time to be assured they will respond to the magnet as expected. My guiding questions tomorrow will not just be "Which mystery substances react to the magnet and why?" I will also ask the students to explain why one set of mystery substances did react and the other did not.

In what ways did Sarah consider the effectiveness of her teaching? How did her critical analysis change her goals for instruction? How did her reflective thinking lead to professional decision making?

It is important to note that reflective practice is different from reflection. Although they are closely related, Schön challenges professionals to consider the differences between *reflection-on-action* and *reflection-in-action*. Reflection focuses on critical examination based on some criteria or framework: Reflective thinking does not necessarily carry the expectation of action. By way of example, a teacher may reflect on a student's misbehavior and consider the many reasons he or she may have acted inappropriately. Critical examination may begin with a

litany of previous instances of the student's misbehavior, other students with whom he or she associates, the classroom climate, and the student's situation at home. These considerations may or may not be productive in helping the teacher make a plan for action. The teacher's critical examination may lead to a better understanding of the why behind the student's actions, but not the so what.

Reflection-in-action requires that the teacher use a professional lens not only to critically examine the conditions of the situation but also to determine which of those considerations can and should be addressed. Reflective practice requires that the teacher implement a plan of action. With an expectation for an improved outcome in mind, the teacher in the situation above might choose to conference with the student to set behavioral expectations and rearrange his or her work group. The professional educator puts his or her reflections into action by determining what conditions she could effectively influence and then proceeding to make the change. The reflective cycle is complete when the teacher determines if the improved outcome is achieved and if further action needs to be taken.

Development of Reflective Practice

Becoming comfortable with reflective practice takes time. However, for most beginning teachers, the seeds of reflective practice are planted the first time they celebrate a good lesson or rehearse what went wrong in a not-so-good lesson.

David Kolb offers a model of reflective practice that applies common elements of the experiential learning theories of Jean Piaget, John Dewey, and Kurt Lewin. Kolb's model explains that concrete experiences are interpreted by a participant as observations and even as reflections on the observations. Then, the participant forms abstract concepts or generalizations from the observations and reflections and finally attempts to try out the implications of what has been learned. Because reflective practice is a cycle, as the participant applies what has been learned, the new experience serves to renew the cycle of learning.

Experienced teachers know that lesson plans and behavioral expectations are rough drafts around which actual teaching and learning will develop. A teacher may expect that, because behavioral expectations have been established, students will conform. When that does not happen, the novice teacher may resist reflecting on students' misbehaviors or even refuse to acknowledge that misbehaviors occurred! Reflective teachers acknowledge the behaviors and think about who, what, and why the behavior happened. In addition, teachers who are more comfortable with reflective practice take action to aim for a better outcome. In this way, reflective practice

requires reflective teachers to admit their first attempt was not enough. Trying a different strategy means acknowledging that a plan or an expectation did not work the first time. It means taking a risk to attempt a new strategy and reevaluating the next outcome.

Kolb's model is useful to explain the process of reflective practice. But how do teachers grow in their ability to engage in and use reflection? Patricia King and Karen Kitchener shed light on seven stages of reflective judgment through which individuals progress as they mature. Stage 1 supposes that immature individuals are concerned with only the concrete experience. Stages 2 to 4 show how knowledge progresses from a right/wrong dichotomy to an understanding that knowledge is, in general, uncertain. Stages 5 and 6 explain how knowledge comes to be justified through consideration of the context and through evidence and opinion. And stage 7 shows how mature thinkers use inquiry to generalize and apply understanding.

Returning to Sarah's science lesson, we can see how she has grown in her reflective judgment. Her thinking moved from considering her lesson a failure to thinking about it as an opportunity to justify her own understanding as well as engaging her students to do the same.

Making Reflective Practice Classroom Practice

So how does one become a more reflective practitioner? One strategy is to recognize that reflective practice is a skill that can be learned and sharpened. Beginning teachers often find themselves inundated with pressures ranging from having to use required curriculum materials that they may not be totally familiar with to meeting testing schedules not of their own making. Those pressures, paired with a need to satisfy expectations, lead novice teachers to rely more on external approval and less on their own professional judgment.

It is critical that novice teachers be encouraged to critically analyze their own teaching and make their own professional decisions about their classroom practices. Mentoring strategies such as peer observations and shared journaling provide safe and supportive contexts for beginning as well as seasoned teachers to examine their own practice.

Video and audio recordings of instruction also give teachers rich sources of data to evaluate. Some schools involve teachers in small group professional development (professional learning communities) in which such data can be discussed and instructional decisions generated in a supportive group setting. Problem-solving strategies, role playing, and what-if scenarios help new as well as experienced teachers evolve as reflective

practitioners. In essence, conditions that are conducive for reflective practice include an atmosphere of personally meaningful inquiry, a focus on rich data to make instructional decisions, and a level of trust in which teachers can evaluate their professional practice and grow from that evaluation.

Concluding Thoughts

Reflective practice is a two-part endeavor: It involves an evolving awareness of professionalism (reflection) and an effort to improve (practice). Reflective practice requires that a teacher ask "What happened?" "What does it mean?" "Where do I go from here?" The process of answering those questions and employing the decisions that come about opens the door to new possibilities of knowing oneself and one's profession.

Reflective practice is a cognitive process and a behavioral process. But it is also an affective process. Instead of reacting to a student or a lesson as good or bad, reflective practice encourages teachers to look carefully at a situation and decide how to improve it. As an affective process, reflective practice demonstrates the professionalism and maturity that comes with well-examined experience. Teachers who regularly engage in reflective practice understand that good teaching is not about *being* a good teacher but about continually *becoming* a good teacher. That realization is one way that new teachers become resilient and know that their work is important and meaningful.

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See also *Beginning Teachers and Classroom Management; Teaching as Researching*

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REFRAMING

Reframing involves using all the facts in a situation to select out a particular set of facts to provide a different overall meaning than some initial or conventional meaning given to the situation. For example, in one first-grade classroom, a boy suddenly jumped up from a class meeting and started to dance. The conventional meaning would be that the boy was being disruptive or was trying to gain attention in inappropriate ways, or some other negative meaning. In this particular situation, the teacher, Marion Reynolds, chose to frame the boy's behavior differently as she turned to his classmates and in a matter-of-fact voice said, "James likes to dance."

Reframing is, then, a method to change meanings. It is one of the most powerful methods for managing seeming intractable problems—those problems that never seem to go away *no matter what*. It is also useful for preventing problems and for making it possible for students and teachers to function at their best. For all these reasons, reframing may be one of the most important methods available to educators for preventing and managing what at first appear to be problem behaviors and what at first appear to be challenging, troubling students.

Meanings can change from positive to negative, but the main function of reframing is to change from negative ways of evaluating students' behavior to positive ways—because finding positive meaning in a student's behavior can lead to all kinds of good results, including more positive teacher–student relationships, greater motivation to cooperate and achieve, and greater understanding and respect among students. The dancing boy in the example listened to his teacher and then sat down to rejoin the discussion. As a result, his classmates gained a positive perspective on the boy that they would not have had had he been reprimanded. Based on his past behavior, had he been reprimanded, he would likely have continued to dance and misbehave, and his classmates would likely have continued to see him as the class clown or worse.

Positive reframing can also serve as a platform on which to teach alternative behaviors. Consider the following example reported by teacher Kristin Willand about her student Dennis. Instances of reframing are in **boldface**:

One day, early in the school year, Dennis got up from his desk to get colored pencils kept on a shelf across the room and used for illustrating in writing journals. Rather than maneuver between desks, chairs, and people, as children usually do, Dennis took the shortest route by climbing on

top of empty chairs and not-so-empty desks, seemingly unaware that his climbing might be scary. I approached him and said,

"That's a great idea to use colored pencils for your journal. And you got them all by yourself, good thinking. I noticed that you walked straight here from your seat, but to do that your feet had to step on chairs and desks. And I noticed that when your feet stepped on Jay's desk, he got worried."

"But I didn't hurt him," Dennis replied.

"You didn't mean to hurt him, but you might have hurt him by accident. Jay, were you surprised to see Dennis's feet on your desk?"

"Yeah," said Jay, who had indeed looked very surprised and scared.

"You know, Dennis was trying to find the quickest way to get the colored pencils. He didn't mean to scare you," I replied.

During this brief conversation between Jay and me, Dennis watched intently. Then I said, "Let's see if Dennis can find a short way back to his seat keeping his feet on the floor." He did so, and I praised him. He smiled.

Notice, in this example, the teacher was able to reframe by attending to the positive *function* of Dennis's behavior (getting colored pencils) and to his positive *motives* (to complete his work independently and efficiently, to behave without meaning to harm others). Reframing often means finding the positive function and/or motive in a child's behavior.

The significance of teachers using reframing goes far beyond any given instance when reframing solves an immediate problem. The greater significance lies in helping to avoid negative characterizations of students, characterizations that can lead to self-fulfilling prophecies, to chronic misbehavior or chronic withdrawal, and, in general, to certain students dropping out figuratively or literally from participating positively in classrooms and school.

That was the situation with Dennis prior to his being taught by teacher Willand. Here is how teacher Willand reported on how other teachers had been describing Dennis:

In planning for the fall, teachers who had worked with Dennis gave me descriptions of his difficult family history, his violent, impulsive behaviors, and his significant language

delays. I learned about his biting teachers, his hurting peers, his classmates' fearing him, and his serious problems paying attention. And I learned of his being diagnosed as "having" attention deficit-hyperactivity disorder.

The result of this negative way of framing Dennis was that he was assigned an aide to *shadow* him, a method that maintained peace in the classroom but at the expense of Dennis's not becoming a full member of the class.

Reframing, Thinking, and Academics

While reframing may be crucial in the case of misbehavior and students considered problem students, it is equally crucial in the case of students considered poor students—those who fall short in their thinking and academics. Here, the challenge is to find positive meaning in a child's thinking, no matter how inadequate, off-base, or otherwise problematic that thinking might at first appear to be. Good examples can be found in the teaching as researching movement (see entry on Teaching as Researching).

Teaching as researching refers to an approach that works to see all students as involved in making meaning, an approach designed to challenge teachers' own initial assumptions about thinking and proper ways of engaging in academic talk. The approach begins by teachers finding puzzling moments, those moments when a child has said something unexpected and when the first evaluation is that the child appears to be behind, off track, inappropriate, or wrong. What adopting this approach has shown is that, upon reflection about a puzzling moment, an educator can often find that the child is not only thinking but also that he or she is thinking in relevant and positive ways and that acknowledging this through reframing can lead to much better teaching.

Jerome Bruner, when writing about early literacy, gives a humorous example of reframing having to do with a child's thinking. A Head Start teacher was reading the story "Little Red Riding Hood" to her young students. When she arrived at the Wolf's famous "All the better to eat you" line, one little boy jumped up, furious, and began cursing at the wolf in a manner sometimes referred to as *swearing like a sailor*. Rather than frame the boy's behavior as inappropriate and off-track, the teacher saw it as the boy's way of reflecting on and finding meaning in the storyline or, what Bruner called *metapragmatics*—an essential activity for understanding literary works. Her response to the little boy was simply to ask how *he* would have written the story differently—a question that further stimulated in the boy thinking about the story as a story.

Reframing and Culture

The previous example of the boy reflecting on "Little Red Riding Hood" might also serve as an example of reframing when confronted with cultural differences. The little boy's culture might be defined, in part, as a culture that embraced rather than discouraged highly charged and expressive ways of communicating feelings, ways that are deemed rude, mean, or otherwise inappropriate by what may be assumed to be the majority in North American culture. There are many more examples of students bringing to their classrooms ways of behaving and communicating that have positive meanings within their own culture but negative meanings for the majority of North American teachers. These mismatches in culture can cause problems, problems that end up with students being labeled rude, lazy, challenging, or otherwise deficient. Reframing is, then, crucial for avoiding such negative labeling having to do with culture.

Examples of culture and reframing can be found throughout the literature on culture and schooling. For example, Native American students have been observed to resist participating in typical North American learning games such as spelling bees—leading to some teachers seeing them as disengaged or uncooperative. However, when the students' resistance to such learning games is reframed as being an expression of the students' cultural bias toward cooperation over competition and fitting in rather than standing out as individuals, we see strength and something positive in their not participating in games that ask them to compete and work for themselves at the expense of their classmates.

Reframing and Children With Special Needs

Of all the situations that call for reframing, children's diagnoses and children with special needs are most in need of reframing. There is an old expression in the rehabilitation literature, the natural tendency to "reduce individuals to their handicaps"—to call children with Down syndrome *Down syndrome children*, or worse, *mentally retarded children*. Efforts to reframe have helped avoid this natural tendency, but they often fall short as the natural tendency usually wins out in everyday conversation. Educators and parents may not say mentally retarded or use other outdated labels, but the norm is to refer to a child as having Asperger syndrome, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, learning disability, or some other problem that comes to define the child in the eyes of others. Under such circumstances, it is difficult to see the child as a child, the student as a student, the strengths and not just the weaknesses. Here

are two examples of educators reframing in order to go beyond the labels to see the strengths and thereby open up new and better ways to teach.

The first example is of a small event but one that indicates reframing at its best. In one early childhood classroom, a child with Down syndrome came running over to where music was coming from a tape deck, grabbed the tape from the machine, and in a happy, playful sort of way was about to destroy the tape. The assistant teacher saw what was about to happen and was on top of the situation enough to take the tape from the child before he ruined it—and to say to the child, “My, you have quick hands”—then indicating why it is important to be careful with the tape that gives pleasure with its music. *Quick hands* is such a positive and encouraging frame—and with many other instances of similar positive framing, this child lived a happy life both in and outside of school.

In a similar vein, Joseph Cambone wrote about children labeled *seriously emotionally disturbed*, and as having *oppositional defiant disorder* and *conduct disorder*—pointing out that these very same children could also be seen as *resourceful*, *resilient*, *clever*, *creative*, and *tenacious*. Both negative and positive ways of framing these children work to capture significant facts, but the positive ways are often ignored and underutilized—leading to the children continually being seen as needing only to be managed and trained rather than affirmed, supported, and given the supports we are apt to more easily give to less challenging children. For these children especially, positive reframing is crucial for helping them develop into active and caring citizens able to take on the responsibilities of adult life.

Conclusion

As can be seen in the examples given, reframing in order to take a positive view of students is no arbitrary and optional practice. Rather, it is a necessary practice—for all students but especially for those students prone to eliciting constantly negative reactions from others, including teachers and other students. Negative reactions are to be expected. They are not unrealistic or inappropriate. Students hit, harm, slack off, tune out, and otherwise show they are poor students or worse. However, with a little creativity and nimbleness and empathy, educators can always find in students a good deal that is positive—and, like finding good soil amidst rocks, finding the positive can be where seeds can be planted and allowed to grow.

W. George Scarlett

See also Haitian Students; Interpersonal Systems and Problem Behavior; Native American Students; Teaching as Researching

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REINFORCEMENT

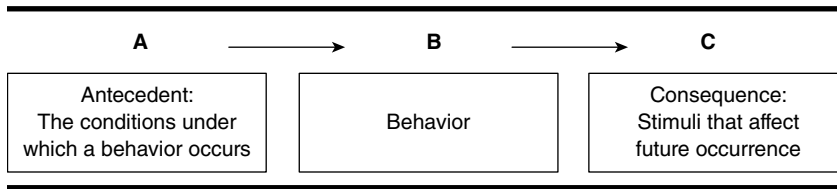
Reinforcement is one of the commonly used and frequently misunderstood concepts in classroom and behavior management. This entry defines reinforcement, explains the differences between positive and negative reinforcement, and discusses different types of reinforcers, the factors that influence the effectiveness of reinforcers, and ethical considerations in the use of reinforcement.

Definition

Reinforcement is a process in which the consequence of a behavior increases the probability the behavior will occur again in the future. The process of reinforcement can best be understood by considering the basic model of behavior analysis, the ABC (Antecedent–Behavior–Consequence) model (Figure 1). The A-B-C model can be traced back nearly 80 years to the early work of B. F. Skinner, one of the pioneers of the science of behavior analysis.

Behaviorists use the ABC model to analyze behavior by looking specifically at two variables: the context in which the behavior occurs (referred to as the antecedent) and the events that follow the behavior and affect its future occurrence (referred to as the consequence). The goal is to identify (1) the conditions that exist when a behavior occurs and (2) the consequences of the behavior that influence whether or not it will occur again. Consequences that cause a behavior to occur again in certain situations are called *reinforcers*. Consequences that cause a behavior to occur less often in the future are called *punishers* (see entry on Punishment, this encyclopedia).

To be a reinforcer, a consequence must (1) follow a behavior and (2) increase the probability of that behavior. Consider the following example. A student finishes an assignment correctly and on time (behavior). As a

Figure 1 The ABC Model

Source: Adapted from Skinner (1938).

reinforcer, the teacher provides free time on the classroom computer (i.e., a consequence that follows the behavior). Computer time would be a reinforcer *only if* the student finishes future assignments correctly and on time. If not, then computer time was *not* a reinforcer for that behavior because it did not increase its occurrence. No matter how much the teacher thought computer time would be a reinforcer, sometimes it might not be. The test of whether a consequence is a reinforcer is whether it follows a behavior and increases the occurrence of that behavior.

Positive and Negative Reinforcement

There are two ways that reinforcement functions to increase or maintain behavior. These two forms of reinforcement are *positive* and *negative* reinforcement. Both forms increase behavior.

Positive reinforcement is defined as the contingent *provision* of a stimulus (such as a treat, object, or activity) following a behavior, which results in an increase or maintenance of the frequency, duration, and/or intensity of the behavior. In practice, positive reinforcement means a person *gets* something and the behavior that helped to get it increases. For example, calling on students only after they raise their hands is positive reinforcement if it increases the frequency of hand-raising. The term *positive* is used to indicate that the increase in hand-raising occurred because something (in this case, attention) was *added* to the environment.

Negative reinforcement is defined as the contingent *removal* of a stimulus following a behavior, which results in an increase or maintenance of the frequency, duration, and/or intensity of the behavior. In practice, negative reinforcement means a person *gets out of* something aversive (unwanted), and the behavior that made it possible to avoid or escape that situation increases. For example, a student may use profanity (behavior) in order to be sent to the principal's office, thereby avoiding having to take a test (aversive event). The term *negative* is used to indicate that the increase in profanity occurred because something (in this case, the test) was *removed* from the environment.

Many people confuse negative reinforcement with punishment. However, punishment results in a decrease

in behavior, whereas reinforcement results in an increase. This confusion often stems from the common meanings of the terms positive and negative. With respect to reinforcement, these terms indicate nothing about the quality or social acceptability of the student's behavior or of the reinforcer. Rather, the terms describe whether an increase in behavior occurred because a stimulus or event was accessed (positive reinforcement) or avoided (negative reinforcement).

Recently, some theorists have suggested that the distinction between positive and negative reinforcement is unnecessary, arguing that both processes are involved whenever reinforcement occurs. For instance, the student who avoided taking a test (negative reinforcement) also gained free time (positive reinforcement). However, other theorists have disagreed, contending that one process or the other is usually primary and that the distinction has value both for researchers and practitioners.

Types of Reinforcers

Any event that follows a behavior and increases the likelihood of the behavior can be a reinforcer. The key is that it be delivered after a specific behavior and increase the future occurrence of the behavior. Behaviorists distinguish between two categories of reinforcers and several subcategories or types of reinforcers (Figure 2).

Reinforcers are identified as *primary* or *secondary*. Primary reinforcers increase behavior because they meet a basic biological need. The term *unconditioned* is used to describe primary reinforcers because they are naturally reinforcing; that is, they require no conditioning to become reinforcers. Primary reinforcers can be either *consumable* or *sensory* reinforcers. Water, fruit, candy, and raisins are common examples of primary reinforcers. As shown in Figure 2, water and raisins are consumable reinforcers, and light and music are examples of sensory reinforcers.

Secondary reinforcers are stimuli that gain reinforcing properties through association with primary or other secondary reinforcers. The term *conditioned* is used to describe secondary reinforcers because they are not naturally reinforcing; that is, they were initially neutral and required conditioning to become reinforcers. For example, we have no biological need for money, but it can provide access to primary reinforcers (e.g., food) or secondary reinforcers (e.g., a computer or a good book). Common categories of secondary reinforcers include *tangibles* (e.g., physical objects, such as toys, a car, a phone), *activities* (e.g., events or activities such as reading, playing music, or watching a movie), and

social reinforcers (e.g., activities or events that are social in nature, such as dancing, talking with friends, or praise from a teacher or co-worker).

Exchangeable reinforcers are items (e.g., money, tokens, or points for completing a task) that can be traded (exchanged) for other primary or secondary reinforcers. Their value comes from the reinforcers for which they can be traded. Exchangeable reinforcers provide an easy and convenient way to deliver reinforcers that might be cumbersome in some situations. Consider the student whose off-task behavior is reinforced by peer attention. Normally, one would want to provide reinforcement for a replacement behavior such as participating in math instruction. As engagement in math increases, off-task behavior would invariably decrease.

However, it is not feasible to provide frequent peer attention *while* the student is engaged in math. In fact, that would be as disruptive as the problem behavior. An exchangeable system would give the student points for the replacement behavior that could be traded (exchanged) later for extra free time with friends.

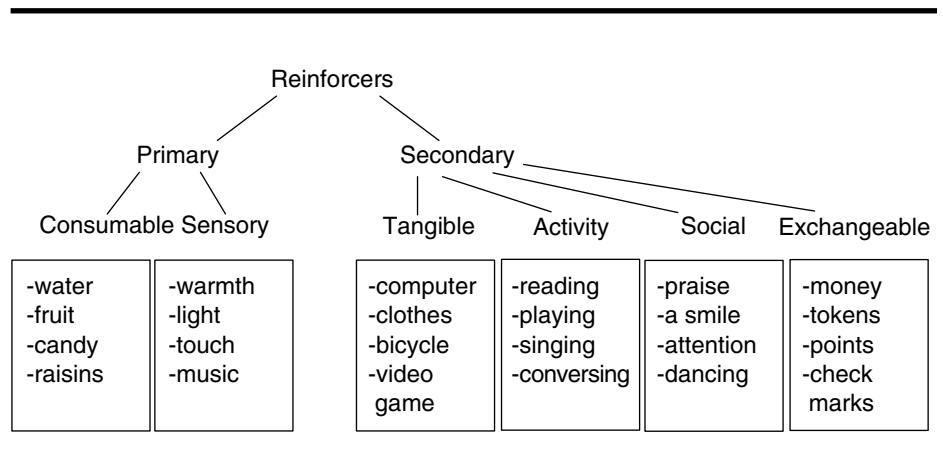
Factors That Influence Reinforcer Effectiveness

Several factors influence whether or not a particular consequence functions as a reinforcer at any point in time. These factors are (1) individualization, (2) contingent presentation, (3) immediacy, (4) size or amount of reinforcement, and (5) the student's relative state of satiation or deprivation with respect to the reinforcer. Each of these factors is discussed below.

Individualization

Each person is a unique individual with different likes and dislikes, different experiences and needs, different goals, and a unique history and behavioral repertoire. For this reason, reinforcers must be individualized. What may appear a reinforcer to one student may not be so to another student and may change from day to day, or more often, depending on the conditions (the antecedents) that exist at the time the behavior is exhibited. Although many children are reinforced by praise, not *all* children are. Furthermore, praise may reinforce a student's behavior under certain conditions (e.g., when

Figure 2 Types of Reinforcers



Source: Adapted from Umbreit et al. (2007, p. 58).

alone with a parent or teacher), but not under other conditions (e.g., when it is delivered in front of peers).

Contingent Presentation

To be effective, a reinforcer must be presented *only* when a desired behavior occurs. It should not be provided at other times. The term *contingent* specifies this relationship. A *contingency* stipulates an if-then relationship. *If* the behavior occurs, *then* the reinforcer is delivered. If a consequence follows desired behavior but also follows less desired or undesired behaviors, then it will not be effective in strengthening the behavior of interest.

For example, a teacher tells a student that the project she just completed was great (intended as a reinforcer). However, the teacher also tells every student they are doing a great job, even when they are not. Over time, the first student hears her teacher praise students who have finished projects, others who have not, and still others who have done little or no work at all. Two weeks later, the first student finds that she is behind in a project, but the teacher again tells her she is doing a great job.

The teacher is using praise noncontingently. He tells everyone their work is great even when they have done little or when the work is substandard. Under these conditions, praise loses its effectiveness as a reinforcer.

Immediacy

To be effective, a reinforcer must be delivered *immediately* after a behavior occurs. This is particularly important when a behavior is being established. When a behavior is well established, the delivery of the reinforcer might be delayed intentionally, but immediate delivery is critical in first building a connection between a behavior and a particular consequence. If delivery of

the reinforcer is delayed, even slightly, other behavior could occur, and the wrong behavior would then be reinforced.

Consider the following example of poorly timed reinforcement. A teacher wanted to increase a student's behavior of answering questions during class. Praise was known to be an effective reinforcer for this student. During math class one morning, the teacher asked, "What is 9 times 7?" The student quickly answered, "63." The teacher then immediately turned around and started to write a problem on the board. As he was doing this and with his back turned to the class, he praised the student for his correct answer.

What the teacher did *not* see was that, as soon as he turned his back, the student in question started making faces, which drew laughs from classmates. Because the teacher's praise was not immediate, it actually occurred while the student was making faces. Thus, the wrong behavior was reinforced, both by praise from the teacher and laughter from classmates. If the teacher had delivered praise immediately after the student said "63," praise could have been effective as a reinforcer for the student's behavior of answering questions during class.

Size (Amount)

The amount of reinforcement delivered influences how effective the reinforcer will be. The overriding principle is to provide *just enough* of the reinforcing consequence for it to be effective. Too much or too little will not be effective as a reinforcer.

If the math teacher (above) had praised the student's one response (63) for a full 3 minutes, it would have been too much. On the other hand, if the teacher had simply given the student a brief nod without saying anything, it might not have been enough.

Identifying the proper amount of reinforcement can require some experimentation. The teacher can identify the right amount by considering how much of the reinforcer would make it worthwhile for a student and then carefully watching for future occurrences of the behavior.

Deprivation/Satiation

The principles of *deprivation* and *satiation* refer to how long it has been since an individual received a reinforcer. If someone is hungry, then food is a powerful reinforcer. However, if the same person just finished eating a big meal, then food would *not* be a reinforcer for that person at that time.

For a reinforcer to be effective, there must be some state of deprivation with respect to the reinforcer.

It would, of course, be unethical to create a state of deprivation. Nevertheless, teachers need to recognize that states of deprivation and satiation will influence whether or not a consequence will be effective as a reinforcer.

Ethical Considerations

Despite its potential to improve classroom behavior and for ethical reasons, teachers are sometimes reluctant to use reinforcement. In many cases, this reluctance stems from a belief that reinforcement is a form of bribery, concerns about *rewarding* appropriate behavior, or worries that the use of reinforcement will minimize or inhibit intrinsic motivation. Each of these issues is discussed below.

Bribery

Many people consider reinforcement a form of bribery, with all of its negative connotations. In fact, a bribe is something delivered *beforehand* in exchange for certain action that is illegal or immoral, such as a favorable vote on a zoning request or a jury. Because the bribe is presented prior to the behavior, it may have little effect on the behavior in question and no effect on future behavior. Because the behavior that is targeted is illegal or immoral, bribery bears no connection to a teacher positively reinforcing a student's *appropriate* behavior.

Rewards

Many people use the terms *reward* and *reinforcement* as synonyms. From a behavioral perspective, they are not the same. As mentioned earlier, a reinforcer is a stimulus that follows a behavior and increases the future probability of that behavior. In contrast, a reward is something given or received for doing something. Although a reward may also be a reinforcer, most rewards are not, because they have no effect on the future probability of a behavior. Earning money for a class trip by washing cars may have little effect on the likelihood of washing cars in the future.

Despite the difference between reinforcers and rewards, some teachers still object to the practice of intentionally reinforcing behavior. There are two main reasons given. The first is a concern that relying on reinforcement could lead students to behave appropriately only when certain consequences are available. In response, behaviorists argue that reinforcement occurs hundreds of times per day, whether or not it is programmed. Taking advantage of this fact, teachers can carefully provide positive reinforcement for appropriate behavior. The alternative is to allow most appropriate

behavior that occurs to go unreinforced—that is, less likely to occur again.

The second reason for avoiding the use of reinforcement is the position that students should behave appropriately because it is the right thing to do. Behaviorists see this as a goal that is often not yet achieved with many students. They argue that one cannot assume that all people know what constitutes appropriate social behavior or agree that it is, in fact, the right thing. Furthermore, few teachers hesitate to praise students for correct responses to academic questions. Why should they hesitate to use reinforcement when the behavior in question is social in nature? From the behavioral viewpoint, students learn correct or appropriate social behavior and continue to exhibit it because the environment reinforces it.

Intrinsic Motivation

Many teachers believe that the use of reinforcement will prevent or inhibit the development of intrinsic motivation. In fact, the notion of intrinsic versus extrinsic reinforcement is misunderstood. *Intrinsic reinforcers* are those that are under an individual's control. Good examples can be found in the activities people engage in when they have free time. Some go to movies or read a book, whereas others visit friends or exercise. *Extrinsic reinforcers*, on the other hand, are under the control of other people or of environments. Good examples include getting paid for work, applause from an audience, or green lights at every intersection for not exceeding the speed limit.

From a behavioral perspective, what is termed intrinsic motivation is largely the *product* of a person's history of reinforcement. Extrinsic reinforcers are a part of everyday life. Teachers who positively reinforce appropriate behavior, and do so frequently, help students develop a rich history of reinforcement for engaging in the very behaviors they should want to do. Those who resist using reinforcement leave the development of these critical behaviors to chance.

Conclusion

Reinforcement is a central and powerful concept for helping students to adopt better ways of behaving in the classroom. However, despite its centrality and power, it is a much misunderstood concept, and the misunderstandings have had negative consequences. Rather than referring to particular things (food, praise, etc.), reinforcement refers to anything that causes a behavior to increase or be maintained—so that what may be assumed to be a reinforcer (e.g., praise) may, on occasion, be just the opposite if it fails to increase a behavior

or does the opposite. Keeping this functional or causal meaning in mind will go a long way to using the concept appropriately to both assess what may be reinforcing unwanted behavior and determine how best to reinforce desired behavior.

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See also Behavioral Approaches, Foundations of; Extinction; Functional Behavioral Assessment; Punishment; Token Economies

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RELATIONSHIP-BASED APPROACHES TO CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Many descriptions of traditional classroom management include at least some emphasis on the behavioral

perspective, and often this view is misrepresented by a strictly teacher-controlled environment that involves the carefully prescribed delivery of rewards and punishments. This clinical representation of behavioral classroom management probably misses the many positive interactions that typify most properly implemented behavioral systems. Nonetheless, during the past decade there has been heightened interest on describing and developing models of classroom management that focus explicitly on *relationships* between students and teachers. This is due in large part to accruing evidence that the nature and quality of student–teacher relationships are key predictors of students’ overall well-being in school, including their engagement and their academic and social success. This entry includes an overview of the concepts and emerging research on child–teacher relationships and the implications of these relationships for managing classrooms effectively in ways that foster positive child development.

Child–Teacher Relationships

The centrality of child–teacher relationships to discussions of children’s success in school has been advanced and described extensively by Robert Pianta and his colleagues. The essence of these discussions is that the quality of individual students’ relationships with their teachers is critically important to children’s social and emotional development, as well as to their engagement in school, which is subsequently predictive of academic success. A number of specific strategies or teacher practices have been suggested as important to fostering positive teacher–student relationships, and a theme across these is the concept of creating, or banking, *relational capital*. That is, if teachers make efforts to establish positive relationships with students and develop a history of constructive, respectful interactions, they can draw on this capital when challenging situations occur in the classroom. An underlying element of the strategies is that teachers and students must learn and talk about social and emotional skills, including learning and becoming comfortable identifying and discussing emotional states and feelings, as well as analyzing situations by considering alternative interpretations of events, behaviors, and feelings.

Among the specific strategies recommended is the idea that teachers should invest time in interacting with students on matters outside of the curriculum, asking about personal interests or nonschool activities. The suggestion is simply that a positive relationship can be developed and enhanced with regular conversations in which the teacher takes interest in the student’s life, rather than interacting solely around the curriculum or students’ academic or behavioral issues in school.

A second proactive strategy for enhancing relationships involves the teacher making sure that students know the teacher is available for help and support, both academically and otherwise, outside of the normal classroom routines (e.g., before or after school). Third, teachers’ relationships with students are enhanced when it is clear to students that their perspectives and ideas are valued and respected. This can involve both academic and non-academic contexts. For example, during instruction students must feel comfortable sharing, if not risk-taking, in that they know their input will be appreciated and their ideas will not be dismissed. In addition to specific instructional contexts, students must also be made to feel that they have a say in all matters related to school and the curriculum—that they are participants in all aspects of their education, rather than passive attendees for whom all decisions about curriculum, as well as school and classroom organization and logistics, have been predetermined. Finally, it has been suggested that a relationship-based perspective differs from certain traditional (behavioral) classroom management routines and procedures in the overt emphasis on teachers’ demonstrating caring and respect for students, even in the enforcement of routines or procedures, or the delivery of consequences.

Implications of Child–Teacher Relationships for Classroom Management

The importance of child–teacher relationships for management issues is based on the broadest conceptualization of classroom management, which includes an emphasis on a developmental view of children’s social, emotional, and academic functioning in school. A relationship-focused view of classroom management suggests that when teachers build positive, supportive relationships with their students, engagement with school and the curriculum is enhanced, both academic and social success are positively impacted, and problem behavior is reduced. Although relationship building focuses less on counting or measuring discrete teacher behaviors, a number of the elements associated with a positive child–teacher relationship involve skills or interaction qualities that teachers can learn and improve upon. These are often described within a framework of teacher–student interaction across three domains: emotional supports, classroom organization, and instructional support.

Emotional Supports

The importance of emotional supports is grounded in the theory that children are more likely to show

self-reliance and be willing to participate and take risks when they feel safe in their environment. Classroom environments are generally thought of as safe when several key features are apparent. First, there is a positive emotional climate, in which interactions between teachers and students are positive, caring, and supportive, as opposed to critical, demeaning, or persistently punitive. Second, in emotionally positive classrooms, teachers are sensitive and responsive to individual students' needs. This can include simply noticing when a child's attention is wandering, or when a child does not understand some aspect of a lesson, and quickly restating a question or reviewing a concept in a positive, rather than castigatory way. It also includes sensitivity to emotional states, such that teachers notice and are responsive to students who may be sad, angry, or disengaged. Responsiveness to emotional states can include simply engaging the student in a successful, positive interaction around some preferred curricular activity. But it is also important for teachers to acknowledge emotional states, and to encourage students to identify feelings and what may have caused them, including discussions about perspective taking. Finally, emotionally supportive classrooms are typified by teachers' demonstrating regard for students' perspectives. As described previously, this includes any effort teachers make to allow students' input, ideas, and choices to be heard and respected. In many typical classrooms, students are told where to sit, what to work on in what order, and indeed when they are allowed to speak and when they are not, virtually from the time they enter the classroom until they leave. Classrooms with more emotionally positive climates, in contrast, include at least some degree of student autonomy, ownership, or input into the decision-making processes around any number of classroom rules, routines, or procedures.

Classroom Organization

There is significant evidence that students are more likely to be engaged in positive, productive activity in classrooms that are organized and structured. Not that this suggests the need for rigidity or inflexibility, but merely that the *physical arrangement* of the classroom and materials, the *structure of the school day*, and the *way that instruction is delivered* together create predictable routines for students. Predictability is the key element in each of these areas, as students who know what to expect, know what is expected of them, and know how to successfully complete tasks or seek assistance are far more likely to engage positively than to create distractions or disruptions. The key underpinning element of predictability also applies to the actual process of managing behavior. This includes making behavioral

expectations clear, and then consistently monitoring behavior and intervening proactively and preventatively before problems occur or escalate. For example, effective teachers intervene at the first hint of trouble (e.g., when students' attention wanders, but before they become disruptive) with redirection, rather than waiting for behavior to escalate and then intervening with a punitive response. In addition, effective teachers rely heavily on positive responses, such as praise for positive behavior, and avoid as much as possible calling attention to inappropriate behavior.

An organized school day and classroom routine also contribute to students' sense of comfort and safety in their environment. This suggests that students know what to do upon entering the classroom; they know where belongings and assignments go, and they know where materials are stored. They also know routines, and are not surprised or caught off guard by unanticipated activities or unrealistic expectations for behavior or performance. A daily schedule that is consistent enhances this, but note that this should not imply sameness to the extent that students are bored by repetitive, meaningless activity. Consistency implies only that the *routine* is predictable (e.g., science lab is every Tuesday and Thursday; there is a 15-minute free write after lunch each day; vocabulary quizzes are given at the beginning of class every Friday).

A final element of organization or structure involves instruction itself. Again, this does not suggest rigidity or inflexibility, but only that the teacher has carefully planned instruction and made certain all materials needed are readily available. The goal is to avoid any downtime at all, so that students are engaged and active in lessons from start to finish, never sitting and waiting as the teacher searches for supplies or materials or organizes the next lesson or activity. More important than simply avoiding downtime (a necessary prerequisite), is the need to implement instruction that engages students in active interaction with peers, teachers, and the material itself. Though passive learning (reading, listening to lectures, watching videos) can have a place within well-designed instruction, it is becoming clear that active participation is a fundamental key to foster engagement, to enhance learning, and to reduce negative or off-task behaviors, all of which are undoubtedly interrelated.

Instructional Support

In addition to its focus on emotional support provided in a well-organized context, a relationship-based approach to classroom management implies equally that teachers' instructional support is consistent and positive as well. Moreover, instructional support is intended to nurture and develop students' thinking

skills in ways that enhance their engagement and ultimate learning outcomes. Among the key components of positive instructional support are *concept development*, *feedback*, and the *use of language*.

Support for concept development is based on the idea that higher order thinking skills are essential to students' deep understanding of the curriculum, and more importantly, to their ability to apply what they have learned to new contexts. This stands in contrast with instruction that focuses merely on learning and remembering facts; higher order skills include analyzing, evaluating, applying, and creating ideas. Effective teachers who are building positive classroom environments not only plan instruction that focuses on higher order thinking, they also use incidental teaching moments to expand students' thinking about the material they are learning (e.g., interjecting "Why do you think that one's better?"). Again, evidence suggests that not only does a focus on concept development enhance engagement, in that students and teachers interact more deeply around instruction, but also that students' learning is enhanced.

A second component of instructional support involves the nature of teachers' feedback, and in this regard there are similarities between relationship-based and behavioral approaches to management and instruction. Although the importance and value of praise is well established, it is also clear that the quality of such feedback may be as important as the mere quantity. For example, proponents of a relationship-based approach to management suggest that high-quality feedback provides information on the content or process of learning. That is, effective teachers might provide information to students not only about whether a response is correct, but also how they might learn more about this particular concept, or how they might connect or apply this to other concepts that have been learned. The similarity to a behavioral conception of feedback, commonly referred to as behavior-specific praise (BSP), is that both provide more than a mere communication about the correctness of a response; in BSP, the teacher explains to the student exactly what aspect of a response was correct (instead of saying "good job," or "well done!" a teacher might say, "Terrific! I see you reduced all the fractions to lowest terms before you solved the problem"). From a relationship-based approach, there is likely even more elaboration, including connections to other learning or applications to other contexts ("That's exactly right—now, how does this help us understand what we saw yesterday in our biology experiment?").

A final component of instructional support that is associated with better teacher–student relationships has to do with the language teachers use and the language they require or encourage from their students. One element of this involves the directionality or didactic

nature of language—classrooms are low on this element of instructional support when they are dominated by teacher talk, or when instruction involves little more than lower level questions requiring short, factual responses.

What is suggested instead is the use of richer discourse between teachers and students, in which teachers engage students with intentionality in deeper conversations about multiple aspects of the curricular content, analyses of multiple issues or perspectives around what is being learned, and applications of concepts to broader ideas. This includes teachers using richer language and content-specific vocabulary, and elaborating on concepts or ideas being taught with definitions and examples. It also means that teachers explicitly engage students' vocabulary and language by initiating and promoting conversational discourse around content and concepts. Particularly for younger students, both reading ability and vocabulary are enhanced when teachers model greater use of high-quality language.

Conclusion

The general ideas undergirding relationship-based approaches to classroom management are that (1) child–teacher relationships may be among the most important predictors of children's overall well-being in school, which is subsequently predictive of academic and social success; and (2) classrooms characterized by more positive relationships are well organized and show good evidence that teachers provide students with both emotional and instructional supports. A relationship-based approach does not differ as dramatically as some might suggest from more traditional approaches to classroom management in that aspects of many traditional classroom management principles are evident. These include providing students with structure and routine, making academic and behavioral expectations clear and consistent, and focusing as heavily as possible on positive acknowledgments of expected behavior rather than drawing inordinate attention to negative behavior.

Perhaps the key difference in a relationship-based approach lies in the fundamental focus on creating classrooms that are positive and emotionally safe and supportive, the foundation of which is predicated on positive teacher–student relationships. Effective teachers move in this direction when they provide emotional and instructional support to students, make explicit efforts to establish a positive interaction history with students, banking so-called relational capital, and by engaging with students in a respectful, supportive manner on matters both within and outside of the curriculum.

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See also Attachment to Teachers; Caring Approaches; Mindfulness Practices for Teachers; Praise and Encouragement; Self-Regulation and Sensory-Affective Co-Regulation; Teacher–Student Relationships and Behaviorally At-Risk Students; Warm Demanders

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RELIGIOUS DIVERSITY AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Despite increased attention given to culturally relevant teaching, in teacher preparation programs and in the literature on teaching, there is little attention given to religion—despite the central role that religion has played throughout history and despite the tremendous variation across and within religious groups. No doubt this absence of attention is due to a widespread belief or attitude that religion is something private, complex, subjective, and contentious, and therefore something that may wisely be avoided as a subject in schools. However, some critics contend that the subject of religion is too large and significant to avoid. They argue that avoiding teaching about religion and not accommodating to the religious needs of diverse groups of students does an injustice to students, their education, and to their socialization into a democratic society.

This entry discusses these issues and provides guidelines for creating good classroom learning environments for religiously diverse groups of students. Specifically, this entry explores issues around awareness about religion and religious diversity, guidelines for teaching about religion, free exercise and accommodations, teacher preparation, and resources and challenges for students and educators as related to religious experiences and affiliation.

Purpose and Challenge of Teaching About Religion

The religious liberty clauses of the First Amendment to the U.S. Constitution do not ban teaching about religion in U.S. schools. The First Amendment allows for including the study of religion in public school curricula—albeit using nondevotional approaches when teaching. Furthermore, given the ideal of an inclusive democratic society implied in the Constitution, some have argued that the study of religion becomes one essential component of an anti-bias and multicultural educational approach essential in a pluralistic, democratic society such as our own.

The U.S. Department of Education has taken this implied mandate perspective based on Supreme Court cases that address First Amendment issues (for the Free Exercise Clause, see *Cantwell v. Connecticut, 1940*; for the Establishment Clause, see *Everson v. Board of Education, 1947*) by requiring that schools educate students about religion and that the study of religion be embedded in the curriculum across Pre-K–12 grades and subjects. At the same time, the dual concern for teaching about religion while avoiding being biased toward one religion creates challenges for educators to find nondevotional ways to treat religion in public schools.

Nondevotional Ways of Teaching

To help with this task of teaching about religions in nondevotional ways, the American Academy of Religion, an association of academics who research or teach topics related to religion, has developed guidelines for teaching about religion in public schools. The Academy's work is motivated, in part, by the belief that illiteracy about religion is widespread in U.S. society and that this illiteracy fuels prejudice and antagonism, hence the need to teach religion in nondevotional ways. Nondevotional ways encourage students to study religion in order to develop a working understanding of world religions. A nondevotional, academic approach draws from sociohistorical, literary, and traditions-based methods and does not seek either to promote or to denigrate religious belief or practice.

There are three common ways that religion may be introduced within classrooms: by having the curriculum cover historical origins of religious traditions, events, or communities defined by religious beliefs and practice; by having the curriculum cover current events, novels, and art having explicit religious themes and references to religion; and by allowing for students to raise questions based on their own religious experiences and knowledge.

Anti-Bias Curricula

In a democracy founded in part on the value of religious liberty, some have argued that the study of religious diversity is an integral aspect of civil society, duly carried out by public schools. On a broad level, the argument has been that such study promotes cross-cultural understanding essential to maintaining a civil society while being a citizen of the world. However, the way teachers address religion can vary widely and may relate to teachers' own understanding of religion as well as to the enormous challenge of providing an accurate depiction of religious traditions. Teachers' treatment of religion also varies according to the sensitivity each teacher shows when leading discussions about religious expressions that have within them issues about race, minority status, and gender.

On a school and classroom level, addressing religious diversity is an important aspect of broad cultural variations that should be integral to any anti-bias curricular approach. Educational approaches that include critical multicultural scholarship make active attempts to reflect diversity within the classroom curriculum, such as by having picture books and other learning resources that portray religious diversity. Beyond reflecting religious diversity, multicultural scholarship lends a critical lens to analyze how learning resources (including textbooks and media portrayals) depict religion, religious groups, and their adherents.

Free Exercise and Religious Accommodations

Public schools have the responsibility to accommodate the free exercise and religious freedom of their students and staff, particularly as it relates to religious dress, diet, and practice that overlap or become relevant within school hours. For example, regarding certain types of student prayer, Section 9524 of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1955, as amended by the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, requires that each state education agency certifies in writing that it has no policy that prevents or otherwise denies participation in constitutionally protected prayer in school.

At a high level, school districts should adopt guidelines and policies grounded in an active commitment and respect for individual religious beliefs and practices expressed within the constitutional guarantee of religious liberty (i.e., neither promoting nor inhibiting religious belief or nonbelief). Individual teachers should consult with administrators and other teachers who seek to provide an inclusive learning environment for religiously diverse groups of students and teachers.

Most accommodations address issues related to scheduling, diet, dress, and particular religious practices or beliefs. Accommodations of religious diversity include recognition of religious holidays in the classroom and school/district calendar, but not a public celebration of them (i.e., educators may wish to reconsider the merit of holiday programs or bulletin board displays with nonacademic religious references, particularly if families seek to have their child exempted from participation).

Scheduling of classroom, school, and district events should avoid conflicts with religious observances across traditions; if there is an absence, it should be excused without penalty, and students should be given the opportunity to make up assignments. In terms of diet, school accommodations may include becoming knowledgeable about dietary restrictions and practices for particular religious groups. For example, fasting may take many forms across religious traditions. Whether individuals seek to complete a fast for religious reasons or pray during school hours, educators should allow students to complete religious practices or obligations (e.g., building accommodations into a student's schedule or alternatively excusing from class and allowing work to be completed, arranging for alternate private space for a student's prayer). Educators should also strive to establish communication routines with families that allow educators to better understand family concerns in order to address them in educationally, developmentally, and legally sound ways.

While legal guidelines may govern how religion is accommodated in public schools, valuing and reflecting on the meaning of diversity, including religious diversity, is essential. This includes fostering positive home-school relations. Standards to promote positive home-school relations often explicitly discuss how to create classroom and school spaces that welcome the cultural and religious diversity of children and families. Teachers should endeavor to create a relationship based on respect for parents and deep caring for the learning and development of the student, which hopefully translates into mutual respect. This positive relationship between home and school is important to help the teacher navigate potentially sensitive situations related to religion about which the teacher may have limited personal or professional knowledge.

While religious accommodations may apply to a broad range of individuals, they disproportionately relate to religious minorities and to others with beliefs or practices considered particularly distinct, and to individuals and families who may be considered extreme in their level of practicing. Educators should consider how other social factors and personal factors may relate to the characteristics of individuals and groups who may experience pronounced challenges or opportunities related to their religious affiliation and practices.

As for teacher preparation and teaching about religion, the high-stakes, test-driven atmosphere surrounding public education and teacher preparation leaves inadequate time and resources to address many of the soft skills related to enhancing how we attend to diversity. Teacher preparation programs rarely provide explicit theoretical or practical training about how teachers may develop strong collaborative relationships with parents, rendering essential conversations such as parent-teacher conferences often as polarizing, highly emotive negotiations.

Religious Diversity of Students and Educators

Religious diversity creates an important dynamic in classrooms precisely because religion is salient and prominent in both public and private life. Students and teachers share challenges and opportunities related to issues of religion and religious diversity. Both students and teachers observe different references to religion in the public sphere—the Madonna in the yard across from the school, changing holiday displays in stores, news headlines depicting religion and religious followers in ways that are emotionally charged. Students and teachers themselves may have particular religious beliefs that they must reconcile as they enter the largely secular, diverse context of public schools. In interacting with religiously diverse classrooms, teachers and students are encouraged to examine assumptions they may have about religion generally, and about religious traditions, beliefs, or followers in particular. To varying degrees of responsibility, both students and educators are charged with creating classroom values and practices where the study of religion and of religious diversity is promoted, and where sensitive reflection and questions are encouraged.

Students

Students may deal with issues of religion in a variety of ways related to their own social position, to their peers, and to the degree to which there is a fit between

their religious beliefs and their context. Depending on the context and the student, religious minority students may feel invisible or singled out in both positive and negative ways. Some students may be the victims of or perpetrators of religiously based teasing or bullying. Others may deal with conflicting pressures between religious expectations from their parents and faith community, perceived social norms and pressures at school, and their own values and actions (e.g., dating, language use, drinking).

In terms of religious content and school subjects, some students may experience an alignment between their religiousness and particular school content, which may promote academic achievement. Others may experience the opposite: a disconnection between their religious beliefs and what is presented at school (e.g., most commonly as related to history and the sciences). Religious factors may influence a student's negotiations of personal beliefs, social relations at school and at home, and engagement at school generally or in relation to particular content.

Conclusion

Educators have the responsibility to create safe and engaging learning contexts for all students. Accordingly, educators must strive to balance their own culturally relevant and sensitive educational approaches within the context of school and district. Although asking students to present particular aspects of their social identity may be empowering for some students, it is widely advised not to put students in a position of representing their social group, including their religious group. Educators need to fulfill the multiple demands of integrating content about religion in a balanced, scholarly manner that is both intellectually stimulating and reflects the various religious traditions fairly. Educators may seek resources and develop approaches that help make discussions of religion an anticipated and robust dimension of classroom life, as one would expect any other kind of diversity.

Mona Abo-Zena

See also *Culturally Pluralistic Classrooms; Muslim Students and Classroom Management*

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REMINDERS

The term *reminder* is common in conversation and everyday use. People regularly utilize reminders via their own memories or externally in the form of sticky notes and, more recently, applications on cellular devices. In these examples of everyday reminders, we understand reminders as supports to help us act in ways we want to or need to act. They differ, then, from someone making demands on us and forcing us to act in a certain way.

Reminders in the context of classroom management can have a similar function, as they help students act in ways they want to or need to act without making demands, threats, or offering bribes. Put another way, they are prompts for students to think about what is expected of them in a given situation, and to help students make good decisions and exercise what we now call self-regulation and executive functioning. This discussion explores the various roles, types, domains, and challenges of reminders, particularly in the ways reminders help with managing classrooms.

Why Are Reminders Important?

Reminders can be an essential tool for all educators. While they differ in frequency, type, and purpose, they are integral in developing and maintaining a classroom with structure, support, and a plethora of opportunities for student achievement. When children's behavior deviates from what is expected of them, it is often viewed as a loss of control. Reminders in the classroom, when used appropriately, support children and help them self-regulate and reorient by regaining control of their

actions and subsequent consequences. This support is especially helpful for those children who have trouble controlling their behavior and remaining on task.

Jacob Kounin, in his pioneering work on classroom management, provided empirical support for the idea that when teachers reprimand students or give desists (e.g., "Stop talking") for unwanted behavior, the vector of the classroom can be interrupted. Reminders offer an alternative to reprimanding and giving desists, by helping students stay engaged without disrupting the flow of the lesson or group activity. For example, in certain situations, a reminder may be used to silently signal to an individual student without distracting his or her peers. This use of such reminders helps to foster a balance between the entire classroom's functioning and an individual student's success.

Types of Reminders

There are many distinctions between types of reminders—including distinctions between frequently versus rarely used, positive versus negative, and anticipatory versus responsive. One important distinction has to do with the *channel* through which reminders are communicated. In particular, reminders may be communicated through verbal as well as nonverbal channels (visual notes, facial expression, tone of voice, etc.).

Visual reminders include a teacher's pointing at a blackboard to remind a student to follow along with the lesson, or holding up a stop sign in front of a student whose behavior is escalating and therefore needs a visual reminder to regroup. Visual reminders are often less disruptive to the flow of a classroom, since they allow a teacher to offer a reminder to one child while continuing the lesson for the rest of the class.

Verbal reminders can be more straightforward and heard by all, and subsequently, verbal reminders risk more disruption of the classroom. Consider, for example, if a teacher were to say in a nonthreatening voice, "Eric, please turn around and focus on your assignment." While this reminder is polite, direct, and simple, the teacher would have needed to pause the lesson and redirect everyone's focus and attention onto one particular student, which is likely to be counterproductive for other students.

One can use both visual and verbal reminders simultaneously. In one fourth grade classroom, a teacher notices Liza, a student who is becoming increasingly emotional and uncooperative. In order to best reach Liza, her teacher points to her ear while stating out loud, "remember to listen." This use of both visual and verbal reminders offers multiple channels through which to reach Liza, as they work in conjunction with greater effect.

This point about using multiple channels is at the heart of what is referred to as supporting students' self-regulation through sensory-affective co-regulation. The idea behind co-regulating is that a teacher can help a student regain or maintain self-control by the emotions expressed in a teacher's tone of voice, facial expression, and body posture. Rather than expressing anger, disdain, or some other negative expression that can get in the way of a student's showing self-control, a teacher's non-verbal ways of reminding can express being concerned, having confidence in, showing empathy, and other expressions that support a student's self-regulating.

Types of Reminders

Reminders can be thought of in terms of types. For example, some types prevent unwanted behavior or encourage future positive behavior, such as preemptive reminders to remain quiet during upcoming transitions. Other types respond to and manage unwanted or positive behavior, such as reminders to remain quiet during a lesson in response to classroom chatter. The following are additional types of reminders:

Moral Reminders

Moral reminders assist children to orient themselves as social beings. Within the classroom context, they help children maintain caring, quality relationships with peers and the entire classroom community. Moral reminders in the classroom have been present throughout history. A well-known example of an educational approach relying heavily on moral reminders is the example of Quaker schools, where testimonies such as simplicity, peace, and equality are written on the walls of the school and in classrooms to remind students of a Quaker way of creating a good classroom and school community.

Moral reminders are indispensable in the classroom, as they help children not only to be successful students but also to become ethical individuals, individuals working not just for themselves but also for others and for the good of the community. For example, in one elementary school classroom, each child is asked to state a positive expectation before getting up to wash hands before lunch—as a ritual to remind. On one such occasion, a fourth grader, Jason, said, “Treat others the way you want to be treated,” while his classmate, Alison, offered, “Be respectful.” Through such rituals, students are consistently reminding themselves and others of the values they should and want to live by.

Reminders of Transitions

A reminder before a transition in the classroom helps children to organize themselves within time:

present and future. Helping to organize for transitions is, then, an example of a reminder serving to support executive functioning. During a transition, students must reorient themselves both physically and mentally. Simple reminders can support this reorientation and movement; by providing context and support (e.g., “five minutes until math is over”) to wind up the goal-directed activity one is currently engaged in and begin another goal-directed activity involving a transition process having its own rules and procedures.

Reminders of Consequences

Reminders, both positive and negative, can be used to maintain awareness of previous consequences resulting from the way a student is behaving in the present. With phrases such as “Remember the last time this happened . . .,” teachers may incentivize students to repeat behavior that brings positive outcomes (“Remember when you started early on your homework, and that left time to finish up and watch your favorite TV show?”) or disincentivize behavior that brings the opposite (“Remember when you waited until the last minute to start on your homework, and then found you didn't leave yourself enough time?”). These reminders of consequences may be particularly relevant in the context of a behaviorist framework, since they are, essentially, reminders of reinforcements and negative consequences.

Reminders to Remain On-Task

When reminders are used to help students remain on task, they serve to aid executive functioning by offering support for students' organizing themselves as workers rather than as players. One example of such a reminder is a green, yellow, and red light system. When a teacher sees a student who is off task, she may make eye contact and point to the green light to signal to the student that the student is off task. Then, if the off-task behavior continues, the teacher may subsequently use the yellow and red lights to remind the student to resume his work and do what is expected of him. This type of reminder is necessary in all classrooms, but it is particularly necessary for children who have difficulty with self-regulation.

Conclusions: Challenges

There are challenges to consider when implementing reminders in the classroom. For one, reminders may not work in every instance. When reminders do not work, other methods will need to be employed. However, just because reminders do not work in a given instance does not mean they should be abandoned. On the contrary,

over time, using reminders along with other good management strategies should increase the likelihood that reminders will become effective ways of supporting students regulating themselves.

A second main challenge is figuring out the right kind of reminder for any given child. What is a reminder for one child may not be a reminder for another. We see this especially in examples of a reminder being appropriate for an older or more mature child who can anticipate the future (“Remember you have a test coming up next week”) but not appropriate for a young, less mature child who lives only in the moment.

A third challenge is developing skill for communicating reminders with just the right affect and wording and whatever it takes to keep reminders as reminders rather than turning them into bribes or threats. In other words, being good at reminding is a skill, not something one can implement right off and without practice.

Despite the challenges, reminders can be both worthwhile and essential for creating good classroom learning environments. Reminders offer positive supports. They address the need to foster self-regulation and better executive functioning. Reminders give respect to students by giving students control over their decisions. And finally, reminders communicate what we want from students and ourselves, namely, to stay on task, attune to others, and do what will ultimately help us live and work together so as to thrive.

Jordan Thaler

See also Milieu Management for Students With Emotional and Behavioral Special Needs; Mindfulness Practices for Teachers; Quaker Education and Classroom Management; Redl, Fritz; Self-Regulated Learning; Self-Regulation and Sensory-Affective Co-Regulation

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REPRIMANDS

This entry defines, describes, gives examples of, and briefly notes issues in using *reprimands* as a classroom behavior management technique. Reprimands can be

quite diverse in their form, their application, and their effects on student behavior. Reprimands may be

- verbal directions (“Tom, stop talking”), vocalizations (“uh-uh”), eye contact or facial expression (frowning, disapproving looks), gestural (a raised palm; finger pointing), or brief physical contact (placing a hand on a student’s shoulder);
- very specific, stating the person and behavior to be terminated (“Alyssa, stop poking Janelle”) or more general/vague (“No!”);
- given in a soft voice or more private conditions (whispering to a student to stop talking) or loud voice (“Stop that right now!”);
- delivered to an individual student (“Francis, put that magazine away”) or a group of students (“You boys stop climbing on that fence”);
- delivered immediately following inappropriate behavior or over some short to moderate delay; or
- combined with other behavior management procedures, either proactive/positive procedures (differential reinforcement, behavior contracts, precorrections) or other behavior decreasing procedures (removing free time or other privileges contingent on misbehavior).

The apparent purpose of reprimands is to have the student stop some form of inappropriate behavior. As such, reprimands represent a *potential* positive punishment intervention; that is, a stimulus is applied after a behavior that *may* decrease that behavior. Whether reprimands actually serve this function is another matter. Unfortunately, research suggests that reprimands are often misused or overused and either have no consistent effect or may actually worsen student behavior problems, especially for students at risk for, or who have, emotional behavioral disorders.

Relevance of Reprimands to Classroom Management

Reprimands are among the most frequently used interventions for misbehavior in preschools and schools as well as community programs and homes. Child misbehavior seems to naturally elicit reprimands as a consequence. This is particularly troublesome because reprimands often have an effect opposite to their purpose; that is, they exacerbate behavior problems, especially with those children for whom behavior problems are more severe. Second, adults’ use of reprimands can and does interfere or compete with the use of more positive, effective behavior intervention procedures and tactics such as differential reinforcement of appropriate behavior (catch the kid being good), precorrection, and other preventive positive behavior supports.

Since the mid-1970s, studies have shown an increasing imbalance of praise versus reprimands across grade levels. Praise and other positive contacts by teachers toward students decline rapidly after the second grade, while reprimands and other negative interactions increase. It is not that reprimands cannot have reductive effects on misbehavior: rather, reprimands are often overused to the exclusion of other, more effective preventive or positive techniques.

Overview of Reprimands

Reprimands are not like behavioral interventions such as systematic desensitization and flooding (classical conditioning), differential reinforcement, behavior contracts, self-management programs (operant learning), and peer or self-modeling (social learning). These interventions are derived from learning principles and validated as effective when applied in specific ways under specific conditions.

Reprimands may function as punishers, decreasing problem behaviors to which they are applied, or even as positive reinforcers, increasing the behaviors to which they are applied (think of the kid in the class that loves to yank the teacher's chain). The specific function of reprimands depends on various factors such as the student's learning history with other teachers and parents, whether he or she has the necessary attention, academic, or social skills to successfully participate in the classroom, and the physical arrangement of the classroom or other areas of the school.

For example, consider the case of a young third-grade boy whose reading skills were at a prereader level and who was given the same increasingly reading-based assignments that were given his peers. His general education teacher continued in this vein and frequently used reprimands in attempt to stop his challenging behaviors (talking to others, playing with nontask materials, getting out of his seat and wandering around the classroom), yet the behaviors continued. The teacher expressed her frustration to the consultant, suggested the boy probably had Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder, and thought he should be removed from her class. This was made more perplexing because his third-grade general education teacher had been his special education teacher in the previous 2 years.

There are at least three truisms about reprimands. First, the more they are used, the less likely they will be effective. Those who find themselves using reprimands a lot in general, or frequently with a particular student, should stop and find another way. Second, and related to the first, a student should be told not only what not to do but also what he or she should be doing. This follows the Fair Pair Rule: for every behavior you decrease,

increase some positive behavior in its place. Behaviors occur for a reason, and we need to identify that reason and teach students a better solution than the inappropriate behavior. Third, and related to the first two, is that in such situations, the teacher and other school personnel should strongly consider doing a functional behavior assessment, even if it is not legally required. Such an assessment will help identify if reprimands are indeed actually positively reinforcing inappropriate behavior, as well as suggesting how the school staff can use their attention in a more positive and effective way to decrease the challenging behaviors and increase more positive social and academic behaviors.

Cautions and Issues in Using Reprimands

Following are some cautions and suggestions for using reprimands in classrooms to manage behavior:

1. Soft reprimands (given in a soft voice or in close proximity to the student) typically have better effects than loud reprimands. Loud reprimands may be necessary where teacher and student are some distance apart, and the undesirable behavior is likely to result in physical harm.
2. Brief reprimands are more effective than long-drawn-out ones. Avoid situations where the teacher and assistant have an extended, audible conversation about a student's problem behavior.
3. When using reprimands, add a short but explicit statement about the expected appropriate behavior ("Dennis, don't hit your friends. If you want that toy, use your words; say 'Toy, please'").
4. Research and professional practice standards indicate that the ratio of positive versus negative contacts with a student should be weighted toward positives, at least a 3 to 1 or a 4 to 1 ratio. It helps to increase positive contacts in the initial stages of a behavior intervention so as to catch the student being good, reduce the aversive teacher-student interactions, and build a positive relationship.
5. Use other behavior interventions in addition to reprimands. Make sure that classroom rules/expectations are visible, clearly stated in positive terms, and number no more than five or six. Use precorrection and rehearsal strategies to remind the student of expected positive behavior before those activities or situations in which problem behaviors are likely. Identify peers who can assist a student by providing rehearsal strategies, reminders, modeling, or some other behavior support and reinforcement

for appropriate behaviors. Use behavior contracts, daily behavior report cards, reinforcer menus, and self-management techniques to focus the student on appropriate behaviors.

James J. Fox III

See also Applied Behavior Analysis; Desists; Disruptive Behaviors, Positive Approaches to; Functional Behavioral Assessment; Methods, Ineffective; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; Punishment; Research-Based Strategies; Schoolwide Positive Behavior Supports

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RESEARCH-BASED STRATEGIES

When deciding what are the most effective, efficient ways to teach a student how to read, learn long division, write an essay, interact well with others, complete work in a timely way, or achieve some other desired education-related goal, teachers traditionally have relied on personal experience, input from colleagues, and the wisdom of experts. However, doing so presents a number of limitations since poor and less-than-optimal strategies can be suggested and adopted for years despite their remaining scientifically untested. And while evidence suggests many typically achieving students will continue to learn despite the use of poor or weak strategies, this is not the case for students receiving special education services, who tend not to progress in the absence of the most effective strategies. Therefore, the incorporation of research-based strategies and practices is particularly important for this group.

Research-based strategies are those strategies and practices backed up with scientific evidence showing that if they are implemented as planned—that is, with treatment integrity—they will yield desired changes in student performance—academically, behaviorally, or socially. Examples of research-based strategies include a wide span of offerings ranging from instructional strategies—such as self-regulated strategy development for writing—to individualized behavioral supports—such as functional assessment-based interventions. Research-based strategies are one critical component of effective instruction, yet they cannot replace good teaching. Ideally, research-based strategies should be implemented within the context of good teaching.

The Importance of Research-Based Strategies

Teaching and learning are highly complicated tasks, and much is expected of teachers. Teachers are expected to have all students achieve academic excellence. Furthermore, general and special education teachers are expected to work collaboratively to provide successful inclusive experiences for all students, including those with special needs. Moreover, teachers are now expected to address behavioral and social performance in addition to academic performance. The challenge of meeting all these expectations makes it especially important for teachers to have the support of evidence-based strategies.

In the face of these complex challenges demanding effective and efficient strategies for achieving a variety of goals, many school systems have moved toward a systems-level approach for implementing strategies, in

order to provide clarity, focus, and organized practice. For example, many schools are implementing multi-tiered systems of support such as response to intervention, positive behavior intervention and support, and comprehensive, integrated, three-tiered models that provide graduated support according to students' needs. These evidence-based systems offer primary (tier 1) support for all learners, secondary (tier 2) supports for some students (e.g., small group instruction for students with common deficits or low-intensity behavior supports), and tertiary (tier 3) supports for a few students (e.g., 1:1 instruction or functional assessment-based interventions). Important to any multitiered system of support is the incorporation of research-based strategies at each level of prevention: primary, secondary, and tertiary.

Time is simply too important to invest in strategies and practices with insufficient evidence to suggest they will yield the desired outcomes for students. Therefore, teachers need to be selective in determining which strategies and practices to adopt.

Evaluating a Practice

While examining the effectiveness of different practices, there is the potential for mistakes. For example, there are instances in which an educator might conclude a practice is effective when in actuality it is not effective (false positive) and other instances in which one might conclude a practice is not effective when in actuality it is effective (false negative).

By relying on research rather than other approaches to selecting strategies and practices, the false positives and false negatives can be reduced. This is accomplished by conducting high-quality research, which involves using (1) reliable, valid measures of student performance, (2) representative samples of sufficient size, (3) research designs such as randomized control group designs or single-subject designs (e.g., ABAB withdrawal designs) that allow for accurate decisions to be made about intervention outcomes, and (4) participation in a review process that allows others to question the process by which studies are conducted, with a focus on replicating findings before declaring a practice to have sufficient evidence to suggest it will work.

There are different criteria and standards for examining educational practices, with an emphasis on identifying evidence-based practices in the field of special education. Proposed guidelines are used by reviewers to evaluate individual studies on the rigor of the research design, methodological quality, and magnitude of effect, as well as the quantity of research conducted on the specific practice. These guidelines are used to draw conclusions as to whether the use of a practice will likely improve student outcomes.

Core Quality Indicators

In response to the National Research Council's call for increased rigor in scientific research in education, Russell Gersten and Robert Horner led groups that proposed a set of core quality indicators to guide the field of special education in evaluating the merit of research. One intent was to use these core quality indicators to identify evidence-based practices for use in education. The indicators can be used differently depending on a study's design.

Studies conducted using group and quasi-experimental designs are evaluated in terms of information provided regarding participant description, intervention implementation and comparison conditions, outcome measures, data analysis, and intervention outcomes. Then, the collective body of evidence is evaluated against a standard to make a decision as to whether or not the practice or strategy could be considered evidence-based. For group design research, the quality indicators state a minimum of two high-quality or four acceptable-quality group experimental and quasi-experimental studies are warranted to consider a practice as evidence-based.

For single-subject research designs, quality indicators are used to evaluate the methodological quality of the description of participants and settings, dependent variables, independent variables, baseline, experimental control, and internal validity, external validity, and social validity for each study. In brief, results of single-subject research design must document a functional relation between the introduction of the independent variable (e.g., the practice) and changes in socially important dependent variables (e.g., academic and behavior performance). In evaluating the collective set of studies, Rob Horner and colleagues have concluded that a minimum of five studies (conducted by at least three different researchers and across three different locales) involving at least 20 participants are needed to consider a practice as evidence-based.

Application of Core Quality Indicators

Core quality indicators are used to examine the evidence available for a particular practice. For example, using a systematic model developed by John Umbreit and colleagues, the core quality indicators for single-subject research were applied in a review of the research evidence for functional-based assessments and interventions. The term *functional-based interventions* refers to interventions based on the causes or reasons why problem behaviors occur. Nine studies were identified and evaluated in this systematic review, with results indicating that functional-based assessments and interventions constituted a promising practice but not yet an evidence-based practice for school-age students with, or at risk

for, high-incidence disabilities. Using the core quality indicators is just one approach for examining practices.

What Works Clearinghouse

Clearly, teachers do not have the time to conduct research, or to scrutinize existing research studies to (1) evaluate the quality of individual studies and (2) examine the overall body of evidence-based practice. In 2008, What Works Clearinghouse (WWC) presented criteria to guide the identification of evidence-based practices. WWC utilizes a gating procedure in which studies with procedural limitations are eliminated from further review. Initially, only group design studies such as randomized control trials and quasi-experimental studies were included in their reviews of the evidence of practices. The methodological quality of a study is evaluated by examining the attrition rate, quality of intervention and potential confounds, outcome measures, and data analysis procedures. For a practice to be evidence-based using WWC standards, it must have two or more group design studies, at least one of which must be a randomized control trial, to support the practice as having positive effects.

Recently, WWC proposed changes to broaden the criteria to include single-subject research in an effort to expand the pool of scientific evidence available for review. WWC standards include criteria for evaluating designs as well as evaluating evidence of a relation between an independent and a dependent variable. These standards are currently being piloted. To meet the design standards, the study must demonstrate experimental control by documenting three demonstrations of experimental effect at three different points in time with a single subject or across different cases. The proposed criteria to assess study quality include interobserver agreement quality, the presence of a sufficient number of within-study replications, and the reporting of a sufficient number of data points per phase. Studies meeting design criteria are further assessed to evaluate whether treatment effects were present with replication of rigor and effects across studies. Level, trend, variability, overlap, immediacy of the effect, and consistency of data patterns are evaluated through visual analysis of presented graphs.

Application of the WWC Criteria

Reviews have been conducted using the WWC standards to evaluate practices in special education. For example, Daniel Maggin and colleagues used WWC strategies to examine group contingency interventions. A group contingency intervention is a management system in which the delivery of a predetermined preferred item or activity is provided contingent on the behavior

of the students in a group. Through an application of the WWC procedures for evaluating single-subject research, a review of 95 published research studies indicated that group contingency can be considered an evidence-based practice for students demonstrating disruptive behavior in classroom settings. Specifically, there were a sufficient number of rigorously conducted studies with demonstrated treatment effects to recommend this intervention as evidence-based for both individual behavior and group behavior.

Conclusion

The many challenges facing teachers and the many expectations placed on teachers today to teach diverse groups of children make it imperative that teachers have the support of the research community. That support has come in the form of the research community providing ways for teachers to access and use strategies that are evidenced-based and therefore can be trusted to perform needed functions and achieve desired goals when teaching.

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See also Assessing and Promoting Treatment Integrity; Functional Behavioral Assessment; Methods, Ineffective

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RESILIENCE

Resilience is the process of, capacity for, or outcome of succeeding despite the presence of risk factors. *Risk factors* are characteristics or conditions associated with an increase in the probability of a specific or broad spectrum of *negative* outcomes. For example, mental health problems are associated with various negative outcomes such as low educational achievement, substance use, and aggression-related behaviors; thus, poor mental health is considered a risk factor for these negative outcomes. Conversely, *protective factors* are characteristics that buffer against or moderate the negative effects of risk. While it may seem logical to consider protective factors to be the opposite of risk factors (e.g., more education is a protective factor; little or no education is a risk factor), risk and protective factors are not merely opposites on a spectrum of good or bad. Protective factors refer only to factors that mitigate the effects of risk factors. Researchers often disagree on whether the absence of a risk factor automatically indicates a protective factor (e.g., *not* having substance-using peers). Resilience can, therefore, be conceptualized as not merely a balance of positive and negative predictors, nor as a special talent that occurs in only some individuals, but as a complex bio-social-ecological interaction of risk and protective factors that results in an individual's positive adaptation to trying circumstances.

Although many people do succeed in the face of adversity, some circumstances are so traumatizing or devastating that resilience does not occur for some individuals. Instead of placing the burden of bouncing back on the at-risk individual, school professionals can work to promote resilience in students. Building upon and reinforcing students' strengths has proven to be beneficial in preventing negative outcomes and thus promoting resilience.

Promoting Resilience in Students

Many students experience risk in various facets of their life, beyond school, and much of this is outside teachers' control. However, research has found that second only to family, school is the most important stabilizing force in young peoples' lives. For those students without strong protective factors in home, school may be their only reliable source of social and emotional support. Thus, fostering the protective factor *school connectedness*, the belief by students that the adults in school care about their welfare and learning, may be the most beneficial method to promote resilience in students. Research shows that when students feel they belong at school, they demonstrate resilience by exhibiting fewer

problem behaviors (e.g., absenteeism, bullying, and vandalism) and more positive outcomes (e.g., higher attendance, educational motivation, classroom engagement, school achievement, and graduation rates), even in the presence of risk factors.

Schools can increase students' school connectedness and thus promote resilience by implementing high academic and behavior standards and expectations, consistently enforcing fair schoolwide discipline policies and reaching out to parents and families to encourage high academic expectations at home. Within their own classrooms, teachers can foster a safe, positive learning environment by creating fairly implemented classroom norms, using proactive management strategies, enacting lesson plans that encourage student-student interaction time, and establishing clearly defined classroom jobs and routines for students. By using these various strategies to build positive relationships and foster school connectedness in students, teachers and schools promote resilience in at-risk students who may not otherwise possess many protective factors to buffer against their challenging environment.

Resilience in Teachers

Students are not the only ones facing risk in the school environment—teachers, especially those working in high-needs, low-resource school districts, must overcome the challenges in fulfilling their demanding roles or face burnout. Both new and experienced teachers are increasingly leaving the profession, and many have reported feeling their workload and pay were unreasonable and their efforts futile given the school's resources. Unfortunately, these are external risk factors that are not easily remedied by the teachers themselves. However, like some students, some teachers exhibit resilience and choose to remain despite the continuation of these stressors.

While some of the characteristics identified in resilient teachers seem to be protective traits specific to the individual, such as high self-efficacy, persistence, and altruistic motives, these characteristics can be built upon. Research calls for maintaining a strong social support network outside of the school (i.e., family, friends) as well as fostering opportunities for social support within the school context through the establishment of teacher peer groups, mentorships, and advocacy for regular staff meetings. These supports act as protective factors by providing opportunities for teachers to reflect on their successes, thereby strengthening self-efficacy, as well as seeking support for difficult challenges.

Teachers, students, and all individuals within and beyond the school context are likely to experience risk in some form or another. By focusing on bolstering

protective factors such as school connectedness in students and self-efficacy in teachers, school professionals can work effectively to promote resilience in school environments that suffer from limited resources and high needs.

Conclusion

Many students who live with risk factors such as poverty, racism, and mental illness in the family nevertheless go on to lead productive lives as adults. These resilient students have likely benefited from having protective factors, including the protective factors of caring teachers and good schooling. One researcher on resilience has described these protective factors as ordinary magic, meaning they are supports that one can find in everyday life and ordinary situations and settings—such as in regular classrooms and schools. The goal here, then, is to ensure that every classroom provides that ordinary magic for those students who need it.

Teachers, too, live with occupational risk factors, and some prove resilient. They are likely to have experienced school-related supports that serve as protection against burnout and leaving the teaching profession.

Resilience, then, heightens our awareness of those factors that put us at risk and those that protect us from risk. Such awareness allows educators to surround themselves and their students with the protective factors that help to support resilience.

Stephanie Adams and Erin Dowdy

See also Caring Approaches; Conditions for Learning; Positive Youth Development and Schooling; Promoting Purpose and Learning Environments; Warm Demanders

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RESPECT

Respect serves as a foundation to promote positive student–teacher and student–student relationships, which in turn are necessary for students to feel connected to school and for their being ready and able to learn. By serving as a foundation for relationships at school, respect can serve to promote positive relationships with adults and peers in general—relationships that can work as protective factors that strengthen resilience and lead, ultimately, to students succeeding not just in school but also in life.

However, the issue of respect within a classroom management plan presents perhaps the most challenging set of dilemmas for a teacher. Individual perceptions regarding the defining features of what is and what is not respectful behavior can vary widely given the interplay among variables brought by each person, variables that include culture, personal history, expectations, and current context. This entry reviews the historical context for definitions of respect, including connections to the relevance of fostering respect to classroom management.

Defining Respect and Its Relevance to Classroom Success

Historically, the definition of respect centered on compliance, so that respect in classrooms had to do with students complying with teachers' directives. Today, however, the burgeoning interest in and mandate for positive behavior supports has brought with it a shift in classroom management away from the goal of promoting mere compliance. For example, contemporary uses of the term *respect* include compliance but in a polite, respectful manner. Respect, then, has come to refer to a positive way of interacting that goes beyond mere compliance and that has to do with the quality relationships—peer relationships as well as relationships between students and teachers. Examples of respectful behavior go beyond compliance and include engaging in prosocial interaction with peers and responding positively to a teacher's request.

An important supporting rationale for this shift in the meaning of respect has to do with the overall shift toward providing positive behavior supports in the classroom, supports that are needed to create classroom communities where students feel connected. This shift to positive supports, including supports to promote respect, underscores, then, the importance of school connectedness. It rests on the observation that students who feel connected to school are more likely to engage in healthy behavior and have academic success. In short, a positive approach to school discipline and classroom

management is an essential prerequisite to school connectedness, and a positive approach involves a range of adult supports (time, interest, attention, emotional support), stable peer connections, commitment to the importance of education by students and adults, and a positive physical and psychosocial environment.

The relevance of respect for building school connectedness and good learning environments can be seen in cases where there is no respect, where defiance leading to discipline referrals is common. Lack of respect as expressed in defiant behaviors has become one of the most common reasons for office discipline referrals—in both elementary and secondary schools. Furthermore, the lack of respect that students can show in being defiant contributes to teachers feeling overwhelmed, to interrupting learning, to threatening safety, and to undermining a student's chances for school success. Chronic (disrespectful) noncompliance or defiance toward adult requests is generally considered serious. Chronic non-compliance is, in fact, a criterion for diagnosing various child psychopathologies such as conduct disorder and oppositional defiant disorder. Thus, encouraging and promoting respectful behavior can be essential for the psychological health of students.

Promoting Respect in the Classroom

A positive approach to classroom management includes actively teaching, monitoring, and reinforcing respectful behavior toward adults and peers. Schools who adopt a schoolwide framework for positive behavior supports begin by identifying the important expectations in their school and then creating a behavior matrix with examples as to how each expectation is appropriately displayed across settings. Respect has often been included as an overarching expectation (e.g., be respectful, be responsible, be safe). Within the matrix, respect in the classroom might be defined as following teacher directions, talking nicely to teachers and peers, and being supportive of others, whereas respect in the hallway might be defined as walking quietly without disturbing other classes and keeping one's hands and feet within one's personal space. Class meetings to discuss and review issues and progress having to do with respect can further support the goal of promoting respect and school connectedness.

As discussed in the introduction to this encyclopedia, teachers are faced with a complex set of demands that form dilemmas to be managed. This can result in a classroom management framework that balances discipline with care. Respect plays a central role in the possible dilemmas given that definitions and associated tolerance levels can vary substantially from one person to the next. As one example, expectations can differ regarding how quickly students should initiate as well as

complete a requested activity such as “Put your red folders away, get out your math book, and turn to page 12.”

In addition, selecting the best approach to foster respect in the classroom may be difficult at times since the contextual features of an environment (teacher expectations, student characteristics, school and community features) may call for different responses. In the introduction to this encyclopedia, the discussion around the demands of instruction, organization, and culture in evaluating authoritative versus authoritarian teaching approaches is helpful in illustrating the complexities.

Regardless of the ultimate approach selected, the central starting point involves developing clear definitions and appropriate expectations that can lead to positive teaching, monitoring, and reinforcing of behavior with regard to those expectations. On a related note, expectations regarding displays of respectful behavior should be extended not only to students but also to the adults throughout the school as well.

Developmental Considerations

Building a classroom management framework that includes respect necessarily involves developmental considerations. Although behaviors indicative of defiance or lack of respect are often-cited reasons for office discipline referral, across elementary and secondary grade levels there appears to be a shift from peer-directed instances in elementary to student–adult interaction in secondary grades. In addition, the development of pro-social behavior accelerates around third grade, supporting the need to include developmental considerations in classroom management planning around respect. For example, direct instruction involving adult modeling and scaffolded assistance to increase displays of respectful behavior might be an expected piece of a behavior curriculum in preschool and elementary settings. Yet the same supports would not typically be expected within secondary settings, with perhaps the largest adult focus directed toward active monitoring and reinforcement of positive displays of respect toward adults and peers.

Conclusion

Historically, compliance toward adults has served to define expectations about respectful behavior in schools. Today, however, there is a shift in classroom practices away from heavy focus on managing problem behavior (defiance, noncompliance) and toward teaching and reinforcing positive behaviors, including the positive behaviors expressing respect for others. This shift that includes promoting respectful behavior has broadened the range of behaviors considered respectful and has underscored their importance by tying them to school

connectedness. In sum, the shift to positive discipline approaches and the focusing on promoting respect has been to change the meaning of classroom management so that classroom management is seen as having much to do with fostering connectedness and a sense of classrooms being communities for learning.

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See also Assessment of Teacher–Student Relationships; Disruptive Behaviors, Positive Approaches to; Expectations: Teachers’ Expectations of Students; Peers and Peer Relations; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; Schoolwide Discipline Policies; Teacher–Student Relationships

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RESPONSIVE CLASSROOM APPROACH

In 1981, a group of public school educators in Massachusetts founded the Northeast Foundation for Children and, in the process, defined the responsive classroom approach to educating elementary school children. The essence of this approach is bringing together social and academic learning throughout the school day. The approach thus emphasizes the interconnections between developing students’ social skills, sustaining positive relationships, providing a safe, warm, caring, and democratic classroom community, and, at the same time, helping children acquire academic skills and knowledge.

The responsive classroom approach is one of only 23 approaches included in the Collaborative for

Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning’s (CASAL) list of social and emotional learning (SEL) programs singled out for being well designed and evidence based. Its status as being evidence based derives from several comparative studies with positive findings related to student and teacher attitudes, student test scores for both math and reading, and social skills.

Responsive Classroom Basics

Much of what goes on in classrooms adopting the responsive classroom approach follows tried-and-true methods and guidelines for creating good learning environments—so there is nothing unique in any one method found in a responsive classroom. The identity of the approach is found, then, not in any single method or group of methods but in how methods fit together to create a special kind of learning environment, one in which social, emotional, and intellectual development go hand in hand. It is important to keep this in mind when considering the following responsive classroom basics—that they are ingredients demanding a chef-like skill that goes beyond merely measuring and pouring.

The basics mentioned below have to do with cultivating an overall positive classroom climate. They focus mainly on cultivating student attitudes and a sense that students belong to a democratic community, one that is safe and caring but also one that has expectations for how each individual will be civil, learn, and perform. There are, of course, other ingredients in the responsive classroom mix that help create an overall positive climate—such as having movement activities throughout the school day, activities that energize and help children refocus when attention has waned. But these other ingredients or methods are ancillary to what follows.

Establishing Routines and Behavioral Expectations

At the beginning of the school year, teacher control needs to be acknowledged and observed by students. Teachers focus their efforts on establishing order and ensuring safety. This is accomplished by instituting classroom routines and basic expectations for ways that students will behave. Additionally, students need to be explicitly taught how to carry out these routines and expectations. Teaching a classroom routine might mean teaching students to respond to a quieting signal or teaching how to walk in the classroom and hallways.

As for behavioral expectations, teachers are wise to discuss and set guidelines for how group meetings will function and for how whole-group conversations will transpire. These guidelines might consist of four or five written statements naming specific behavioral expectations, such as, “Raise your hand before speaking.”

Teachers can facilitate discussion of behavioral expectations so as to bring up and include expectations that may have been overlooked. In doing so, teachers begin to create a climate in which everyone's voice is important as well as a culture where participation in classroom discussions is expected. Once the guidelines have been decided upon, they can be posted on a wall as a reminder whenever discussions take place about the classroom community and foster student reflection on how well it is going.

Establishing Personal Goals for the School Year

Before students participate in establishing a set of classroom rules, students need to establish their personal goals or hopes and dreams for the school year. These goals should reflect what the student feels is important at school, what areas to improve in, and what should be cared about. For example, a student may wish to make new friends or become better at science or math, or simply be a better-behaved person. As part of this process, the teacher can also establish his or her own goals for the class. Once goals are written down, students can share them with the rest of the class, and they can be displayed in special place in the classroom for reference throughout the school year.

By establishing personal goals prior to their establishing classroom rules, students can find connections between how their goals, hopes, and dreams can become reality within the established framework of classroom rules. For instance, if a student's goal is to make a new friend, the teacher might ask the student what rule might help achieve this goal. Rules, then, become rational, desired extensions of students' and teachers' goals rather than directives handed down from an authority figure.

Generating Rules Together

Before generating rules, a teacher must articulate the need for rules and lead students through a series of reflective questions to aid in their own articulation of why rules are important. The discussions can then link the classroom to functioning within a democracy outside the classroom and to establishing rules that ensure fairness and safety. Put another way, students can be led, through discussion, to see the essentially moral nature not only of rules themselves but also of living in a democratic society.

Taking time to involve children in the creation of classroom rules and setting the expectation that students will practice living by agreed-upon rules will help accomplish a classroom's goal of becoming a caring, democratic community, one where everyone participates

in order to learn. If children participate in rule making, they gain a sense of ownership and are more likely to follow the classroom rules and be motivated to meet the classroom expectations.

In teacher-led classroom discussions, students are invited to propose rules. Generally, students propose rules in a negative form (e.g., "Don't run"). To better ensure their success and to maintain a positive classroom climate, these negative rules can be usefully changed into positive rules (e.g., "Walk when in the classroom") that establish what everyone should do, rather than what everyone should not do.

Once the list of classroom rules has been generated together, it is the teacher's responsibility to polish how the rules are to be written and to consolidate the list into a more manageable size. Although normally rules should remain global and broad ("Respect others' property"), the teacher may decide to make a rule more specific ("If missing or wanting something, ask to borrow another's property"). Typically, the final list of rules will fall into one of the following categories: rules for taking care of others and self, rules for taking care of the classroom and materials, and rules for working at one's personal best.

Once the final list of rules is completed, teachers can set aside a time to celebrate and share the final list of rules with students and their families. This can be done in a variety of ways, such as by sending a letter home or displaying a student-created exhibit.

Teaching Social Skills and Positive Behaviors

Conveying behavior expectations and constructing classroom rules is a good starting point for teaching children to make positive behavior choices. However, positive behaviors often require students to develop complex skills, skills they may not have at the beginning of the school year. For instance, they may not have the verbal skills to communicate emotions in productive, civil ways. The responsive classroom is a place where children can get help developing and practicing these skills.

In responsive classrooms, morning meetings are used to foster important social skills for participating effectively in the classroom. Morning meetings set a respectful tone for the learning environment as well as contribute to building trust among students. Morning meeting components include a greeting, a sharing time, a group activity, and a morning message from the teacher. Furthermore, at morning meetings, students are explicitly instructed in how to care for and use classroom materials, a process named *guided discovery* whereby the teacher introduces new classroom materials, allows students to explore the materials, and collaboratively establishes guidelines for appropriately caring for the materials.

Responding Positively to Misbehavior

As in any well-run classroom, and in responsive classrooms, teachers work to be firm when being firm is needed, consistent with respect to expectations, and proactive in order to prevent problem behavior. However, even with best practices and good teaching, there will be misbehavior to manage.

With regard to managing misbehavior, the responsive classroom approach offers no unique method or set of methods. Rather it offers a way to frame misbehavior as behavior needing to be managed *positively*. Through this perspective, harsh punishments and negative consequences with no guiding or restorative function are avoided. Positive management includes all those methods that work to stop misbehavior and preserve positive relationships, provide guidance for improvement, and, in general, transform moments of misbehavior into teachable moments where students can reflect, discuss, and find ways to make better choices. Some common positive methods for stopping student misbehavior are redirection, nonverbal communication (such as through making eye contact and giving a hand signal), teacher proximity, verbal reminders, I statements, reframing, and logical consequences. Whatever the method, the goal remains to both stop misbehavior and support students in making good choices and exerting self-control.

Conclusion

The responsive classroom approach recognizes the need for developing students' social skills and including them in creating a democratic classroom community as a way to help them with their academics. The aim is to educate the whole child through simultaneously supporting social, emotional, and intellectual development—by establishing a safe, orderly, and caring environment where both teacher and student have a voice. This holistic approach has been proven to be an effective approach to classroom management, and one that fits naturally within the overall mission for schools to develop children so they can eventually become responsible and useful citizens in a democratic society.

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See also Caring Approaches; Class Meetings; Climate: School and Classroom; Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning; Democratic Meetings; Just Community; Reframing; Routines; Rules and Expectations

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Websites

About Responsive Classroom: <https://www.responsiveclassroom.org/about-responsive-classroom>

RESTRAINT AND SECLUSION POLICY

Significant issues concerning abuse and student safety have prompted the federal government to require all states to update their regulations and policies related to the use of restraint and seclusion procedures in schools. This entry defines restraint and seclusion procedures, provides a summary of recent policy trends related to their use, and offers suggestions to help ensure their ethical use.

Definitions

Proposed federal legislation defines the following terms:

Physical restraint: Personal restriction that immobilizes or reduces the ability of an individual to move his or her arms, legs, body, or head freely. Here, the term *physical restraint* does not refer to a physical escort or to a mechanical or chemical restraint.

Seclusion: The isolation of a student in a room, enclosure, or space that is (1) locked or (2) unlocked, and the student is prevented from leaving.

Policy Trends

State and federal policies make clear that restraint and seclusion procedures should be used only as a last resort and only in true crisis situations. That is, restraint and seclusion procedures should only be used to maintain safety when proactive interventions have failed, when less intrusive crisis procedures such as verbal deescalation or evasion have failed, and when the problem behavior presents a clear danger to the student or others. Crisis procedures should not be considered therapeutic.

Positive Behavior Interventions and Support

At least 31 U.S. states now have policies that include a requirement or a recommendation that schools implement what is referred to as *positive behavior interventions and supports* (PBIS). PBIS is a tiered preventive framework that has been shown to reduce problem behaviors and the need for restraint and seclusion procedures. This trend also aligns with proposed federal guidelines and legislation, which provide support for expanding the implementation of PBIS. Staff training in preventive and deescalation strategies has been shown to reduce the number of restraint and seclusion procedures used.

Time Limits

Many states have attempted to define specific time limits on restraint and seclusion procedures; however, these limits vary significantly. The general consensus across state and federal policy is that these procedures should be terminated as soon as the student is able to be safe.

Prone Restraint Procedures

Some states have limited the use of specific restraint procedures such as prone restraints, owing to incidents in which children were injured as a result of these procedures. While experts disagree about whether these procedures should be completely banned or if there may be cases where they are needed, it is clear that there is an increased potential for injury for both the student and staff when these procedures are used. Whenever possible, these procedures should be avoided, and if they are used, staff, through face-to-face monitoring, should ensure that the student's health is not compromised.

Reporting Procedures

All incidents involving restraint and seclusion procedures should be reported to parents, school administrators, and district or state administrators according to district policy. Parents should be notified verbally by the end of the school day and in writing within 1–3 days. States are increasingly collecting and tracking incidents of restraint and seclusion in order to determine the extent to which these procedures are being used and to provide targeted assistance and professional development when needed.

Ethical Use

Even when proactive preventive strategies are in place, there are times when restraint and seclusion procedures are needed in order to maintain the safety of students or staff. Therefore, all staff should be aware of local, state, and federal policies, as well as their school's specific

definitions of crisis events and approved procedures. All staff should be trained in how to recognize and deescalate crisis events. To ensure safety and adequate monitoring, crisis procedures should only be carried out when sufficient staff members are available. All staff that may be required to respond to crisis situations should be trained in specific crisis response procedures. In addition, all parents should be informed of the school's crisis procedures and the steps the school might take to ensure student safety.

In the case of students who have a history of unsafe, crisis-level behavior, schools should designate a team to develop and have a crisis response plan in place for those students. The team should include a member with behavioral expertise (such as a school psychologist), the school nurse, teacher, administrator, and parent. The plan specifically describes student behaviors that might require a crisis response and that details district-approved responses as well as specific procedures that may not be used with that student.

The need for crisis procedures indicates a failed proactive plan; therefore, any time a crisis procedure is used, the student's team should revise or develop a specific positive behavior support plan based on a complete functional behavior analysis.

Conclusion

State and federal policy regulations and trends are clear. Restraint and seclusion procedures should be used only as a last resort and only to ensure the safety of the student or others. If these procedures are used, staff should follow all local, state, and federal guidelines as well as develop and implement a specific, function-based positive behavior support plan or a revised plan so as to prevent the repeated need for crisis procedures. PBIS and specific de-escalation training for staff have effectively reduced the need for these procedures. There have, then, been significant developments helping educators to prevent as well as respond to crises requiring restraint and seclusion procedures.

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See also Behavior Support Plans; Functional Behavioral Assessment; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports

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reinforcer. In behavioral terms, a reinforcer is a stimulus following a behavior that increases the future probability of that behavior, whereas a reward is something received for doing something. For some students, rewards can also function as reinforcers; however, if the reward does not increase desired behaviors as a result of its presentation, it cannot be considered as such. Consider a plaque given in recognition of one's retirement. While the plaque is a reward for the years of service, it is not a reinforcer, because it will not increase the behavior of working in the future.

Most people have an emotional response when hearing the colloquial form of the word punishment. Punishment in this form implies there is a crime for which the offender must pay (e.g., fines or being sent to prison). On the other hand, according to B. F. Skinner (1905–1990), the psychologist whose work on operant conditioning (reinforcement and punishment to change behavior) is often cited, punishment decreases the likelihood of the behavior occurring in the future. For example, a student misspells a word on a spelling test, and the teacher punishes by calmly telling the student to rewrite the missed word five times, which leads to the misspelling decreasing in the future. In this example, punishment does not involve the same emotionally charged components of justice and vengeance as the colloquial use of the term implies.

REWARDS AND PUNISHMENTS

Although beneficial for students and teachers if used correctly, the use of rewards and punishments in classrooms remains controversial. Beginning with colloquial definitions of rewards and punishments and alternative behavioral definitions of these and associated terms, this entry provides both critical and supportive perspectives on the use of rewards and punishments in the classroom.

Colloquial Definitions

The term *reward* is commonly associated with a tangible object (e.g., gifts, prizes, and awards) as recognition of good behavior in the classroom. *Punishment*, when used colloquially, is also considered *something* imposed on people (e.g., spanking). When students are behaving inappropriately, time-outs, restitution activities, removal from the classroom, suspension, and expulsion might be used as punishments.

Problems With Colloquial Definitions

One problem with the use of the word *reward* is that teachers often assume that it is synonymous with

Universal Approaches Using Rewards and Punishments

This section describes some traditional, universal approaches to the use of rewards and punishments for all students in the classroom. For each approach, an overall description of how the system is implemented in schools, considerations for improvement, and possible alternatives is provided.

Universal Reward Systems

Treasure Box System. Students who have displayed a predetermined level of desired behavior (e.g., five smiley faces for the 5 days of the week) are able to select from a variety of small tangible objects (e.g., candies, toys) in the treasure box at the end of the week. Since this system is typically implemented at the end of the week, it may not provide immediate enough reinforcement for some students. Items in the treasure box may not be reinforcing for some students, or may become boring over time. Consider the following alternatives: (1) implementing a token economy system so that students can get a token immediately after the desired behavior and save up tokens to cash in for items at the end of the week, (2) asking students

what their preferences are before selecting items for the treasure box, (3) including tickets for activities in the treasure box (e.g., extra computer time), and (4) varying the objects and activities over time.

Fun Friday. Fun Friday usually involves students engaging in a fun activity (e.g., movie, popcorn, extra recess) at the end of the week based on good behavior. Teachers have the option of deciding to use an individual contingency, in which some students will be able to participate in Fun Friday and some will not, or a group contingency, in which all students in the classroom will obtain Fun Friday, depending on the group's performance. As with the treasure box, Fun Friday is also implemented at the end of the week and may not be immediate enough for some students. Since Fun Fridays usually include one group activity, such as a movie, the activity itself may not be reinforcing for some students. Consider the following alternatives: (1) implementing a token economy system (described above), (2) involving students in deciding which activity they would like to participate in, and (3) providing students with a choice of activities.

Good Behavior Game. In the Good Behavior Game, students are grouped into teams and tokens (e.g., stickers, tickets, checkmarks) are given when student teams are displaying desired behaviors. Winning teams receive a prize or activity based on the highest rates of desired behaviors. Because it is a group contingency, peer pressure can be advantageous when peers encourage one another to engage in appropriate behaviors, but teachers need to take steps to ensure bullying does not occur. In contrast, there may be students who are more reinforced by the negative attention from peers than by winning the prize or activity. Individual contingencies may be used in combination for these students.

Universal Punishment Systems

Time-Out. Most teachers think of time-out as removal from the classroom (e.g., student is sent to the principal's office) or the classroom activity; however, time-out in behavioral terms is removal from a reinforcing stimulus for a brief period. The difference is this: when time-out is considered in colloquial terms, it may actually function as a reinforcer for some students. Students who have challenges with the content (e.g., reading) in the classroom or who are being bullied may display inappropriate behaviors. Over time, the student realizes that he or she can act out in order to avoid the unpleasant situation (e.g., reading, bullies). When time-out and

punishment are considered in behavioral terms, a time-in, in which the student is unable to leave the classroom, would punish the behavior of acting out.

School Suspension and Expulsion. When students have shown dangerous or disruptive behaviors, the school might consider suspension or expulsion. As in the example above, when teachers consider the behavioral definitions of the terms, suspension and expulsion may be exactly what the student wanted. Fortunately, positive behavior interventions and support (PBIS) have reduced the number of referrals for suspension and expulsion in schools across the country.

Combined Systems: The Stoplight System

The stoplight system consists of a public display of a stoplight created from construction paper. Students' names are written on ice cream sticks, magnets, or clothespins. When a student breaks a class rule, his or her clothespin is moved either to yellow or red, depending on the severity of the infraction. Predetermined consequences are given depending on which color students are on at the end of the day (e.g., red means the teacher will call the student's parents; green means students get some type of reward). One consideration is that teachers are publicly tracking students' behaviors for all of their peers to see. While this can serve to motivate some students, consider students with challenging behaviors who repeatedly end up on red. Over time, they may give up trying to comply with class rules. These students usually require more explicit instruction on social skills or following directions. On the other hand, students who are always rewarded for good behavior may become embarrassed at the prospect of becoming the teacher's pet. If teachers wish to use a combined system, they should consider (1) implementing a private, rather than a public system, (2) individualizing the goals for some students, and/or (3) using a token economy system with a response cost (taking away tokens when students engage in inappropriate behaviors) instead.

Additional Concerns With the Use of Universal Approaches

One of the main concerns with universal approaches is that teachers tend to use strategies based on punishment more often than on reinforcement, even though research shows that reinforcement-based approaches are more effective. Second, universal classroom rewards and punishments do not work for all students because (1) not all rewards are reinforcing; (2) even when rewards are reinforcing for students, the receiver can interpret them as bribes or payoffs for good behavior,

thus reducing their effectiveness; and (3) some rewards that are intended to increase desired behaviors may actually function as punishments (e.g., attention from the teacher may embarrass some students). Unless teachers begin to think of reinforcement and punishment in behavioral terms, universal approaches will continue to be ineffective for some students.

Controversies Surrounding the Use of Rewards and Punishments

If universal approaches to the use of rewards and punishments are not always effective, then why are they used so often? If approaches based on reinforcement are more effective than punishment, why do teachers usually choose punishment? John Maag suggests teachers rely on punishment in favor of reinforcement because punishment is easy to implement, works for most students, and has been part of American culture for decades. In contrast, reinforcement is ignored because (1) many teachers are unfamiliar with behavioral principles, (2) using punishment can be reinforcing for the teacher, and (3) some teachers consider reinforcement an extrinsic form of motivation and believe that it diminishes intrinsic motivation.

Many teachers use universal forms of providing rewards and punishments to students, believing that reinforcement and punishment are something *given to* or *done to* a student. These are erroneous assertions, since reinforcements and punishments are natural occurrences in daily living in every setting. All behaviors are followed by consequences: If the behavior increases as a function of a consequence, then it was reinforced by that consequence; if it decreases, it was punished.

In classrooms, reinforcement and punishment can go both ways—as students reinforce and punish teachers' behavior and vice versa. Consider the following example: Mrs. McKissick asks Amy (a student with a learning disability in reading) to read, and Amy slams her book on the floor. Mrs. McKissick yells, telling Amy to cool down in the hallway, breathing a sigh of relief as she leaves. If we evaluate this scenario based on behavioral principles, we see that Amy will likely increase her defiant behaviors, since the result of those behaviors (removal from the classroom) was actually reinforcing. Mrs. McKissick's behavior (asking Amy to leave) will also likely increase, since her behavior was also reinforced (the aversive stimulus—that is, Amy—was removed).

Some teachers are concerned that if they use reinforcement strategies, the student will become dependent on extrinsic motivation, thereby negatively affecting the student's internal motivation. Reflecting these concerns, education theorist Alfie Kohn criticizes the use

of reinforcement in schools. Kohn suggests that when teachers reinforce desirable behaviors, students are being manipulated into behaving. John Maag suggests these same teachers often employ external forms of punishment without fear of having the same issue. If applying external forms of reinforcement were harmful to students' internal motivation, then using external forms of punishment would have the same effect.

Five Recommendations for Practice

Be proactive rather than reactive. Use PBIS to develop classroom rules and consequences. If students act out, try to remain calm, consider the students' motivation for the behavior, and follow through with the planned consequences.

Match the level of intensity. For example, if a student is talking to another student during independent seatwork, use proximity control to decrease the future likelihood of the behavior.

Catch students being good. Set a timer on your phone that vibrates every 5–10 minutes. When the timer goes off, reinforce the students who are following the classroom rules.

Use the 3:1 ratio. Make three comments telling the student specifically what he or she is doing correctly for every one comment correcting the student.

Self-monitor. Set a goal to implement one of the above recommendations. Reflect daily on your progress.

Victoria F. Knight

See also Applied Behavior Analysis; Behavioral Approaches, Foundations of; Good Behavior Game; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; Punishment; Reinforcement; Suspension and Expulsion; Token Economies

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ROUTINES

Routines are the ongoing, regular actions that take place within classrooms to accomplish learning goals

and interact with others. For example, an elementary school teacher will likely have a routine for gathering information from students about who will need a school lunch each day, and a high school teacher may have a routine for collecting homework assignments. Routines that have been well conceived and implemented make classroom management less conspicuous because students know what should be done when and in what manner. When routines are used effectively, classroom management is more integrated into the functioning of the classroom and unobtrusively supports academic learning goals. In this entry, the importance of classroom routines is laid out and examples of classroom routines are described. Finally, research on the effective use of routines is summarized.

There are a number of reasons for using routines in the classroom. First, routines streamline organizational tasks that may take precious time away from academic learning. For example, the longer it takes for students to transition from one classroom activity to another, the less time remains to actually engage with the content being studied. Streamlined procedures for such transitions help students get more time devoted to instruction each day.

Routines also help teachers to clarify their expectations within the classroom, a key step toward ensuring that these norms will actually be enacted. Once a routine has been adopted, the teacher's job is to clearly communicate the steps in the process, model how this sequence of actions unfolds, and hold students accountable for using the routine at appropriate times. A teacher intending to develop routines for independent writing time might describe which type of paper to use and how it will be labeled, what to do when students have a question, the level of talking that is acceptable during the activity, and what to do when students are finished. These steps could be written up or pictured for younger students and then practiced and informally assessed. The teacher will need to oversee the routine when it is used until it becomes automatic for students. This process ensures that students clearly understand the teacher's expectations.

Another benefit to using routines in the classroom is that as they become automatic for students, students are able to go beyond surface-level processes and engage with learning concepts more fully. For example, a thinking routine such as a graphic organizer in which students list what they already know about a topic, or what they predict will be in a text they are about to read, might be provided on a regular basis to build an anticipatory set and help students connect new learning to what they already know. With use over time, the process of connecting to their background knowledge using this routine may assist students in approaching new material at a deeper level.

Finally, when routines for organization, learning activities, and interactions are made explicit in the classroom, each member of the classroom can begin to help with classroom management by helping his or her peers follow the routines. Students become empowered to point out charts that outline steps in an activity, or remind others what they should be doing next. This shared responsibility for the smooth running of class is a critical component of an effective learning community.

Types of Classroom Routines

Classroom routines have been categorized in the literature in several ways, most frequently by the context in which they are used, or their purpose. Typically, routines are outlined according to what they help the teacher or students accomplish, such as routines for engaging in learning activities or routines for classroom organization. Following are examples of routines related to transitions, learning activities, thinking processes, the physical environment, and personal interactions. This is not an exhaustive list of potential routines in the classroom but serves to provide a range of possibilities.

Routines for Transitions

Transitions are times during the school day when students begin, end, or change from one activity to another. Transitions, when not clearly routinized, become opportunities for commotion and disarray in the classroom and may cause teachers and students to lose focused academic time. Routines to more efficiently use transitions include beginning and end of class procedures, what to do when students are done with their assignment, what to do if time ends and students are not finished, putting away and taking out lesson-specific materials, forming and moving in a line, arriving late, or responding to an emergency drill.

Routines for Learning Activities

A wide range of learning activities takes place within each classroom setting, including working in small groups, working with a partner, independent work, teacher-directed instruction, using specific materials such as technology or textbooks, and so on. Sample routines that might be evident in elementary-grade classrooms include journal writing procedures, playing games with others, independent reading time, completing and turning in homework, asking for help, steps in writer's workshop, conducting a science experiment, using a dictionary, or daily word study practice. Sample routines in secondary classrooms will vary depending

on the content area, but may include working on small group research projects, documenting learning through note taking, scoring peers' quizzes, participating in class discussions, do's and don'ts of technology use, or keeping a vocabulary notebook.

Thinking Routines

This type of routine helps students to understand and practice cognitive steps for problem exploration and solving. In effect, these routines make thinking more visible and concrete, such as in the activity of reciprocal teaching when students are asked to predict, question, clarify, and summarize a piece of text as they work in small groups. With these routines, students first try out and then practice particular thinking procedures until they become automatic.

Other thinking routines include brainstorming questions about an unknown topic, using graphic organizers such as K-W-L (know, want to know, learned), looking for evidence in a text, creating questions for an author students are studying, or engaging with sentence frames that highlight particular types of thinking (e.g., deduction, inference, divergent) such as, "Because of ____, ____, and ____, I know that ____."

Routines Related to the Physical Environment

Many classroom routines are connected to basic housekeeping within the classroom such as the storage of materials, using and handling equipment, using or checking out materials, sections of the room that are *off limits* at particular times or to particular people, who sits where at what time, and so on. Space- and material-related routines might include getting out of one's seat, how to assign turns for a popular activity or material in class, check-out systems, clean-up procedures, passing out papers, books, or other materials, or how to organize a desk, cubby, or locker at school.

Routines for Classroom Discourse and Personal Interactions

Learning is often a social activity, and for this reason there are many opportunities for students to engage with their peers and teachers throughout the day. Discourse routines help structure the way productive communication takes place and outline norms for members of the learning community to use when they interact. Example routines include sharing with a partner, turn taking in the whole group, responding to teacher questioning, classroom quiet signal, small group participation, responding to others' work orally or in writing, or conducting *author's chair* sessions.

Developing Classroom Routines

Routines are designed to succinctly communicate how an activity should take place, the materials involved, and other needed details. Routines help students to visualize what to do, when, and how. Teachers consider the maturity level and background knowledge of their students in order to develop reasonable classroom routines. A preschool teacher's routine for morning snack may be: *Pick up your snack tray and sit at a table. Enjoy your food and talk quietly with friends. When you finish, throw away your trash and sit on the rug with a book.* An elementary teacher's routine for word study practice may state: *Get out your collection of words for the week, and categorize them with a partner according to the pattern we practiced. Write your words in these categories in your word study notebook. Then, choose a game from the tub to play with your partner.* A high school teacher's routine for small group work might be: *Form groups of four. Each person takes a role—timekeeper, note taker, facilitator, or reporter. Engage in the assignment using the discussion skills that have been modeled. Be ready to share evidence of your work with the whole group at the end of small group time.* Key to developing effective classroom routines is making them age-appropriate, descriptive, and doable. If the routine is not efficient, a new plan should be devised that works better.

Effective Use of Routines

A number of research studies have documented the use of routines in preschool, elementary, and secondary classrooms. Key ideas from this literature show that the smooth enactment of routines enhances students' participation in the classroom and improves the learning climate. Creating developmentally appropriate routines is an important part of organizing a positive climate for learning. Proficient teachers use routines and procedures at the beginning of the school year to initiate students into classroom practices and continue to reinforce these routines throughout the school year. Effective teachers clearly explain and model common classroom routines, provide students with opportunities to practice them, give performance feedback, and hold students to a high level of implementation. Less effective teachers are not as clear in their communication of routines, nor do they hold students responsible for using them.

Classrooms in which students practice and follow productive routines have more time to focus on academic learning because they spend less time addressing management confusions or losing time to inefficient transitions. Students are able to share in upholding norms for productive behavior and use of shared materials. Finally, as basic routines become automatic to students they have the potential to engage at higher levels

of understanding and apply their behaviors to new and more complex challenges.

Conclusion

Routines have a role in productive classroom learning environments both as an initiation to classroom life and throughout the school year. Routines that have been well integrated into the learning community make classroom management seem natural and effortless; however, extensive explanation, modeling, practicing, and reinforcing of these routines need to take place to ensure they become automatic. Clear classroom routines require an upfront investment of planning time, but this investment pays off well in the smooth functioning of a well-organized classroom throughout the academic term.

Lori Helman

See also Beginning the School Year; Ecological Approaches; Preventing Behavior Problems; Proactive Classroom Management; Reminders; Rules and Expectations; Transitions, Managing

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the classroom as a good environment for learning. A classroom that has rules and expectations will likely promote a successful learning environment.

Structure

When classroom structure is discussed, the topics brought up are apt to be the arrangement of furniture, placement of work stations or centers, designated quiet areas, how traffic will flow, and the amount and kind of adult-directed activity. In other words, structure is often discussed in terms of the physical and temporal organization of the classroom. However, structure also refers to the classroom's rules and expectations for appropriate behavior. Without such rules and expectations, many students truly do not know how to behave or what is expected of them. When successfully implemented, rules and expectations enhance the teaching and learning process.

Classroom Rules

Classroom rules serve the purpose of creating order and safety that make for a productive learning environment. Each rule must have a purpose, and each should be clearly explained, modeled, and practiced. Here is a sample list of basic rules: *Be Prompt, Be Prepared, Be Positive, Be Productive, Be Polite*. Notice, this list of rules is stated in a positive way so as to better serve the purpose of creating a positive classroom climate. Instead of stating what *not* to do (e.g., No running in the classroom), rules can be stated in terms of what to do (“Use walking feet at school”).

Notice from the preceding list that some rules are apt to be abstract and therefore in need of being interpreted by teachers so as to make their meaning clear to students. That is, rules are not simply stated and left for students to interpret. They need to be taught—both in discussion with students and sometimes simply in recognition of when students are following a rule. A teacher can use such an occasion to point out that actions are what rules are about: “That was a polite way you spoke to Jimmy. Thanks for following the class rule about being polite.”

The aim, then, is to help students put classroom rules *on the inside*—both in the sense that they come to know the rules so well that they know them by rote, and in the sense that students *approve* of them and feel they are not just one more instance of a teacher telling them what to do. In support of this goal, rules should be kept to a short list, and they should be accompanied by a consistent plan for consequences when a rule is broken. To help further the aim of putting rules *on the inside*, students can take an active part in creating the list of classroom rules. Given proper supports, class meetings

RULES AND EXPECTATIONS

Rules and expectations are the foundation of a classroom because they provide students with the supportive structure they need to behave in ways that contribute to

for this purpose can occur with children as young as 4 years, maybe even younger.

Expectations

Expectations are about how students should be acting in given situations or in given locations. They may follow or relate to classroom rules, but they go beyond rules by giving much-needed specifics for classrooms to remain safe and orderly. For example, transitions from classroom to out-of-classroom activity need the support of clear expectations—such as the expectation to push one’s chair in before leaving, put materials away, get in line quickly and quietly, keep hands and feet to oneself, and face forward. Putting such expectations in writing and/or in pictures can help students have a clear image and understanding of what it is they should be doing. Developing expectations does take time, but it will pay off in the long run. Once students learn what is expected, less time will be spent on review, and more time can be devoted to classroom instruction on content.

Expectations, like rules, have to be modeled. Best practice dictates that teachers share with their students during every situation and transition what they expect from students in terms of their behavior and following the classroom rules.

Rules and expectations do not take effect overnight. The teacher needs to take time to plan the expectations for the classroom, to write out expectations for each situation, and then stay positive when teaching students the expectations. When a teacher sees that expectations are being met, the teacher needs to praise the child or group on the specific behavior that meets an expectation (“Thank you for lining up quietly”).

Consequences

When rules are broken, there should be a predetermined set of consequences. It is important that the consequences be commensurate with the level or severity of the infraction. The consequences also need to be consistent, expected, and always carried out. There should be a warning system built into the consequence system. However, each time a rule is broken, the student needs to know exactly what rule was broken and how he or she will need to change his or her behavior or make better choices the next time. If rules or expectations are broken on a continuous basis, then the consequence system needs a second look, or there needs to be more modeling and practicing of the rules and/or expectations.

There will be times when individual students will need something extra, when following rules and meeting expectations just is not happening. This is when the student, the teacher, and possibly a parent meet together

to discuss why classroom rules and expectations are not being met. The teacher, with input from the parent and the student, will then develop a behavior plan for that individual student. A behavior plan is designed to meet the needs of an individual student and to help the student be successful in the classroom.

Conclusion

When they are planned, positive, and promoted, rules and expectations form essential components of classroom management and the development of learning environments. Furthermore, they serve not simply to prevent problem behavior but also to promote the kind of civil, caring, and orderly classroom community where all students can learn and thrive.

Cherie Herald

See also Application of Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports to Schoolwide and Classroom Settings; Beginning the School Year; Expectations: Teachers’ Expectations of Students; Preventing Behavior Problems; Proactive Classroom Management

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RURAL SCHOOLS

More than half of U.S. schools are rural. Each rural school has a unique identity, so the effective management of classrooms in these schools will vary. However, there are commonalities that most rural schools share, such as the close connection among the members of the greater school community—with teachers being, or needing to be, a part of that community. Consider the following example of how the teacher–community connection often plays out in rural schools, an example of a teacher conversing with her students at the end of the school day: “Maria, when I see your mother at Sunday school, I am going to tell her what a great leader you

were today. John, great ball game last night, I am one proud aunt!”

Rural classroom management needs to not only celebrate close community but also encourage students to expand their horizons and explore ideas beyond their immediate community. Equally important, to effectively manage the rural classroom, teachers must understand what makes the rural setting unique and why providing a culturally responsive pedagogy is so central to classroom management in rural schools.

Characteristics of Rural Classrooms

During the past 20 years, urban schools have received political, media, and researcher attention for the inequities faced by teachers and students. Comparatively little is said about rural schools. Yet, like urban schools, rural schools often encounter unique issues that are not experienced in suburban schools. Suburban schools tend to have higher achievement test scores, more high school graduates, and more students who attend universities. Poverty, lack of qualified teachers, and lack of resources are issues experienced by many urban and rural schools. Rural schools traditionally have the highest percentage of students living in poverty and higher transient rates. In addition, rural communities are often isolated, which impacts health care, access to resources, public transportation, mobile services, public recreation facilities, libraries, and Internet access. Jobs available to persons living in rural areas also tend to be lower paying, seasonal, and part-time. One former student of a rural school who then moved to a suburban school described the difference in peer pressure between the two by saying the suburban school had peer pressure about money and things that were not really the focus in his rural school experience.

The media often portray rural schools as simplistic, old-fashioned, and homogeneous, which overshadows the unique classroom management issues teachers working in rural schools frequently face. There are systemic issues that often go unrecognized or unaddressed that influence the success of rural students and their teachers. These issues are beyond the control of students and teachers, but they impact their ability to be successful. For example, students living in poverty tend to have more absences and focus on basic needs more than on education. After-school care is often a problem in rural areas. If one child is ill and has to go to the doctor, parents will frequently take their other children to the doctor too, with no one at home to care for them.

Perhaps the lack of attention given to rural schools is because only one fifth of America's student population attends rural schools, even though over one half of American schools are in rural locations. The high number

of schools and yet fewer students can be explained by the small student population within each of these rural schools. Overall, rural student populations are declining, resulting in the consolidation of many schools, an increase in the diversity within rural communities, and longer commutes for residents.

The homogenous population often associated with rural schools is also changing. Rural schools are experiencing more diversity, including English language learners (ELLs). Rural America has the highest growth of ELLs among rural, urban, and suburban schools. A growing number of Latino families are migrating to rural schools, especially in the south and along the southeastern coast. Some schools have seen as high as 400% growth in ELL population. Students' literacy practices in their homes and lived experiences within the community often differ greatly from the culture of the schools they attend, which can significantly impact their success in school. Rural teachers often have little knowledge and experience working with other cultures, languages, and diverse students, and yet in order to support a child's academic growth, connection to the whole child is critical. Integrating diverse cultures and experiences into the classroom enriches the instruction for all and allows students to see mirrors of themselves and windows of life beyond that which they know.

Culturally Responsive Pedagogy

Culturally responsive pedagogy (CRP) is one form of teaching that impacts classroom management. CRP engages and values students' varied cultures in the classroom. It involves examining classroom content and practices in order to connect them to the culture of students. Culturally responsive teachers provide opportunities for students to make connections between their home environments, other social groups, and the larger societal issues they encounter in their daily lives.

For example, in one rural school, community members share about their roles working on various farms. Then students engage in activities that connect the sharing to various grade-appropriate standards and activities. Therefore, the sharing allows community members to show support for the importance of education, involves parents in the classroom, connects the standards to the lives of the community, and shows value for the job opportunities in the community. Establishing this type of community partnership enhances classroom management by being culturally responsive, and it makes it easier for the school to communicate with parents regarding academic issues.

CRP also allows new community members and new students to share and connect to the community. One teacher expressed how being involved in this sharing

event opened communication and involvement with Spanish-speaking parents who were new to the community. One parent said because of the sharing, he gained respect for school personnel and would be more likely to support teacher decisions and classroom needs because they showed that they value and respect parents in the community.

Each community and household is a learning environment that builds funds of knowledge for all involved. Often older members transfer their funds of knowledge to others, through rituals, routines, conversations, and actions. All students bring their unique funds of knowledge to the classroom learning environment. Students' home environments and beliefs about their adult role models are powerful influences on their success. Having students share about their family traditions, foods, celebrations, and routines is one way to involve students and connect with them so they will be more responsive to the classroom routines and community needs.

Place-Based Education

Place-based education (PBE) bridges the funds of knowledge children bring from home to the knowledge they are obtaining at school, because it begins with the community they know. Although PBE may be implemented in any school, implementing it in rural areas highlights special features of rural communities that students might otherwise miss if taught only statewide curriculum standards or more global curriculum. Often classroom management issues occur when students do not connect to the curriculum. Therefore, connecting standards with the community and its values keeps students engaged and proactively minimizes management issues.

Students in rural areas need increased experiences within their local environment and a better understanding of community resources in order to appreciate their own culture and to begin building an understanding of the world beyond their own community. For example, asking rural students to examine the mathematical concepts of perimeter and area with gardens and fences tends to bring larger, open spaces to mind than when perimeter and area are presented in suburban and urban settings. Transportation in rural settings is very different than in urban and suburban areas that have mass transit. In one rural school, when a parent realized he was late to pick up his child, he came straight from the field, still riding on his tractor, and drove home with his child on it. Another parent in this same school found it more convenient and economical to drive his child to and from school on his four-wheel all-terrain vehicle, with which he could cut through the woods during warmer weather.

Rural students going shopping at the mall may travel a much greater distance than urban and suburban students. This becomes important when teachers ask students to bring certain specific materials/supplies to school the next day when they may not be readily available in the rural community or when finances are an issue for parents. For example, students in one rural school were able to have turkey feathers from a local turkey farm for quill pen writing, but had a difficult time finding parchment paper.

However, creating management plans in which the classroom community mirrors the close-knit rural community can be very effective. Relating how each person's actions impact the other classmates is something these students may be familiar with in their own community. Also, involving parents and sending positive notes and pictures home to create a supportive community can impact classroom management.

Characteristics of Effective Teaching and Management in Rural Settings

Effective methods, strategies, and approaches to classroom management in rural settings involve changing one's thinking, rather than simply implementing a specific management plan or strategy. Grounding classroom management, instruction, and expectations in community values, with flexibility toward individual needs, is essential. Therefore, embracing the model of the close-knit rural community that shares, supports, and cares is important in the classroom community as well. Having classroom jobs similar to community jobs and having community classroom meetings regarding management issues similar to community town meetings—in short, finding ways to have the classroom mirror what goes on in the surrounding community—can enhance the classroom community and make it a more positive learning community. Sharing classroom community news in the school and parental newsletter is important in the rural setting.

Teachers need to embrace the rural community, but also provide high expectations that challenge students to behave, think, and learn in ways that empower them to achieve success within and beyond the rural community. Culturally responsive classroom management is, then, a frame of mind, not simply a set of strategies or practices.

To manage a classroom using culturally responsive and place-based teaching, teachers need to bring aspects of students' home and community lives into the classroom. Parker J. Palmer describes effective teachers as those who can connect the students, the content, and themselves in meaningful ways. Having parents and students share skills they have, such as cooking, gardening, games, crafting, or books, can support the partnership

between parents and teachers that is essential in rural schools for effective classroom management. A spotlight on each child in the weekly newsletter in which the child shares about his or her home, creating Voice Threads about things that are important to each child, and having students interview each other are ways teachers can create classroom community toward the beginning of the year that mirror the ways rural community members get to know each other. In addition, schools need to host community events that help students see how the community supports the school, the teachers, and education.

Welcoming all students into the learning community by valuing and giving voice to unique cultures and perspectives is vital. Teachers should not only integrate the cultural capital of the majority of the rural community but also embrace the individuals who are culturally diverse from the majority. Culturally responsive teachers validate students' cultures and identities and connect them to the curriculum and classroom culture. They allow students to see their unique cultures and identities as positive funds of knowledge, rather than as problems to address. Asking new students to share their experiences in this community and the connections they see with their old communities can help all students in the classroom. Creating opportunities for long-established community parents to interact and connect with newer community members is important not only to the parents, but creates a sense of ease and mutual respect for students.

Teachers must build student trust and parental support by connecting learning to the cultural values of each student. Creating authentic, appropriate learning opportunities that have meaning to students is key to successful learning experiences.

Effective Classroom Management in Rural Schools

In conclusion, the following are primary suggestions for implementing effective classroom management in rural schools:

Know the families of the students. Connect to family members, because these connections help increase the value students give to the teacher. In rural communities, there tend to be more family connections among the population than in larger school contexts.

Know the students and community. Draw upon all community influences, including the culture of both the majority of the community and the cultures of diverse learners, to help engage and motivate students academically.

Communicate that students have opportunities within and beyond their community. Encourage students

not only to envision their futures within their rural community but also to dare to imagine the possibilities beyond the community they know.

Maximize the resources that are provided. If resources appear limited or outdated, learn to use available tools to enhance learning. Examine how resources can be used beyond intended purposes to create unique learning opportunities. This includes using culturally relevant texts and materials in the classroom.

Maintain high expectations. Value students and recognize the potential of each child, rather than the deficits. View unique cultural characteristics as positive funds of knowledge that can be used to increase learning opportunities.

Share your own culture and community. Allow students to connect to you as the teacher by sharing the culture and community that influenced you. In order to authentically value students, be authentic about your own experiences and cultural background.

Challenge issues of status and inequity. All communities, whether large urban or small rural, have issues of status and inequities. Stereotypes, as well as other forms of silencing and the taking away of power, need to be addressed. All learners should be valued and given their voices. Begin by valuing individuals, rather than looking at deficits to compare one scale of value. Question the curriculum, create culturally responsive curricula, authentically connect to students, and empower all students to achieve their dreams.

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See also Culturally Responsive Classrooms; Power and Classroom Management; Sociocultural Theories and Classroom Management; Urban Schools

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SAFETY, POLICIES FOR ENSURING

Safe classrooms and schools are essential to promote effective learning and positive school climates. Policies for ensuring safety refer to principles, rules, and laws that are designed to keep students and teachers safe. In the educational environment, safety can be divided into different types. For example, prominent dimensions of safety include *physical safety*—protection from dangers such as injury or violence—and *emotional safety*—feeling secure, supported, and comfortable to express oneself and to succeed when challenged at school. A safe school environment balances physical and emotional safety to promote learning and well-being. Well-managed classrooms are more likely to be safe spaces for students and enable the implementation and development of policies that promote physical and emotional safety. This entry reviews the educational impact of safety, provides examples of efforts to promote safety, and offers strategies for maintaining safe classrooms while managing dilemmas that may arise.

Importance of Safe Schools

Safe school environments are related to a variety of positive outcomes for students and teachers. Physically and emotionally safe classrooms enable teachers to teach effectively, promote student learning, and encourage academic, psychological, and social thriving. The physical and psychological environments, and perceptions of these contexts, are influential in supporting positive outcomes. When students feel safe, they are able to focus on learning and can achieve greater academic success. Schools and classrooms that do not enforce rules, have a gang presence or graffiti, and in which drugs or alcohol are easily accessible are typically

considered unsafe. Unsafe schools are associated with several negative outcomes, including higher rates of violent incidents, suspensions, and expulsions, lower grades, less participation in learning activities, fears of being subjected to violence, negative attitudes toward school, school avoidance, and reduced attendance.

Efforts to promote safety and a positive school climate, including the relationships between students and with staff, tone (e.g., warmth, feelings of belongingness), and organization (e.g., security), are associated with fewer instances of misbehavior, fewer incidences of violence, and an increased likelihood to report bullying to school staff. Overall, safe schools and classrooms protect the physical and emotional safety of students and stimulate effective learning and positive attitudes toward school.

Strategies for Ensuring Safety: Policies and Practices

Policies aimed at preventing violence, disruptive behaviors, or injuries and promoting students' physical and emotional safety are developed and implemented at multiple levels. Federal guidelines, state law, local education agency requirements, school policies, and classroom rules are all designed to promote safe school environments. This section provides examples of policies and practices implemented at a variety of levels.

Outside Grants, Legislation, and Federal Policies

Grants, legislation, and court rulings, among other federal policies, affect school practices. For example, federally funded initiatives, such as the Safe Schools/Healthy Students (SS/HS) grant, have provided funds to state and local education agencies to support coordinated efforts by school and community agencies

to improve school safety and academic achievement, reduce substance use, and promote student well-being. Reviews of SS/HS-funded programs have found increases in safety and security of students at schools, as evidenced by reduced violence on school grounds and in the surrounding communities, increased receipt of mental health services, and reductions in substance use. Other national efforts to encourage safety include the Gun Free Schools Act of 1994, which helped to establish policies against the use of weapons in schools, and the recent Supportive School Discipline Initiative proposed by the Department of Education and the Attorney General to create safe, supportive, nondiscriminatory environments, and reduce the rates of exclusionary discipline policies (i.e., suspensions and expulsions).

Schoolwide Practices

Schoolwide practices designed to foster safety span the physical and emotional domains. Common efforts to keep students and teachers safe from intrusions of violence and threats to physical safety include rules requiring campus visitors to sign in at the main office, identification badges for staff, visitors, and sometimes students, security cameras, and security or police officers who monitor school grounds. Similarly, some schools require students to enter through metal detectors so as to prevent gun and knife violence. The research literature, however, offers mixed results as to the effectiveness of these devices in reducing violence. Schools also take precautions against environmental dangers (e.g., fires) through the use of smoke detectors, fire alarms, and routine inspections and maintenance of school facilities. Additionally, school crisis response plans, including routine drills, plans for evacuation, and access to first aid supplies, are intended to prevent injury and maintain safety during crises. Most schools also aim to prevent substance use and physical violence through policies prohibiting these practices on school grounds and at school-sanctioned events. Violations of these rules often result in consequences for students, including positive discipline strategies, implementing behavior plans, parent conferences, or loss of privileges, and more exclusionary practices such as detention, suspension, and expulsion. Common elements of empirically supported safety interventions include increasing awareness of types of violence that occur at the school, developing clear school rules, increasing supervision outside of the classroom, and communicating procedures to follow prior to, during, and after an episode of violence.

Classroom Practices

At the most localized level, in their classrooms, teachers and students promote safety by attending to

physical and emotional needs with a variety of techniques. Classroom arrangement can help to ensure that classrooms are physically safe—for example, by arranging furniture so that there are clear walkways, storing scissors in cupboards until needed, or avoiding hanging objects from ceilings that can fall on students. Similarly, classroom management techniques encourage physical safety through maintenance of order and by preventing conflict among students, and emotional safety by providing clear expectations and signaling that the classroom is a safe space for all learners. Teachers with well-managed classrooms (e.g., who engage students in establishing classroom rules and who monitor and prevent disruptive behavior) create warm, caring, and respectful communities of learners where students feel safe to express themselves and to be challenged. Furthermore, student-centered instructional practices, positive relationships with others (i.e., student–student and student–teacher), discipline practices that foster self-control, and encouraging a culture of respect promote emotional safety in the classroom.

Strategies for Ensuring Safety: Managing Dilemmas

While the policies described above represent common strategies for promoting students' safety, teachers and other school staff inevitably will encounter dilemmas related to school safety. For example, efforts to promote safety often effect community and student perceptions of the school. Schools must balance the need to prevent violence and threats of harm to students, for example, through security measures, while also maintaining a positive school climate and remaining welcoming to families and community members. Security measures, such as metal detectors, security officers, and mandatory visitor sign-in, are intended to prevent violence and threats to physical safety while also deterring escalation of violence. These measures can signal to students, staff, and families that the school will be a safe place; however, these precautions can also be perceived negatively and may increase awareness of the potential for violence or other risks to occur at school. Physical security measures may also serve to normalize violence or lead students to believe that violence is typical at their school. For example, research has demonstrated that certain types of security measures, particularly metal detectors, are associated with more negative perceptions of school and decreased feelings of safety.

Classroom teachers must also balance prompt interventions for misbehavior that can detract from the safety of the learning environment while maintaining the flow of the lesson. For example, control-oriented monitoring (e.g., teacher attempts to control student

behavior through punishment or rewards) can prevent disruptions or outbursts and create opportunities to provide students with feedback. However, monitoring and intervening for misbehavior can also negatively impact motivation, diminish autonomy, or disrupt learning and classroom activities. Ignoring or overlooking misbehavior to continue teaching, though, may inadvertently convey that the behavior is acceptable.

Balance can be achieved by allowing reasonable autonomy in the classroom and by consistently intervening when misbehavior is significantly disrupting student learning. Staff should be mindful of discipline practices (e.g., negative statements, such as “What’s wrong with you?”) that may deter inappropriate behaviors that threaten others’ emotional safety but can also increase student anger, hostility, and aggression. Research on positive behavioral interventions and supports (PBIS) suggests that schoolwide discipline strategies are effective when staff utilize a common approach, with common language, expectations, rules, and procedures for encouraging positive behaviors and responding to rule violations.

Given the need to balance efforts to ensure safety while reducing detrimental effects on student attitudes and perceptions of school, school staff must be purposeful with the policies they adopt to ensure physical and emotional safety. Teachers and school staff can enhance safety by engaging in school- and classroom-based prevention of negative behaviors. Research supports positive and preventive behavior management efforts as well as positive discipline strategies (e.g., reinforcement of appropriate behaviors) for both reducing undesirable behaviors and promoting a positive classroom climate and student achievement. Similarly, to balance physical and emotional safety, research recommends implementing reasonable physical security (e.g., locked doors, visitor sign-in, crisis plans) while simultaneously engaging in activities to promote a positive school climate, including promoting feelings of connectedness among students, staff, and families, and enhancing student feelings of empowerment. Additionally, establishing collaborative relationships with community agencies to promote safety in the communities in which schools are embedded can help to promote safety while welcoming community involvement in schools.

Overall, efforts to promote a positive school climate and to support learning can ensure safety for students and teachers while minimizing some of the negative effects of safety precautions. Establishing supportive school environments, creating a common set of policies recognizable and enforced by all school staff, utilizing positive discipline procedures, applying reasonable consequences when rules are broken or when misbehavior occurs, and establishing appropriate and fair rules all contribute to positive, safe school climates while supporting learning.

Concluding Comments

Policies for ensuring student and teacher safety at schools are widespread and diverse. From legislation to classroom rules, these policies are intended to promote the emotional and physical safety of students and staff as well as prevent acts of violence, disasters, or other events that threaten safety. Safe schools and classrooms facilitate learning and encourage positive perceptions of school and increased achievement, among other beneficial student outcomes. In designing and implementing safety policies, teachers and school staff must often balance the need to ensure freedom from harm and a safe learning environment while maintaining positive attitudes toward school and sustaining community and family relationships. Continued and sustained efforts to prevent negative behaviors and create a positive school climate can help to ensure safe learning environments.

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See also Bullying and the Law; Discipline Codes of Conduct; Drugs and Alcohol; Emergency Procedures and Students With Disabilities; Guns: History, Policy, Consequences; Law and Classroom Management; Restraint and Seclusion Policy; Sexual Harassment, School-Based Peer; Suspension and Expulsion

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SCHEDULES AND SCHEDULING FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Anyone working in a secondary school setting will be impacted by schedules and at times will struggle with

scheduling. It is, therefore, critical to understand the nature of schedules, how they impact jobs, and how to work effectively within each school's unique schedule. To begin, schedules are structured plans. Each year a school develops a master schedule, an overarching plan for the academic year. The master schedule governs daily activities, outlines duties and responsibilities of school personnel, prioritizes goals, underscores the vision and mission of the school, and provides a metric for accountability. This entry examines one aspect of the master schedule—class scheduling. Different types of class scheduling will be discussed, along with the advantages and disadvantages of each. Finally, practice implications will be highlighted.

Types of Class Schedules

Traditional Schedules

The traditional schedule is one in which students rotate through six or seven classes per day (approximately 45–50 minutes each), Monday through Friday, for an entire semester. An advantage of this type of schedule is that learning can occur in small chunks for an extended period of time. Traditional schedules also offer variety, continuity, and social interactions with a wide variety of people. Those with shorter attention spans may find it easier to concentrate and stay focused in these relatively short class periods. Another advantage of the traditional schedule is that it can easily accommodate study halls, work release, and an athletic or music period (athletes or marching band members attend practice during the final hour of the day). School psychologists, school counselors, and other service providers may find it easier to pull a student out of a class period in this type of schedule.

At the same time, there are disadvantages. In this model, teachers see students for only a short time each day and may feel pressured to maintain a sharp focus on the material. They may feel they do not have enough time to cover topics in depth, get to know their students, respond to questions, employ activities or experiments, or allow the conversation to drift off-topic (which can be valuable at times). When teachers need to cover a lot of information in a short period, students employ rote learning, which ensures memory in the short term, say, for taking a test, but is not a good strategy for remembering the material over the long term as there may be no opportunity to analyze, synthesize, integrate, or apply the material.

Block Schedules

Block schedules were devised to offer a more concentrated and personalized learning environment in

order to accommodate students' educational needs. In block scheduling, students have fewer classes each day for a longer period of time. There are two main types of block schedules. In a 4×4 block schedule, students take four classes each day (approximately 90 minutes each), Monday through Friday, for the length of a quarter (four quarters in an academic year). In an AB block schedule, students take four classes on Monday and Wednesday (the A day) and four different classes on Tuesday and Thursday (the B day) for a semester (two semesters in an academic year). Fridays either rotate between A and B days or are treated as a traditional schedule day in which students rotate through all eight classes in 30- to 45-minute periods. Schools may also have their own creative way of scheduling classes that combines a traditional and block approach.

There are many advantages to block scheduling. For example, block scheduling offers an opportunity to explore a topic in greater depth. Students are able to develop deeper connections to the material, their classmates, and their teachers. With longer class periods, teachers can implement cooperative learning activities, experiment with diverse learning strategies, incorporate creative and more complex learning experiences, and have a deeper understanding of each student's abilities, skills, learning styles, and deficits. Both students and teachers may find block scheduling more manageable as they have fewer classes to prepare for each night. Both the 4×4 and AB block schedules allow students to complete more credits in one year than the traditional schedule (16 versus 12). This means that students might have more room for electives. And, because the number of class changes is reduced, the potential for discipline problems is decreased (as most disruptions occur during transitions).

As for the disadvantages, classes of longer duration may not be conducive to learning for students with short attention spans. Teachers may have to implement more classroom management strategies and active learning techniques. Another disadvantage is that students lack daily exposure to subject material. This lack of continuity becomes particularly troublesome with subjects such as math, reading, music, or a language. A student missing one class period in a block schedule misses 90 minutes of material (the equivalent of two class periods in a traditional schedule). Thus, this type of schedule leaves virtually no openings for a school psychologist, school counselor, or other service provider to pull a student out of class without disrupting learning.

Although students are able to complete more courses in a block schedule than in a traditional schedule, they are exposed to each subject for less time (including core classes such as English, math, and science). Finally, students may finish a subject in quarter one and then be

asked to take standardized testing in quarter four. It will have been months since the student was exposed to certain subjects, and as a result he or she may have forgotten information.

Practice Implications

How teachers schedule themselves within the school can positively impact learning and make it easier to manage the classroom. With respect to scheduling, for those working in the classroom there are three things in particular to keep in mind. First, students benefit from predictability, structure, consistency, and clear behavioral expectations. A teacher can further implement structure in the classroom by developing lesson plans, verbalizing plans with the students, discussing behavioral expectations, following through on consequences for unacceptable behavior, and administering consequences consistently. By creating a schedule for classroom lessons and activities and sharing parts of that with students, teachers enhance cooperative behavior. If an educator is a school counselor providing a guidance lesson, a substitute teacher, or a guest lecturer, it will be helpful to know the full-time teacher's typical structure and behavioral policies.

Second, in planning the schedule of activities for the semester, teachers do well to consider the diverse learning needs of students—and to be flexible and provide differentiated instruction using multiple sensory domains (visual, auditory, sense of touch), multiple delivery mechanisms (teacher, guest lecturer, video, computer), and multiple ways of helping students grapple with the material (self-study, group work, speech, writing, projects). Such flexibility allows students to be more active in their own learning. They will need freedoms but also need to be accountable for their work and product. By varying teaching strategies, teachers can keep students interested and engaged and avoid some of the negative behaviors that arise due to inattention and boredom.

Third, teachers need to collaborate with school counselors, school psychologists, and other service providers to determine the least disruptive day or time to pull a student out of class for services when needed. Although teachers may not want a student to miss class, receiving counseling, testing, or special education services may have a positive effect on student behavior and ultimately help teachers manage their classroom. Those working in the school system but not necessarily in the classroom need to consult with teachers about their class schedules rather than simply demanding that a student be excused from class on a particular day and time. Collaboration involves mutual respect, communication, and flexibility.

To sum up, whether a school is implementing traditional or block schedules, teachers can maximize

effectiveness in either type of schedule by reflecting on their advantages and disadvantages, implementing structure, accommodating students' diverse learning needs, and collaborating with others. The essential point is that teachers can tailor their approach to work within set class schedules and also consider their own scheduling so as to maximize student outcomes and address classroom management.

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See also Ecological Approaches; Organization of Classrooms: Time

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SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION, EMERGING TRENDS IN

School administration refers to the actions of school building leaders (e.g., principals), district office administrators, teacher leaders, and others responsible for delivering high-quality education to students. School administration includes, but is not limited to, creating a culture and climate conducive to learning. It provides the necessary leadership for achieving a school's vision and for hiring, supervising, and evaluating teachers. It also provides leadership around instruction, maintaining facilities, and creating communication systems within ever-changing school environments.

School building leaders, such as principals, operations managers, and chief administrators, engage in a myriad of actions to provide leadership, structure, and balance. Principals, in particular, are responsible for providing a coherent vision for teaching and learning, setting high academic standards for students, recruiting and nurturing talented teachers, and managing relationships, all while being responsible and accountable to internal and external stakeholders.

This entry focuses on the major trends in school administration, trends having to do with learning, leadership, school climate, community, partnerships, and governance. These trends in school administration testify to the expanded roles and challenges being placed on today's school administrators.

School Administration and the Learning Imperative

Research affirms that principals can and should have direct and significant effects on student learning—what is referred to as the learning imperative. Aimee Terosky examined instructional leadership, finding that the practices and focus of many principals do not follow the learning imperative, but rather follow an imperative to focus on managerial activities such as managing facilities, completing compliance reports, dealing with service providers, and attending meetings. To effect student learning, Terosky suggested principals should prioritize the learning imperative and ground their thinking and acting in learning as opposed to mere managerial tasks. In so doing, principals should focus on activities designed to develop students' and faculty members' knowledge and relevant skills. In a study of learning-focused principals, Terosky found these principals promoted learning by setting a learning direction, creating space and time for teachers to engage in learning, dedicating financial resources for adult learning, and setting aside space for personal learning development.

School Administration and Authentic Leadership

By their working to create positive school climates focused on continuous improvement, school principals foster greater adult and student learning within a school environment that is safe, nurturing, and rigorous. Research on school administration has focused on how the school principal can be the most powerful person in creating a positive school climate and increased positive student outcomes. In order to do so, this research suggests that principals need to embrace transformative and distributive leadership approaches, as opposed to traditional hierarchal (top-down) approaches. Transformative, distributive leadership approaches are more likely to motivate and better support students, teachers, staff, and parents.

As a word of caution, research on school-based and decentralized models of school structures shows how surface-level leadership reforms, such as moving decision-making power from one actor to another, do not suffice to improve school climate and teacher–student

achievements. Instead of surface-level reforms, school principals and other authority figures must create new structures and new opportunities for principals and teachers to connect with each other and with members of the outside community in authentic and meaningful ways.

The theory of authentic leadership stands in contrast to early and dominant approaches of leadership that place the leader at the center of decision making while ignoring the multiple needs and concerns of followers. Authentic leadership involves teamwork and participation from all members. Authentic leaders exhibit confidence and optimism toward tasks, model resilience for the team after setbacks, are transparent with followers, hold and practice moral values, and have an active interest in developing followers and seeking their opinions on decisions. Research on authentic leadership demonstrates how these behaviors and interactions promote positive performance in followers. In a school setting, principals can increase and cultivate teacher growth through this approach to leadership. James Bird and his colleagues found that principals who were perceived by teachers as authentic leaders exhibited behaviors such as integrity, transparency, fairness, and self-awareness, and had higher levels of teacher trust, engagement, and loyalty.

School Administration and Establishing School Climate

School climate represents another opportunity for school administrators to influence student learning and teacher performance. School climate encompasses the norms, goals, values, interpersonal relations, teaching practices, learning realities, physical space, and organizational structure of a school. Ellie Drago-Severson encouraged principals to cultivate learning-oriented climates, which support teacher development, facilitate improved practice to meet reform standards, encourage accountability within and outside the institution, and acclimate to challenges. Schools with climates that support both adult and student learning have demonstrated higher student achievement and connections to retention of teachers and administrators. Drago-Severson emphasized the need for teacher development, meaning the increased cognitive, emotional, intrapersonal, and interpersonal growth of teachers must be a priority for educators to manage and thrive in the classroom.

Drago-Severson investigated how principals created growth-enhancing climates by examining the activities of 25 principals, of which half demonstrated characteristics of creating learning-oriented climates and half who only marginally exhibited these qualities. Principals

described their job as a tripartite role: instructional leader, managerial leader, and spiritual or visionary leader. In each of these roles, principals infused learning, helping to create a coherent climate. Through field notes and qualitative interviews, Drago-Severson found principals attended to the holistic development of teachers by encouraging teamwork, creating structures to foster adult learning, and modeling learning. In schools with lesser access to resources, principals emphasized the importance of climate to motivate teachers and staff beyond monetary rewards.

School Administration and Schools as Community Centers

School administrators are responsible for more than managing facilities and ensuring quality education. Today, they are also responsible for the health, wellness, social-emotional, and economic needs of the school community, including providing meals, health screenings, adult education, immigration information, vaccinations, and safe school passage—services that in prior years resided almost entirely in community agencies outside schools. These additional responsibilities strain the resources, talent, and time of school administrators and their staff. Principals, in particular, can become torn between managing these additional services and leading efforts to improve outcomes for students.

To avoid duplication of services in an environment of scarce resources, principals need to create partnerships with local businesses and other community groups, including faith-based institutions, to provide needed services to students and their families. Principals need, then, to conceive of their schools as community centers where children and parents alike develop as learners and family units.

School Administrators and Creative Partnerships

School district-level administrators should also refocus their school administrative efforts beyond compliance and accountability measures. To actualize improvements in student learning and achievement, school district administrators can work directly with principals and school leaders around issues of instruction. Meredith Honig examined the contributions of central office administrators in assisting and supporting principals as instructional leaders to identify useful practices. District administrators forged useful, learning focus partnerships with principals by focusing on the joint work of improving instruction, differentiating their approach with principals, modeling useful practices,

employing tools to stimulate learning, introducing ideas and resources, and fostering continual social engagement. Instead of outsourcing or hiring consultants, Honig argued the task of supporting principal's instructional leadership should be an executive-level function, making the work of developing principals as learners central to administrative office functioning.

As schools, particularly in urban settings, are expected to provide holistic support for students and families, principals can increase their professional and institutional capacity to serve by partnering with community organizations. Community organizations, organized coalitions of religious institutions, civic organizations, and community leaders focus on building agency, capacity, and collaboration among low-income people for social change. Ann Ishimaru found such collaboration offers principals opportunities to develop working relationships with parents and ways to effectively advocate for school needs from district offices. Additionally, partnership with community organizations offers principals the chance to outsource the construction of parent engagement groups. Community organizing training for parents in the issues of school reform, relationship building, and civic engagement helps build the capacity of parents to be co-actors for school change with administrators.

School Administration and Transforming Governance Structures

School administration literature addresses the possibilities of changing governance structures as a gateway to school reform. School autonomy, decentralization, and Comprehensive School Reform (CSR) represent the various ways decision-making authority can be transformed to empower principals, teachers, and district office administrators to better address student learning. School autonomy initiatives aim to increase school leaders' authority to make key decisions to improve teaching, learning, and address the needs of local stakeholders more readily. School decentralization efforts aim to create new, local structures of decision making. Decentralization efforts succeed when school leaders are able to make key changes in concert with upper-level administration. CSR describes the in-depth process of transforming school policies and approaches to instruction through the collaboration of school leaders and experts. CSR targets both the practices and culture of a school, changing the ways teachers teach and empowering teachers to contribute ideas to the process. Each process offers school leaders agility in decision making; however, success depends on the level of collaboration and actual diffusion of authority to principals and teachers.

Unlike the charter movement, autonomy initiatives aim to transform existing public and private schools, vesting leaders with the tools to make change. Autonomy efforts also differ from school site-based administration initiatives, which often demonstrate uneven instructional gains. Meredith Honig and Lydia Rainey identified a lack of focus on teaching and learning in site-based administration programs. Autonomy initiatives focus on new leadership structures as a means to improve teaching and learning. Honig and Rainey argued that new autonomy initiatives that focused heavily on teaching and learning, with the support of central offices, may improve student learning, evidenced from early indicators such as increased graduation rates and higher retention.

When considering movements to decentralize governance within school systems, it is important to distinguish between issues of authority and policy. Centralization and decentralization are approaches that school systems can employ jointly to maximize reform potential. Decentralization succeeds when school building leaders have the authority to make day-to-day decisions about instruction, professional development, and administration. Decentralization can promote the freer flow of ideas, innovation, and leadership among individual units within a school system. However, the ability to set key education standards and policy is more effective at a district level. Centralization efforts should be directed toward policy, allowing local actors to adjust these policies to their daily realities freely.

CSR aims to include multiple voices in the generation, evaluation, and implementation of reforms. The process begins with forming a team of school leaders and other educational professionals inside the school. Jointly, the team investigates student and school performance data to have a clear sense of strengths and weaknesses. To come up with possible solutions, team members consult school staff, educational experts, and similar institutions to observe best practices. Once a change agenda is established, the school community undergoes critical professional training to develop greater skills in areas of instruction and administration. According to Nancy Waldron and James McLeskey, the emphasis on collaboration and inclusion inherent in CSR increases teacher agency, capacity, and joint problem solving, ultimately leading to increased school administration effectiveness.

Examining school administration from the lens of collaboration and cooperation among stakeholders, often referred to as distributive leadership, has posited interesting findings. Anysia Mayer and her colleagues found that in decentralization efforts the relationships between district leaders and principals along with district leaders' willingness to divest power moderated the effects of bottom-up change from teachers. Similarly, expanded teacher decision making in CSR approaches

hinged on the level of support and willingness from principals. Mayer found that the successful shift of power from districts to principals, or principals to teachers, demands investment from all actors and coherent understanding of the new roles. Substantive collaboration and inclusion is needed to promote actual change. Additionally, formal authority figures must not only include new voices but also create space for principals or teachers to participate in governance. Mayer demonstrated that increases in teacher agency were found in cases where either the district or principal created structures that encouraged and made room for teacher agency. Intentional leadership from formal authorities validated and encouraged decentralized leadership processes.

Conclusion

School administration comprises more than the logistical duties of a principal. Rather, school administration encompasses the dynamic relationships school leaders must cultivate at every level to improve student, family, and community outcomes. School administrators are expected to provide a committed stance on learning, adopt inclusive leadership styles, form capacity-building partnerships, and approach changes to governance structures with intentionality and a collaborative focus.

In today's schools where there are high expectations for student achievement coupled with decreased resources, principals and district office administrators must invest in human capital to bring about real change. Effective administrators understand that developing the capacities of teachers to improve instruction practices is of paramount importance. They recognize the need to adopt authentic and distributed leadership styles so as to elicit ideas and engagement from teachers, and they strive to maintain partnerships with district offices focused on instruction.

Marla Susman Israel

See also Climate: School and Classroom; Educational Reform and Teacher Effectiveness; Promoting Purpose and Learning Environments; School Climate: Assessing and Improving; School Discipline

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SCHOOL CLIMATE: ASSESSING AND IMPROVING

School improvement is discussed mostly in terms of high-stakes test results. The focus is often on specific student weaknesses in core curricular areas. For schools to improve, however, good educators intuitively understand that improvement also needs to be defined in terms of improving group cohesion, community, positivity, supportive systems, belongingness, respect, and friendly relationships. Yet, schools are often challenged to develop these essential characteristics of school climate.

Good teachers acknowledge that when students walk the corridors feeling stressed, threatened, and intimidated, they do not feel safe. Good teachers know that when students feel as though no one really cares whether they really learn or not, they are set up for failure. Good administrators know that schools have personalities, just like people. After entering a school and speaking with students and teachers and administrators, it does not take long to discover whether the school is accepting, supportive, motivating, friendly, safe, and most of all respectful of all who enter. These are the essentials of school climate.

The term *school climate* can be placed on a semantic differential scale. For some students, the scale tips to the negative side and for others it tips to the positive side. Schools are for everyone, and schools are meant to be places for success, discovery, creativity, social development, and when failure does occur, schools are supposed to be places wherein recovery from failure is not only possible but is supported.

Positive school climates result from several factors:

- the quality of student–teacher relationships;
- whether the mission of the school includes social and emotional development of the student;
- positive support systems for the school to achieve its vision for students;
- cooperative roles established among students, teachers, administrators, and parents;
- active and meaningful engagement by students and teachers sharing in the learning experience; and
- tolerance, fairness, understanding, equity, social justice, and, most of all, respect for everyone at every level of school culture.

Some may maintain that focusing on school climate is a waste of time or at least not a good use of school time—that school is for academics. Others may say that the values inherent in trying to improve school climate should be taught by parents. Still others may argue that it is not fair that some schools focus on social and emotional development of students in addition to achievement, when others do not. What these criticisms fail to recognize is that besides promoting good values and good character, developing a positive school climate and attending to students' development as scholars go hand-in-hand. Evidence shows that there is no need to choose between focusing on academics and focusing on school climate. For example, in schools where there is a positive school climate, students are at less risk for oppositional defiant and antisocial behaviors and drug use. Furthermore, in such schools, students generally have more positive life outcomes after graduation. Having come from a school with a positive school climate, they have learned perhaps the most valuable

lesson of all: how to respect others and gain respect for themselves.

Assessment of Social Climate in Classrooms and Schools

Before social change can begin, it is important to assess the starting point. Assessment of social climate occurs in two forms: informal and formal assessment.

Informal Assessment and Formal Assessment

Stakeholders must first be identified. Stakeholders are those who have an investment in creating a positive school climate. When considering who the stakeholders are, some might immediately think about the members of the student council, or outstanding student achievers, or perhaps the top athletes and other specific leaders in the school, such as the student body president and vice president. What is needed, however, is a truly representative array of students who are concerned about the school climate. This should include students who are struggling, students who are bullied, students who are physically disabled and have difficulty traversing the school, international students who suffer because they feel they cannot make themselves understood, students with mental health challenges, and students with special learning needs. The very decision to embrace all students, no matter what their background, is the beginning of the empowerment process wherein all students feel that they have a say in social climate change.

This design team can be composed of student representatives, but it is better if *all* students have a voice, since inclusion is important in developing a positive school climate. In addition to students, *all* teachers, *all* administrators, and *all* parents should be requested to participate in assessing and developing school climate. The first step in informal assessment is commitment to change. The second step is identifying social climate challenges through case analysis. The third step is creating a positive problem-solving climate wherein the focus is on positive change for the school and classroom, not complaining about what should have been done long ago. Design team training facilitation must occur to develop group identity, clarify purposes and roles, and comprehend that what is about to take place is a collaborative team process or the beginning of social climate change.

Formal assessment of school climate takes two forms: quantitative and qualitative. Social climate surveys are readily available through state departments of education and through the Internet—but it is important to be aware of the reliability and validity of these measures and to make sure the survey you select is appropriate for the age and grade level of students to whom

the survey is administered. The same goes for surveys of teachers, administrators, and parents. The output will only be as good as the input.

Formal assessment involves focus groups of students and teachers to discuss their distinct perspectives in case studies of specific situations in which students and/or teachers have felt unsafe or disrespected in the classroom or school. Students should be involved in these focus groups as both participants and leaders. The very act of granting the responsibility to student researchers is a step in the right direction to improving social climate.

Once the data are collected, students and teachers should be empowered to collaborate in the “who, what, when, where, why, and how” of the data analysis to determine the type, contexts, extent, intensity, frequency, duration, and location of threats to school climate. Do they occur on the bus, in the classroom, on the playground, in the cafeteria, in the bathroom, in the sports locker room? What is happening? Threats to school climate can include, for example, bullying, sexual harassment, intimidation, gender baiting, name calling, marginalization, racist remarks, disability discrimination, extortion, fighting, gang activity, drug sales and use, and weapon threats.

Improving School Climate

The first step toward improving school climate is to create a collaborative action plan. What will students do and what will teachers and administrators do to change the school for the better? Neither fault nor blame should be assigned in this process. It is important to use the survey results and case studies from the focus groups to guide project development and determine action steps. There is no one, universal right answer. Following are several recommendations for successful school transformation:

- focus on the positive; focus on improving respect, not diminishing disrespect;
- create a collaborative atmosphere with all stakeholders;
- listen to students;
- develop a few obtainable goals for social climate change;
- evaluate what the school is currently doing related to this goal;
- brainstorm new ideas related to this goal; and
- create a Respect Continuum with small, medium, and large projects undertaken in the areas of improving relationships, engaged learning, personalization, and empowerment.

For example, a small goal under Relationships might be for a classroom to include more activities to introduce students to peers. Under Engaged Learning, a

medium project idea might be for students and teachers to take on a service learning project in the community. Under Personalization, a large project might be to help students increase understanding of issues of diversity, acceptance, tolerance, and respect through bibliotherapy, class discussions, clearly stated positive classroom rules and expectations, development of a courtesy and manners curriculum, peer tutoring support, social and emotional skills training, and cooperative learning experiences. Under Empowerment, a medium project might be to have students facilitate a focus group to problem-solve how respect could be improved in their classroom, develop a plan for implementation, evaluate effectiveness, and make changes if necessary.

School Climate Improvement and Bullying

To improve school climate related to bullying, first, students must be assessed about whether they know what bullying is in all its forms. Students and faculty need to use surveys and focus groups to determine when, where, and what type of bullying is taking place in classrooms and in the school. Students must be taught new positive social skills to prevent bullying, such as anger control, relaxation, problem solving, conflict resolution, and social skills training. Bullies need to be identified and assisted with counseling and a positive behavior supports approach to teach new behaviors that replace the misguided, dysfunctional goals of their bullying. So, helping the bully find outlets to demonstrate power in a positive manner might be a good start, as would teaching students the *No, Go, Tell* responses to bullying along with assertiveness. Teachers can be taught that they must respond directly to *all* forms of bullying and not simply report bullying, since research indicates that nothing usually happens when reports are made without follow-up. Teach bystanders that they can report bullying confidentially and they will be protected from retribution from the bully. Teach administrators and parents to work collaboratively and hold parent workshops about the parent role in reducing bullying.

Conclusion

Positive school climate is the foundation for school safety, student motivation to attend school, and for academic achievement. Thus, it is not peripheral to educating students. That is the lesson learned from both close observation and research. It is also a lesson that defines educators' primary responsibility. Through their efforts, every teacher, administrator, and parent can play a role in developing and maintaining a positive school climate.

Robert G. Harrington

See also Bullying and Bullying Prevention; Caring Approaches; Character Education; Class Meetings; Climate: School and Classroom; Conflict Management; Cooperation and Competition; Ecological Approaches; Just Community; Respect; Schoolwide Positive Behavior Supports; Warmth and Classroom Management

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SCHOOL DISCIPLINE

School discipline has come to refer to any of the policies, procedures, or strategies used to build and maintain a climate of safety and learning in schools, so that teaching and learning can be maximized. There is no question that schools have a right and indeed a responsibility to use all effective means needed to maintain a safe and disciplined learning environment. Controversy around school discipline, however, centers around *how* schools can achieve that goal.

In the 1980s and 1990s, many schools adopted disciplinary philosophies aligned with a *zero tolerance* approach, mandating severe consequences regardless of the seriousness or the context of the behavior. While the Congress legislated a national policy of zero tolerance for weapons in schools through a mandatory calendar year expulsion for possession of firearms (Gun Free Schools Act, 1994), many school districts expanded zero tolerance considerably beyond federal law, suspending and expelling students for drug and alcohol abuse, threats, fighting, and even failure to complete homework.

Throughout this period, school discipline came to be equated with harsher penalties, most often out-of-school

suspension, for a wide variety of infractions, assuming that removing students who engage in disruptive behavior would deter others from disruption and hence create an improved climate for those students who remain. As a result, media accounts have described hundreds of cases in which students have been suspended or expelled for what appear to be relatively trivial infractions, including possession of squirt guns or guns cut out of paper, paper clips, knives brought in a lunch box to cut meat, Midol pills for menstrual cramping, and organic cough drops.

However, as data evaluating zero tolerance, suspensions, and expulsions have begun to accumulate, the assumptions underlying the disciplinary philosophy dictating severe consequences for a wide range of infractions have increasingly come into question. Longitudinal studies have shown that, far from yielding an improved school climate, higher rates of suspension and expulsion are associated with poorer ratings of school climate, more time spent on disciplinary (vs. instructional) issues, and poorer academic outcomes, even when controlling for student demographics.

Further, exclusionary discipline has not been shown to improve student behavior and appears to be in and of itself a risk factor for a variety of negative school and life outcomes, including school disengagement, increased grade retention, school dropout, and increased involvement with the juvenile justice system. Such negative outcomes fall hardest on a number of groups that have been shown to be disproportionately represented in exclusionary school discipline, including African American, Native American, and, at the secondary level, Latino students, students with disabilities, and LGBT students.

Although poverty and differential rates of behavior among students of color are commonly cited as primary causes of disciplinary disparity, the evidence shows that race remains a potent predictor of suspension and expulsion even after controlling for poverty, and research has found that differential rates of disruption among African American students are in no way sufficient to account for wide disparities in school suspension and expulsion.

Recent Findings

Recent and emerging research, summarized by the national Discipline Disparities Research to Practice Collaborative (www.rtpcollaborative.indiana.edu), has yielded additional findings about school discipline practices:

School safety and preventive approaches to improving school climate are by no means mutually exclusive. A recent study in Chicago found that schools that built trusting and collaborative relationships between students, parents, and teachers were more likely to be rated safer, regardless of level of community poverty or violence.

Schools have the power to shift from punitive to positive discipline. Thousands of schools throughout the country suspend or expel less than 10 percent of their students, and research has begun to show that school characteristics, such as principals' beliefs about school discipline, affect rates of suspension and expulsion at least as much as student behavior or demographics.

There are more effective methods of discipline and violence prevention to manage children's behavior that can keep more students in school and reduce disparities in discipline. Schools that equip teachers with the skills to build positive relationships with diverse students and that resolve conflicts proactively have reduced suspension rates and discipline disparities.

Alternative Strategies and Interventions to Reduce the Use of Exclusionary Discipline

As concerns about the fairness and effectiveness of zero tolerance school discipline have mounted, pressure for change in disciplinary practices has increased at the federal, state, and local levels. On January 8, 2014, the Obama administration released Federal Guidance outlining a set of principles to replace exclusionary discipline with alternative disciplinary strategies and providing guidance on when disparities in school discipline could be construed as discrimination. A number of states, including Maryland, California, Texas, Ohio, Washington, and Connecticut, have made significant statewide changes to disciplinary policy. Finally, a number of major urban school districts, including Denver, Los Angeles, Oakland, and Baltimore, have begun to implement substantial changes in policy and, to some extent, practice. A discussion of some of the elements that appear to be central in these types of discipline reform follows.

Collection and Use of Data on Office Referrals, Suspensions, Expulsions, and School Arrests

While there are some federal regulations regarding data collection (e.g., in the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act), and some states collect and publicly report discipline data, the collection, reporting, and especially use of disciplinary data remain highly inconsistent. Data should be collected regularly, reported publicly, and used for decision making at the state, district, and school levels in order to (1) identify students who would benefit from further intervention and (2) use disaggregated data in order to monitor the fairness of school discipline for groups experiencing disparities in discipline.

Changes in School Code of Conduct

As noted, a number of large urban districts have begun to restructure their disciplinary codes in order

to make the use of out-of-school suspension a last resort. Typically, such revisions begin by emphasizing the responsibility of the district and schools to ensure a positive instructional climate through schoolwide interventions such as positive behavior supports or restorative practices. Such revisions may also implement a *graduated discipline* process, wherein consequences are matched with the seriousness of the offense. Serious incidents that truly threaten the safety of other students and staff continue to receive more severe consequences, but less serious behaviors are met with less severe responses, such as reprimands, restitution, counseling, parent contact, or behavioral contracts. In the Los Angeles Unified School District, for example, recent reform removed the infraction “willful defiance” from the list of suspendable offenses.

Schoolwide Strategies to Teach Students Alternatives to Conflict and Disruption

Many of the disruptive incidents that lead students to be suspended or expelled can be avoided by restructuring the disciplinary system, building relationships, or teaching students alternative behaviors or emotional self-regulation in order to avoid violence and disruption.

Building relationships. Restorative practices seek to repair the harm caused by conflict and disruption through communication between students, as well as with teachers, administrators, and parents. Other programs such as My Teaching Partner have successfully reduced suspension and expulsion and racial disparities in those outcomes, wherein teachers who are effective in developing relationships in diverse classrooms act as mentors to other teachers.

Restructuring school discipline systems. Systems such as positive behavioral interventions and supports (PBIS) use a team-based approach to restructure discipline practices, defining schoolwide expectations and using reward systems to teach those expectations. Schoolwide PBIS has been shown to reduce office disciplinary referrals and exclusionary discipline and improve school climate.

Building emotional and social skills. Social and emotional learning programs proactively teach students interpersonal and intrapersonal skills that they need to get along in school and in society. Investments in social and emotional learning programs have been found to be more effective than high-security measures in reducing behavioral incidents, reducing suspension rates in one urban school district by almost 60%.

Conclusion

In summary, school disciplinary methods shifted in the 1980s and 1990s toward more punitive and reactive

approaches, relying primarily upon exclusionary discipline to maintain school order and safety. An expanding knowledge base concerning the failure of that paradigm has led to a reassessment of that strategy and to the consideration of alternatives that appear to be capable of maintaining safe and orderly climates without excessive use of school removal. As policy changes reflecting this shift emerge at the federal, state, and local levels, the most important challenge may well be to provide local practitioners with sufficient training and resources in order to support them in successfully implementing more effective and equitable school disciplinary strategies.

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See also Detention; Discipline Codes of Conduct; Restraint and Seclusion Policy; Schoolwide Discipline Policies; Schoolwide Positive Behavior Supports; Suspension and Expulsion

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SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGISTS

School psychologists provide assessment, consultation, and mental health services to students and their families. They work with infants, children, adolescents, and families to promote positive outcomes in and out of school—by addressing academic, behavioral, and mental health concerns. They often work collaboratively with school personnel, families, community members, community organizations, and students to create safe and positive learning environments in which students can thrive academically, emotionally, and socially. In all their work, the effort is to bring science- and research-based practices to every aspect of supporting students, their learning, and their social and emotional development.

History of School Psychology

The field of school psychology has its roots in the child study movement around the turn of the twentieth century. At that time, Lightner Witmer set up the first assessment and consultation clinic devoted to helping those working in schools with children having learning and behavioral problems. Later on, psychologist, pediatrician, and high school teacher Arnold Gesell started his own clinic for assessing school-related problems. He was the first well-known educator-clinician to call himself a school psychologist, and today, the Gesell Institute is still a leader in the field. In 1945, the American Psychological Association (APA) established Division 16 devoted to school psychology.

By the early 1950s, there were only about 1,000 school psychologists in the country—in large part because there was confusion about titles, roles, and training. In 1954, APA sponsored the Thayer conference, which established a clear definition of a school psychologist as having expertise in assessment and learning. While it was agreed that graduate training would be required for anyone assuming the title of school psychologist, there was disagreement over the nature and length of that training and whether a PhD should be required.

This disagreement eventually led to the establishment in 1969 of a new professional organization, the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP). Over the years, NASP has advocated for a specialist-level degree as the entry level to the field. The specialist degree consists of 3 years of full-time graduate-level training, including an academic year of full-time, supervised internship. NASP supports both specialist-level and doctoral-level programs and has been a strong advocate for the view that those graduating from a specialist-level school psychology program are well prepared to practice in schools. School psychologists are typically licensed through state departments of education, which recognize both specialist and doctoral level training.

In 1975, the introduction of Public Law 94-142: Education for All Handicapped Children Act, later called the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), led to a doubling of the number of school psychologists, from about 5,000 to 10,000. School psychologists secured their identity as central members of the special education team, those who are uniquely positioned to complete psychological evaluations for special education and to assist schools in meeting the legal requirements of IDEA.

Over the next 40 years, the field of school psychology continued to grow and serve students and families in educational settings. Currently, it is estimated that there are over 38,000 practicing school psychologists in the United States, and the role of school psychologist

has evolved to include important services beyond assessment and planning for students with special needs.

Special Education and the Discrepancy Model

From the field's beginning, school psychologists have traditionally worked within a *refer-test-place* and discrepancy model. The model was especially relevant for work to determine eligibility for children under IDEA regulations. Using this model, students are identified by a multidisciplinary team and referred to the school psychologist for norm-referenced testing. Typically, these assessments include intelligence tests as well as other measures of academic achievement. Within this model and for the purpose of identifying learning disabilities, school psychologists are required to show a discrepancy between a student's cognitive ability as measured by norm-referenced tests and academic performance, and so, in order for this model to function, there has to be a *wait to fail* mentality, because students need to have fallen significantly behind before they can be referred for testing. If testing leads to the conclusion that a student has a learning disability or some other serious impediment to learning, the student is typically placed in a more restrictive setting, with special accommodations and academic supports.

Multi-Tiered Systems of Support

More recently, leading school psychologists have increasingly advocated for the delivery of services within a Multi-Tiered Systems of Support (MTSS)—formally known as Response to Intervention (RTI). As the educational system moves toward a continuum of behavioral, social-emotional, and academic supports provided to students within an MTSS model, school psychologists have provided additional services in schools. The MTSS model is designed to keep students from being unnecessarily labeled for special education services and to assist school personnel with early intervention, when behavioral, academic, and social-emotional problems first become apparent and are the most treatable.

The MTSS model is divided into three tiers of implementation based on need: universal or tier 1 (practices for all students), secondary or tier 2 (group-level or supplemental practices for small groups of students), and tertiary or tier 3 (intensive individualized services). As students move up the tiers, interventions become more intensive and more frequent. Ideally students are moved in and out of tiers, depending on the needs as assessed by school psychologists and a multidisciplinary team.

A 2010 survey of practicing school psychologists found that among those surveyed, the vast majority had received formal (i.e., graduate) or informal (i.e., inservice or workshops) training on the design and implementation of MTSS. With a background in this type of instructional support, school psychologists have taken on leadership roles in the design, implementation, and evaluation of their schools' MTSS.

Mental Health

Schools have become a de facto provider of mental health services to students because students spend such a large part of their time in schools. Increasingly and because school psychologists have an understanding of academics, mental health, and their interactions, school psychologists are playing a central role in providing school-based mental health services.

One such mental health service is that of selecting and using screeners to help identify students who may potentially benefit from support from a school-based mental health professional. Mental health screeners can be administered to the entire school population or to a targeted group of students. Similar to academic benchmarking, mental health screeners give school-based mental health professionals a better idea of the needs of the students. Through the use of these screeners, school psychologists can take a proactive approach to mental health in schools.

Additionally, school psychologists are now trained in individual and group counseling. A common practice within schools is to provide counseling groups. These groups can be thought of as mental health supports at the secondary or tertiary levels, depending on the frequency and intensity of the counseling. School psychologists may also take on students for individual counseling.

Conclusion

School psychologists receive training in both education and psychology, making them uniquely qualified to work within schools where academics and mental health are continuously interconnected. While the role of a school psychologist may vary according to the needs of the specific population of students, school psychologists play important roles within the special education system and within the multitiered systems of academic and mental health supports found in schools.

Elizabeth Engler and Pamela Fenning

See also Assessment of Students; Behavior Support Plans; Functional Behavioral Assessment; Individualized Education

Programs; Individuals with Disabilities Education Act; Screening and Classroom Management; Special Education Laws

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SCHOOL RESTRUCTURING

As written into the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2001, the term *school restructuring* referred to accountability mandates that required schools to comprehensively reshape their staff, design, or governance if student achievement on standardized tests was not adequate for 5 or more consecutive years. Because one of NCLB's goals was for 100% of students to score proficient on reading/language arts and mathematics assessments by 2014, it used benchmark scores based on standardized test data to analyze student progress toward meeting that goal. In return for federal education funding, each state was required to create its own academic standards, an equitable assessment system for applying its standards, and a way to determine its assessments' benchmark scores for proficiency. Schools that met their state's annual student achievement benchmark scores were rewarded and/or left untouched by NCLB's accountability policies. However, for schools not meeting those benchmark scores, NCLB mandated specific school reforms.

NCLB's Path to Restructuring

For schools that did not post proficient student achievement for 2 years, NCLB required local educational agencies to assist them with analyzing test data, communicating with students' families, offering quality professional development to school staff, and providing financial guidance. Additionally, low-performing schools

had to engage in *school improvements* and *corrective actions*, two tiers of mandated school reforms. Together, school improvements and corrective actions focused on improving the quality of teaching and curriculum taught and the amount of instruction given to students while ensuring at least 10% of a school's budget was spent on professional development for teachers and administrators. If schools did not post proficient student achievement after implementing these reforms for 4 years, they were required to restructure.

Two sources informed NCLB's school restructuring strategies. First, educational policymakers adopted business techniques used to turn around failing businesses, such as replacing corporate leaders, releasing underperforming employees, and reorganizing structural governance. Second, NCLB considered the experiences school districts from across the nation had with attempting to turn around low-performing schools from the 1970s through the 1990s. From these two sources, NCLB supported five restructuring models that included the following:

Chartering: Closing a traditional public school and reopening it as a conversion charter school.

Turnaround: Releasing teachers, administrators, and support staff who were viewed as ineffective and hiring their replacements thought to be more effective.

Contracting: Hiring an educational management organization (e.g., a local university) to operate the school.

State takeover: If allowed by state law, the local school district turns the day-to-day operations of the school over to the state department of education.

Other: Implement an alternative school restructuring strategy with the potential to significantly increase student achievement.

Of the five restructuring strategies, the majority of schools chose the *Other* option. In doing so, they hired turnaround specialists, used instructional coaches, and designed new curriculum, all as part of their restructuring. Because state proficiency standards on standardized tests typically increased annually to meet the 2014 goal for student achievement and because NCLB required 2 years of proficient test scores to be released from mandated restructuring, few schools posted the necessary student achievement to be released from restructuring. As a result, the number of schools NCLB required to restructure increased significantly.

School Restructuring Following the NCLB

In 2010, President Obama and Secretary of Education, Arne Duncan, released their *Blueprint for Education*

Reform (BER) and addressed school restructuring with their Race-to-the-Top program with its accountability waivers from some of NCLB's test-based accountability policies. In the BER, President Obama and Secretary Duncan renamed NCLB's *Chartering* model to *Restart* model, kept its *Turnaround* model, eliminated its *Contract*, *Other*, and *State Takeover* models, and created *School Closure* and *Transformation* options.

The school closure option permitted states to shut down historically low-performing schools and transfer students to higher-performing schools in the same district. The *Transformation* option required installing a new principal in the restructured school, using research-based teaching strategies, creating a new school governance structure, and increasing the amount of instructional time. Finally, whereas NCLB required all schools to meet annually increasing test proficiency standards or else engage school reforms, the BER proposed to require only the bottom 10% of schools in a state to engage in school improvement reforms, with the lowest 5% having to restructure.

Critiques of School Restructuring

Because federal school restructuring policies have been in place since 2001, there has been time for multiple critiques of it to be voiced. First, a one-size-fits-all approach to school restructuring that guarantees success does not exist. Each school is unique, and tailoring specific reforms to schools and implementing them in an organized, meaningful fashion is crucial for successful restructuring. By requiring schools to select and implement one overarching, prescribed strategy, the odds that the school will successfully restructure are reduced.

Second, national test score data show that affluent, suburban schools are significantly less likely to be affected by school restructuring policies than are low-income rural and urban schools. Because the racial and socioeconomic demographics of students who attend restructured schools is significantly different, school restructuring is causing larger achievement gaps instead of closing them, resulting in higher-quality teachers choosing to work where they will not be affected by school restructuring policies.

Third, restructuring focuses on instructional techniques, parental involvement, school governance, and budgetary concerns; it does not explicitly address teachers' classroom management skills or creating positive learning environments. For teachers to use the research-based instructional strategies, they must have control over their classrooms and be supported by a unified, schoolwide discipline plan. However, these issues go unaddressed by current restructuring models.

Fourth, because school restructuring policies are directly linked to student test scores, teachers are

narrowing their curriculum to the content that will likely be evaluated by standardized assessments. Therefore, teachers working in restructured schools are pressured to narrow their curriculums to tested knowledge, and students who score below proficient on assessments are potentially tracked into remedial courses.

Conclusion

There are no definitive school restructuring methods that ensure success. Each school is different, and using one set of overarching school restructuring strategies does not honor the diversity of schools and their individual needs. Furthermore, even when a school does successfully restructure, it typically uses smaller, less drastic strategies over a sustained period of time. Therefore, attempting to determine the reforms that enabled a school to successfully restructure is like trying to get the egg out of a baked cake. In all, using school restructuring policies to increase student achievement should be part of educational policies; however, strategies used to restructure need to be custom-fitted to each individual school.

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See also Assessment of Students; Assessment of Tests and Exams; Conditions for Learning; High-Stakes Testing; No Child Left Behind Act; Research-Based Strategies; Schoolwide Discipline Policies

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SCHOOL-BASED OCCUPATIONAL THERAPY

Occupational therapists (OTs) work to maximize a person's participation in whatever occupation that person is trying to perform. In schools, this means helping students access curriculum and be full members of classroom and school communities. If a child engages in

behaviors that prevent being fully engaged with the curriculum or classroom community, then OTs can often help because of their knowledge of how the body and brain work and their knowledge of how to analyze activities and tasks to determine what the demands are on a person.

OTs' work overlaps with and complements that of teachers': both OTs and teachers observe students in specific ways, and both work together to determine the causes of problems so as to come up with solutions. Furthermore, OTs and teachers share knowledge of positive behavioral interventions and supports, general behavioral techniques, social stories, and social-emotional learning. Other knowledge might be more occupational therapy-specific, such as assistive technology and sensory strategies. These more specific OT interventions can help with both behavior and classroom management.

Understanding the Body

OTs are trained in a particular understanding of the body and how it works, especially with respect to arousal levels and neuromuscular endurance and tone. If a student's body is not working correctly with respect to arousal level or neuromuscular endurance and tone, the student will have difficulty adjusting to the classroom.

Arousal Level and Sensory Stimulation Strategies

Sensory stimulation strategies are directed at modifying the amount of sensory input that a child receives from his or her environment. Precise sensory experiences influence the structure and neurochemistry of the brain. Such experiences can help students regain control over their bodies and be at a functional level of arousal, which will then hopefully decrease problematic behaviors. OTs can, therefore, design strategies that a student can use in class or that can be built into the culture and routine of the classroom.

A child seeking or avoiding sensory stimuli to an unusual degree might show this in disruptive behavior. For example, if a child is standing in line to walk to the library and is seeking proprioceptive stimuli to calm himself down, he might bump into other children to get the desired sensory input. Furthermore, regardless of how many times the child is told to stop bumping into people, until his need for sensory input is met, he will most likely continue his undesirable ways.

OTs can help such a child regain control over his body by having him get input in acceptable ways. The student could receive this input into his muscles and joints by moving heavy things around the classroom.

An OT might suggest that this student push in all the chairs in the classroom before transitioning or that he be the one to carry any materials to the next activity. These activities will give him the input he needs to calm himself down in socially appropriate and nonstigmatizing ways.

Sensory diets are individualized programs for children that are designed to regulate the amount of sensory input they receive in their bodies during the day. Sensory diets can be compared to nutritional diets, where one monitors how many calories go in and how many calories are burned in a day to maintain a certain weight. In a similar manner, a sensory diet helps to monitor how much sensory input a body receives compared to how taxing a day is for a child to maintain a certain arousal level. When a child is at her optimal arousal level, she will be better able to engage with curriculum. An OT's job when designing a sensory diet is, then, to observe the child and figure out her sensory needs, then design a program that will support those needs.

Depending on the child, the classroom, and the OT, a sensory diet might be set up in a few different ways. One might have a child take planned breaks at even intervals during the day. This might look something like: Every 45 minutes and for 4 minutes, Jack will jump on a trampoline in the back of the classroom. Another might have certain activities that are done in response to a signal from the student. For example, if Elliot hums and puts his hands on his ears, he is showing that he cannot handle the auditory stimuli in the room. When this happens, he can wear headphones.

Another way to conceptualize a sensory diet is to think of it in terms of a sensory bank. Engaging in daily activities is taxing and can require a certain number of sensory points. A person banks sensory points through sensory activities and then cashes out these points in order to participate in an activity that might be challenging. For example, if Emily has trouble sitting down for the 20 minutes of meeting, it might require 20 points from her bank to complete the activity. Before meeting, she might jump on the trampoline to add 15 points to her bank so that the net result of the meeting only taxes her 5 points, still with enough sensory points to allow her to function well in the classroom. Different children will respond to sensory diets uniquely, so it is up to the occupational therapist working with others to figure out how to best meet any particular child's needs within the context of the classroom.

OTs can also work with a teacher to influence the sensory systems of a whole class. Regardless of whether or not a person has a diagnosed sensory processing disorder, all have needs with regard to sensory processing. Sensory input affects everyone, and most people figure out their own strategies to stay functional within their environments. A person's tolerance or need for sensory

input can also be impacted by emotion and stress, so teaching children how to regulate their own systems can be helpful to their managing their emotions and managing stress. This can be done in structured ways, such as doing yoga movements.

One structured program becoming more and more popular is the Alert program. The Alert program works on teaching children aged 8–11 years to identify their energy level (referred to as an engine level) as being High, Low, or Just Right. The program teaches children that they can influence their energy levels and helps children identify which types of input make their energy go up and which types of input make their energy go down. Children are taught to recognize when their energy is not Just Right and then employ a strategy to help get themselves to Just Right. The program thus empowers students to help their own bodies work better. It is used with individual children as well as with groups, younger as well as older children, and with children with special needs, as well as those who are typically developing.

Finally, to meet children's sensory needs, OTs work with teachers to have objects or activities built into classroom plans and the classroom environment. For example, if a child is biting on classroom tools or shared materials, it will distract the class and ruin equipment. If this child chews on gum, or a rubber top attached to his pencil, or something tied to a necklace, it still allows him to receive the sensory input that he needs but in a more functional way. To receive deep-pressure input, another child might benefit from squeezing putty or other small objects, called fidgets. This child might have a piece of putty in his desk that he can access whenever he needs sensory input from squeezing. OTs working closely with teachers can design tool boxes for sensory input so that children have access to objects they need throughout the day.

Neuromuscular Endurance and Tone

OTs also assess students' neuromuscular endurance and tone because they greatly affect how students complete their activities. Neuromuscular endurance is the ability of a muscle or a group of muscles to sustain specific activity. If a student has low neuromuscular endurance, he or she might not be able to physically complete assigned tasks and instead might engage in behaviors that are undesirable or distracting to other students. By helping the student improve his or her neuromuscular endurance or by adapting the assigned task so that it requires less neuromuscular endurance, an OT can help a student to be more successful thereby preventing the occurrence of negative behaviors.

If the student is on an individualized education program (IEP) and receives OT services, a school-based OT might plan a treatment activity that increases

neuromuscular endurance in specific muscles. For example, if a student engages in disruptive behavior during writing tasks as a way to avoid writing because it is difficult as a result of her low neuromuscular endurance, an OT might work on stringing beads, playing with play dough or putty, or plan activities that involve weight-bearing on her hands. These would improve neuromuscular endurance in muscles used for writing.

An OT could also improve a student's neuromuscular endurance through proper positioning so that muscles can work at their optimal level. One seating solution is to use a chair with armrests, so that the child does not need to support the weight of her arms while doing work, and the effort can be used to complete the writing task.

Muscle tone is also an important body factor affecting performance in the classroom. Muscle tone refers to the muscle's readiness to fire in response to stimuli, and to the way the muscle resists being lengthened. If a child has tone that is low, he might look floppy or unengaged. It might take a lot of work for him to move and support his own body against gravity, as when he sits in a chair. If a child has tone that is high, he might look rigid or have trouble controlling fine motions. Because of low or high muscle tone, children struggle even before they are assigned a task.

There are a lot of ways OTs can help students overcome their natural tone, including seating and workspace arrangements, splints, different types of equipment, as well as teaching compensatory strategies. Seats with foot rests can help a child stabilize his core to overcome low tone and help him remain upright. A child with low tone might also sit in a cube chair for extra support. An OT can teach a child how to manipulate small objects without triggering a response dominated by tone, which might involve using specialized equipment or compensatory strategies.

Helping a child regain control over his or her body and working with the child to overcome bodily limitations in order to function more effectively—these are what OTs can offer a team.

Analyzing Tasks and Environments

OTs are trained to analyze the parts of a task, the requirements to perform those parts, and to figure out ways to adapt and grade tasks and subtasks so that they fit the skill level of the person trying to do the task. That is, through task analysis, an OT looks at a task and figures out the task demands while taking into consideration the physical, emotional, social, and cognitive demands placed on the child. This process is similar to how teachers adapt curriculum to meet the cognitive needs of the child: both disciplines are looking for that just-right challenge and fit.

OTs work to adjust the task so that the client can be successful while still learning and growing through engaging in the task. This can be done in either of two ways: through adapting the task or through grading it. Adapting a task involves changing it in some way so that the demands of the task are made more accessible to the client. Grading a task involves making a task easier or more difficult so that it is more aligned with where the client is currently. Take for example a student who is unable to sign into class because he is unable to write his name. Adapting the activity would be having him stamp his name in the space he is supposed to write. This eliminates the task of handwriting the student is unable to accomplish. Grading the activity would be having the student trace his name or just write his initials instead of his whole name. The task of handwriting is made easier so the student might be able to complete it. Both these methods help students to be more successful and engaged with work they are doing, which would help cut down on negative behaviors.

Teachers are experts at curriculum development and create activities to help students engage in the curriculum in interesting and thoughtful ways. An OT can work with the teacher to make these activities more accessible to students who might be having trouble and acting out because the activities are not accessible to them.

For example, one art teacher had an activity in mind, but a child with deficits in executive functioning and initiation had trouble doing a project starting with a blank page, even with prompts. The teacher worked with an OT and together they designed a parallel project that was based on creating a sculpture out of tangible objects—recycled materials—which the student could touch and hold for inspiration. This adaptation gave the student a more concrete starting point from which to complete the project. He successfully created a project that answered the same prompt as the other students, but his was made out of a different material that suited his learning style best.

OTs and Mental Health

OTs are also trained to work with children and youth with both acute and chronic psychological issues. Besides working with those with diagnosed mental illnesses, OTs also work with students on more general mental health issues, such as calming strategies and frustration tolerance, as well as social-emotional learning. OTs can be part of a team to implement mindfulness and advocacy curriculums that teach students how to identify their feelings and deal with them in productive and safe ways. OTs can teach calming strategies that are sensory or body-based, such as using squeeze

fidgets or breathing techniques, as well as cognitive-based strategies, such as mindfulness training. Working with children around these issues can greatly affect classroom behavior management and prove beneficial.

Conclusion

OTs bring a variety of skills to any classroom management team. In particular, OTs bring skills that help children regulate their bodies and help teachers accommodate children needing assigned tasks to be more manageable. In addition, OTs bring a variety of ways to help children participate fully in not only the academic life but also the social life of the classroom community.

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See also Self-Regulation and Sensory-Affective Co-Regulation; Self-Regulation to Solve Problems; Sensory Integration; Social and Emotional Learning

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SCHOOLWIDE DISCIPLINE POLICIES

Schoolwide discipline policies have historically been equated with punishment of students through detention, suspension, and expulsion, and through corporal punishment. This emphasis on reactive and punitive methods for discipline has persisted despite long-standing and consistent evidence documenting that these methods do not reduce undesirable or increase desirable behaviors. Furthermore, employing these methods has reaped unwanted collateral outcomes such as the disproportionate application of exclusionary discipline with children of color and with entry into the juvenile justice system. In general, exclusionary discipline practices, particularly suspension, result in loss of valuable instructional minutes for students who tend to have academic problems to begin with.

As a result of the evidence documenting the limitations and even damaging effects of relying on reactive-punitive methods, researchers and policymakers have been advocating for prevention-oriented approaches to schoolwide discipline, approaches that focus on avoiding discipline problems from happening in the first place, by specifying to everyone in a school population what is expected for students to be successful, and by directly teaching what is expected in terms of appropriate behavior for succeeding in school. This entry focuses on three major contemporary approaches to schoolwide discipline. All three are prevention-oriented approaches that teach behaviors needed for success in schools. These are (1) schoolwide positive behavior support (SWPBS), (2) restorative justice, and (3) social and emotional learning.

Schoolwide Positive Behavior Support

SWPBS is a multitiered system that is focused specifically on meeting the behavioral needs of students. Aligned with response to intervention models, SWPBS is a system of behavioral support that begins with universal (schoolwide) processes that involve everyone in the school community being explicitly taught behavior

expectations in multiple settings in a prevention-oriented manner, along with positive acknowledgment for engaging in the correct behavior, followed by more intensive supports being delivered as needed to those on a secondary (group) and/or tertiary (individual) basis. At the universal level, schoolwide expectations are defined across multiple locations (e.g., cafeteria, classroom, and hallway) and then are directly taught to students, typically through lesson plans.

In a typical school building, if 80% of students are meeting behavioral expectations, then it is generally assumed that the universal behavioral system is working and being implemented with fidelity. Data are used to determine those in the school community who require more supports beyond the universal/schoolwide level, and whether the additional supports are working to solve the problems. A well-researched example of secondary (group) intervention is the check in/check out system, which requires someone in the school to work with the students in establishing and evaluating behavioral goals through systematic and frequent check-ins throughout the day, often through using a point sheet that is tied to the universal expectations. For the students with the most intensive needs, individualized behavior support plans are established that may involve a functional analysis of behavior, and wraparound plans that incorporate multiple supports needed in the child's life beyond the school setting (e.g., family supports, mental health).

Office discipline referrals (ODRs), which are written records of behavioral infractions that most schools retain, are the most common sources of data used to determine which tier of support students should receive and if SWPBS is working to address the behavioral needs of those in the building at any tier of support. The more intensive level of support requires more frequent and comprehensive data collection.

Increasingly, evaluations of SWPBS are more experimental in nature and, when implemented with fidelity, are associated with reductions in ODRs and improved school climate. SWPBS has been implemented more frequently in elementary and middle school settings, with more examples emerging at the high school-level. SWPBS is yet to demonstrate a documented impact on reducing disproportionality in exclusionary discipline among minority students. However, researchers are increasingly concentrating their efforts on conceptualizing culturally responsive SWPBS practices and modifying SWPBS efforts to impact the long-standing issue of concerns about the equity of school discipline.

Restorative Justice

Restorative justice (RJ) is a model with origins in the criminal justice system and a philosophy that prevention

of and response to behavioral concerns should focus on repairing damage done to personal relationships rather than punishing an offender or rule breaker. In recent years, RJ has been recommended for use in schools to address discipline concerns rather than typical practices that rely on exclusionary and punitive methods. RJ does not condone the behavior or wrongdoing, but focuses on restitution and making amends. RJ tries to counter the typical discipline practices in schools that concentrate on punishing an individual student via suspension or expulsion for engaging in offending behavior.

RJ practices focus on restoring personal relationships through social exchanges, such as community meetings and peace circles for all of those impacted by a situation where harm has occurred. Active listening, mediation, and problem-solving skills are used to repair the harm done to relationships and set a plan for rectifying the situation. The behavior of the person engaged in the wrongdoing is not condoned. Rather, all of those involved in the situation, including the perpetrator, are called to confer about the problem and take action to make things right. Facilitators receive training in collaboration and problem solving to engage in mediation (involving two parties), conferencing (involving multiple parties), as well as peer juries that incorporate students who serve as jurors to hear school-related issues. Schoolwide prevention-oriented practices are also incorporated into the effort along a continuum with a focus on instituting a positive school climate, and on building acceptance and common understanding of the values within the school community. The universal systemwide practices are viewed as necessary for implementation success and sustainability.

RJ practices have a philosophical bent that has the potential for moving school discipline away from the punitive practices that are so commonly used to ones that have the potential to focus more on remediation and restoring relationships. RJ has been implemented in multiple international juvenile justice and school contexts, inclusive of Australia, New Zealand, England, Canada, and the United States. Although RJ is widely implemented, experimental controlled studies documenting its efficacy are lacking. However, case study research and nonexperimental studies show promise in the potential of RJ to address school discipline issues in a nonexclusionary way. On the international front, an evaluation of RJ in 20 secondary and 6 primary UK schools implementing RJ was conducted. The restorative practices included active listening, restorative inquiry, circle time, mediation, and peer mediation. Student victimization surveys (e.g., bullying, feelings of safety), staff surveys about student classroom disruptions and behavior, and interviews with key stakeholders, such as head teachers, counselors, police officers, and support

staff, were completed. Comparison schools were incorporated into the study design but not matched experimentally, and data from multiple sources were dropped for various reasons.

Despite the methodological challenges of the study conducted by the Youth Justice Board for England and Wales (2004), some promising findings emerged. The vast majority of students surveyed were satisfied with RJ outcomes and felt they were fair. Further, staff in schools implementing RJ reported improved student behavior and believed that less instructional time was lost when comparing baseline to postimplementation survey data. Overall, the total sample of schools implementing RJ did not differ from comparison schools' baseline to posttest in student-reported victimization or attitudes toward school behavior/discipline practices. However, there were statistically significant changes pre- to posttest for a subset of RJ implementation schools that were one of the following: either secondary schools in the study or those that reported a longer amount of time in RJ implementation. The statistically significant changes for the subset of schools were reported reductions in racist name calling, bullying being perceived as a less serious issue, and improved beliefs about schools doing a good job in handling bullying.

Within the United States, RJ has been implemented in a number of states, including Colorado, Illinois, and Minnesota. It has had legislative support and been widely adopted in Minnesota where research findings indicated that out-of-school suspensions decreased substantially in the middle school. One of the elementary schools studied experienced decreases in behavioral referrals for physical aggression, out-of-school suspensions, in-school suspensions, and increased attendance. Another elementary school studied reported an increase in in-school suspensions (and classroom removal), accompanied by a decrease in out-of-school suspensions.

The international and U.S. evaluations are examples of emerging research related to the evaluation of RJ practices. Both evaluations reveal promising findings, and schools with better outcomes seem to have the advantage of schoolwide policies that are aligned and not counter to RJ practices and a longer amount of implementation time before final evaluation. Additional examples of emerging outcome studies are accessible on the website of the Prison Fellowship International Center for Justice and Reconciliation.

Social-Emotional Learning

The integration of social-emotional learning (SEL) on a universal (schoolwide) and/or classroom basis is advocated as a means of teaching social behaviors and improving the academics and behavior of students,

including that associated with schoolwide discipline, such as disruptive behavior. Longitudinal studies document the benefits of social-emotional instruction and social skills development, not only in promoting positive social behavior in future grades but also in fostering academic achievement. There is evidence that academic achievement and antisocial behavior do not stand alone as predictors of future academic achievement, and that prosocial behavior in early elementary school serves as a social predictor for strong academic outcomes 5 years later.

Defining the features of SEL has been a focus of attention in the field of education for many years. Arguably, the research group Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL) has had the greatest impact on identifying what is meant by the term SEL and locating programs that teach such skills in an effective manner with documented results, such as improved academic outcomes, strong social functioning, and improved emotional control. CASEL has identified five categories of social and emotional skills deemed important for positive student outcomes: (1) self-awareness, (2) self-management, (3) social awareness, (4) relationship skills, and (5) responsible decision making.

One of the most comprehensive evaluations of SEL programs was a meta-analysis of over 200 schoolwide school-based programs that incorporated a comparison group and had enough information in the study so that an effect size of implementation efforts could be evaluated. Joseph Durlak and his colleagues found that SEL programs were effective in teaching the designated SEL competencies and resulted in positive student outcomes that included improved academic functioning, demonstration of more proactive behavior, and reduced conduct problems at posttest, with significant effects remaining, although diminished, at a 6-month follow-up for the programs that collected data.

For schools that are interested in locating and implementing SEL programs on a universal basis, CASEL has produced two widely disseminated guides that feature SEL schoolwide- and/or classroom-based programs that have documented behavioral, academic, or social-emotional outcomes. The first document was produced in 2003 and the second version more recently in 2013. The 2013 CASEL guide required a more rigorous standard, namely, that programs had positive student outcomes for inclusion as an endorsed program, such as the use of a comparison group as part of the evaluation and the presence of at least one controlled study that had clear student behavioral or academic benefits. The 2013 guidebook includes a description of 23 SEL programs for grades spanning from preschool to high school. A description of each program is described in tables that provide information about the grade level intended for

the program, evidence of outcomes, and measures used to document those outcomes. Access to these guides and further information about the work of the group is available on the CASEL website.

Conclusion

Researchers, educators, and policymakers are increasingly advocating for an approach to school discipline that incorporates prevention-oriented approaches that are nonpunitive in nature. The disciplinary practice of exclusion through suspension and expulsion, frequently used for many years, is being questioned for its utility and equity. Contemporary models of school discipline are increasingly focused on the direct teaching of behavior and the incorporation of what is expected of students rather than a focus on punishment after problems arise. It is anticipated that through continuing research an even more significant body of evidence will be accumulated as part of the trend toward moving away from punishment and toward the direct teaching of social behaviors in schoolwide discipline programs.

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See also Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning; Discipline, School and Classroom; Discipline Codes of Conduct; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; Preventing Antisocial Behavior at the Point of School Entry; Schoolwide Positive Behavior Supports; Suspension and Expulsion

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SCHOOLWIDE POSITIVE BEHAVIOR SUPPORTS

The term *schoolwide positive behavior supports* (SWPBS) is used to describe efforts by schools to improve their school and classroom disciplinary climates, in particular to make them more positive and preventive and less punitive and reactive. In this entry, we define SWPBS, summarize its features, describe what it looks like, and detail how it is implemented.

Definition and Features

In 1997, the National Technical Assistance Center on Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports developed an implementation framework that focused on maximizing academic and behavioral outcomes for all students, by improving data-based decision making, adopting evidence-based behavioral practices, and

implementing with fidelity those data systems and behavioral practices. This framework was based on the person-centered values and behaviorally based science referred to as *positive behavior support*. Because of the Center's focus on classrooms and schools, the approach was termed schoolwide positive behavior supports and defined as an implementation framework designed to enhance academic and behavior outcomes for all students by organizing the adoption and use of evidence-based behavioral interventions into a tiered or layered continuum of supports.

As a framework, SWPBS represents the application of the response-to-intervention (RtI) logic (also referenced as multitiered systems of support) that is commonly used with academic content areas, for example, early literacy. As such, SWPBS shares the same features that delineate RtI:

- (a) universal screening: regular (e.g., quarterly, semester) review of all students' achievement and progress on long-term learning expectations;
- (b) continuous progress monitoring: frequent (e.g., weekly, monthly) monitoring and analysis of student progress on short-term learning objectives;
- (c) continuum of support: integrated layering of practices from universal (all students) to targeted (small group) to intensive (individual student);
- (d) evidence-based practices: empirically and experimentally validated and verified interventions, programs, and strategies;
- (e) data-based decision making: quantifiable information collected to assess student progress, responsiveness to intervention, and goal attainment;
- (f) implementation fidelity: systems for assessing and ensuring high accuracy and fluency of intervention or practice use;
- (g) leadership teaming: collective decision-making authority and coordination (e.g., grade-level teams, student support, schoolwide leadership) to guide implementation; and
- (h) content expertise: local (classroom, school, district) personnel with high implementation fluency.

What Does SWPBS Look Like?

Visitors often characterize efficiently and effectively implementing SWPBS schools as having positive classroom and school climates, where respect, responsibility, and safety are emphasized. These social climates or

cultures support academic success, are achieved through implementation of a number of effective behavioral practices, and organized in a layered continuum from schoolwide to small group to individual supports.

Classroom and Schoolwide

In SWPBS schools, all students and staff are involved in selecting, developing, teaching, and recognizing three to five social behavior expectations (values, beliefs, character traits) that are meaningful to the local school and community, for example, "Respect Self, Others, and Environment"; "Safety, Responsibility, and Respect"; and "Respect, Responsibility, and Relationships." Based on these expectations, students and staff develop lesson plans that specify and teach behavior examples for typical school settings (e.g., lunchroom, sporting events, classroom, assemblies, dances). Throughout the school year, frequent and regular opportunities are scheduled for students and staff to practice these social skills.

During each school day, staff members monitor student activities and formally acknowledge and recognize students for their displays of expected behaviors. These acknowledgments might consist of verbal praise, small tokens of appreciation, or other forms of socially and developmentally appropriate recognition; however, in all instances, the specific behavior, broader expectation, and context or setting are named and emphasized (e.g., "Jorge, thank you for letting me know the work was difficult for you by raising your hand . . . very responsible!" "All of you have done a great job of helping out in the afterschool program. You have been so responsible").

Staff members make extra efforts to monitor students who have the most difficulty with behavior success and frequently look for and catch them displaying expected behavior. The goal in SWPBS schools is for students to experience many more positive acknowledgments than negative contacts from staff and other students.

Small Group

If staff members effectively teach and recognize schoolwide expectations, most students will be responsive, and a generally positive school climate will be established. However, some students may need additional positive behavior support to be successful, which can be provided in the form of small group-oriented strategies (e.g., targeted social skills group, check in/check out, small group reteaching, behavior boosters). In general, these small group strategies share a number of features: (1) explicit reteaching of schoolwide behavioral expectations, (2) increased positive prompting of student use of these expectations, (3) frequently scheduled opportunities

for feedback on behavior performance, (4) increased adult active supervision, (5) more frequent school-home communications, and (6) more instruction and practice on self-management skills.

Individual Student

In most situations, a few students have behavior challenges that require more intensive supports than those provided by schoolwide and small group strategies and practices. Students who present the most challenging problem or deficit behaviors require behavior support that is highly individualized, which includes (1) functional behavioral assessment to identify what triggers and maintains occurrences of problem behavior; (2) collection of data that specify under what conditions problem and appropriate behavior are most and least likely to be observed; (3) specification of more appropriate replacement behaviors that consider what is maintaining problem behaviors; (4) an individualized behavior intervention plan that specifies antecedent, instructional, and consequence strategies that are based on information collected from a functional behavioral assessment; and (5) a detailed plan for implementing the behavior intervention plan (e.g., schedule, scripts, fidelity checks, data collection). In these situations, highly trained behavior expertise and a team-based approach are required.

How Is SWPBS Implemented?

Although the general features and practices of the SWPBS framework are similar across all schools, specific implementation and outcomes are reflective of the local culture presented by individual or groups of students, families, school staff, and nearby neighborhoods, and are achieved by establishing school leadership teams that have (1) representation by members of the local community and culture, (2) coaching and guidance from school and district facilitators, (3) active leadership participation, (4) local data to guide their decision making, and (5) continuous professional development and support to ensure high-fidelity implementation.

The process begins when school leaders and members of the leadership team collect, analyze, and present their school's discipline and behavior-related data (e.g., attendance, suspensions, office discipline referrals, referrals for specialized services) to school staff for agreements about the status of school climate and the need to move forward. This agreement includes a commitment by the school administrator to actively participate in and facilitate the implementation process and by district leadership to support the school's professional development priority and plan. The use of local SWPBS training

is preferred because it reflects the community and can be more responsive; however, external training resources may need to be identified if lacking internally in the district, region, or state.

Professional development follows a typical implementation plan from exploration, installation and initial implementation, full implementation, and sustainability and adaptation, which is led by school leadership teams and supported by local coaching and facilitation. For SWPBS, 1.5 to 2 years of intensive professional development are required to establish classroom and schoolwide practices, and depending on the availability of intensive behavior expertise, 2–4 years are needed to establish small group and individual positive behavior support practices.

SWPBS implementation can be efficient if school leadership conducts a systematic review of existing behavior-related initiatives and programs with the goal of eliminating ineffective efforts, combining programs that have similar outcome expectations, and/or replacing or adapting existing practices with more effective, efficient, and relevant ones. Data on student progress and intervention implementation fidelity are central to the success of this program review and enhancement.

Concluding Remarks

As the SWPBS continuum of practices and systems is being implemented, the work of the leadership team is shaped by a number of simple guiding principles: (1) invest in doing the smallest number of practices that have the highest likelihood of working, (2) continually trim implementation resources so that attention can be redirected toward new or other need areas, (3) give priority to empirically supported practices, (4) move to full implementation when at least 80% of the expected implementers are prepared and motivated to implement, and (5) evaluate student progress in the context of implementation accuracy and fluency. Following these principles better ensures that SWPBS will make a significant difference and help establish both the supports students need and the most desired overall school climate for learning.

George Sugai and Brandi Simonsen

See also Application of Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports to Schoolwide and Classroom Settings; Behavior Support Plans; Caring Approaches; Climate: School and Classroom; Responsive Classroom Approach; Tiered Assignments

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SCREENING AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Behavior screening tools are psychometrically sound and feasible instruments used to provide an early warning system for students who may currently have or develop persistent behavioral difficulties. Behavior screenings can be used to assess a range of behaviors, including externalizing behavior patterns such as aggression, noncompliance, and other undercontrolled behaviors, as well as internalizing behavior patterns such as being painfully shy, socially withdrawn, anxious, sad, and other overcontrolled behaviors.

Screening tools serve several purposes. They (1) allow every student to be considered for additional supports and instruction at regular intervals during the school year, and they provide opportunity for school personnel to intervene with students at risk at the earliest possible juncture; (2) assess the level of risk in school settings (e.g., district, school, grade level, classroom)

offering an opportunity for focusing available resources and professional development efforts; and (3) monitor levels of behavioral risk over time in response to prevention and intervention efforts. Specifically, behavior screening tools offer data facilitating prevention efforts within the context of multitiered systems of support to determine which students may require instruction and supports beyond the primary program (e.g., tier 1, for all students) and specific information for primary prevention improvements.

Teachers are often quite proficient at, and have multiple choices for, assessing and monitoring students' academic performance and progress (e.g., curriculum-based measures). Yet, teachers often have less experience with behavior screening tools and consequently conduct behavior screenings less often than academic screenings.

Behavior screening tools are similar to academic screening tools in that they offer a mechanism for benchmarking students' performance three times per year (i.e., Fall, Winter, and Spring). In contrast to academic screening tools, behavior screening tools do not require student time to complete. Teachers complete standardized tools ranking and/or rating students to determine if students' behaviors exceed normative criteria placing them at risk for having or developing academic, behavioral, and social difficulties. In other words, they are scored to determine if students have more-than-average externalizing or internalizing behaviors. Another difference between academic and behavioral screening tools is the timing of the Fall administration. Whereas academic screening tools can be completed as soon as students begin the school year, Fall behavior screening tools are completed between 4 and 8 weeks after the onset of the school year to allow teachers time to become familiar with students' behavior patterns.

The information from behavior screening tools is used in conjunction with academic screening tools as well as other data collected as part of regular school practice (e.g., office discipline referral data, attendance, referrals for other supports) in a few ways.

Kathleen Lane, Holly Menzies, Wendy Oakes, and Jemma Kalberg explain how this information can be used to make decisions as to which students need additional supports (e.g., tier 2 or low-intensity supports for students with common concerns, and tier 3 or more intensive, individualized supports for students with more intensive needs). School site teams begin by developing intervention grids that identify available supports for students beyond primary instruction with data-based entry criteria, procedures for monitoring progress, and exit criteria. School teams then use student data to determine the most appropriate available supports for students.

For example, if a student is identified as falling below benchmark in reading and as being in a high-risk

category behaviorally, he or she might need a tier 2 support such as a small reading group to improve reading comprehension skills and a behavioral support such as a self-monitoring program or a behavioral contract to help promote participation in the reading group. Or the student might participate in a behavioral support such as check in/check out if positive attention from adults is reinforcing for that student.

Second, teachers can examine overall student performance in their classrooms to determine how students are progressing academically, behaviorally, and socially. This information can be used to inform their instruction. For example, if 40% of a teacher's students are scoring in the moderate risk category in terms of behavior challenges, the teacher might need to modify his or her overall behavior management strategies by increasing students' opportunities to respond during instruction, increasing his or her use of behavior-specific praise, and incorporating choice into instruction (e.g., giving student a range of ways to show what they know when doing assignments).

Third, behavioral screening data can also be used to determine how the overall student body is performing behaviorally (e.g., proportion of students performing in the low, moderate, and high risk for behavior challenges). This information can be used to determine how performance (e.g., behavioral risk) is shifting over time within school settings.

A Look at Behavior Screening Tools Available for Use

Screening measures are available to meet the needs and resources of all interested school site leadership teams. Brief descriptions are provided next for five measures with sufficient psychometric rigor, that is, those that measure the intended construct (validity) and that produce results consistently if completed by different raters (interrater reliability) and across time (test-retest reliability), that are feasible (appropriate cost and teacher time), and that inform school-based intervention efforts (are applicable to the context).

Some screening measures are available commercially, and others are free access. All can be used to determine system- and student-level risk; two are part of a family of products that provides direct links to specific intervention and instruction; others are used to link students with supports through school-developed intervention grids as described in the previous section.

Systematic Screener for Behavior Disorders

The Systematic Screening for Behavior Disorders (SSBD) is a behavior screening tool for use at the elementary level. Hill Walker and Herb Severson developed

this tool for early detection of students with externalizing and internalizing behavioral risk. It is commercially available for a minimal one-time cost and reproducible thereafter. Teachers can screen a class of 25 students in about 45 minutes.

The SSBD is a multiple gating system. Teacher nomination procedures are used in stage 1. In stage 2, teachers complete additional measures on the top three students of concern in each dimension (i.e., internalizing and externalizing). Cut scores are provided for boys, girls, and combined to determine those students exceeding normative criteria, thus indicating consideration is needed for further interventions and supports. Stage 3 is direct observation of student behavior in two settings: free play and classroom instructional settings. Typically, stages 1 and 2 are used for screening purposes. The authors, along with Edward Feil, developed a downward extension of the SSBD, Early Screening Project (ESP), for preschool students (aged 3–5 years) with similar design and procedures.

Student Risk Screening Scale

The Student Risk Screening Scale (SRSS) was developed by Thomas Drummond to detect elementary-age students with antisocial behavior patterns. Since then, extensive work has been done to establish rigor for the use of SRSS for students through high school.

The SRSS is a free-access measure that school teams construct in a spreadsheet. Teachers rate each student in their class on seven items representing the most salient characteristics of antisocial behavior using a 4-point Likert-type scale ranging from *Never* to *Frequently*, taking about 15 minutes to rate a class of 25 students. Accuracy of items and scale are essential when using this measure; neither may be changed. Cut scores are provided for total scores for three risk categories: high risk, moderate risk, and low risk. There is now an adapted version, the SRSS—Internalizing and Externalizing, also available for use in detecting elementary-age students with internalizing behaviors. See Further Readings for resources providing details on this measure.

Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire

The Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire, developed by Robert Goodman, is a free-access tool available online. This screening measure provides an overall risk score as well as subscale scores, including a prosocial scale. Preschool and school-age versions are available and include multiple informant instruments: teachers, parents, and student self-report. The measure is currently available in 69 languages. There are 25 items rated on a 3-point scale *Not True* to *Certainly True*,

taking teachers approximately 45 minutes to screen a class of students. Cut scores are provided for three risk categories: abnormal, borderline, and normal.

BASC-2 Behavioral and Emotional Screening Scale

The BASC-2 Behavioral and Emotional Screening Scale (BESS) was developed by Randy Kamphaus and Cecil Reynolds for examining emotional and behavioral strengths as well as weaknesses and is part of a family of tools for use within and outside of a multitiered system of support. Versions are available for preschool through high school students from multiple informants: teachers, parents, and student self-report. Spanish-language versions are available for parents and students. This screening instrument is available for electronic and paper/pencil administration and scoring. Products are commercially available and can provide a comprehensive program for screening, assessment, intervention, and progress monitoring, as well as parent information. The BESS has 25–30 items, depending on the version, taking 5–10 minutes per student to complete. The BESS uses a total score to indicate student risk levels using *t* scores. Scores are classified as normal, elevated, or extremely elevated. Norms are provided for males, females, and combined and multiple reporting formats are available online.

Social Skills Improvement System–Performance Screening Guide

The Social Skills Improvement System–Performance Screening Guide (SSiS-PSG), developed by Stephen Elliott and Frank Gresham, screens for academic and behavioral risk. The SSiS-PSG is part of a family of tools, commercially available, addressing primary prevention (social skills instruction) screening, intervention, progress monitoring, and assessment (rating scales). The SSiS-PSG is a criterion-referenced tool completed by teachers. Screening tools are available for preschool, elementary, and secondary levels. The four-item screener takes teachers about 30 minutes to screen their about 25 students. Once the screening booklet is completed for the class, teachers easily identify students in need of consideration for additional supports. The screener is color-coded: red identifies students with high risk, yellow indicates moderate risk, and green indicates minimal risk.

Conclusion

In conjunction with academic screening data and other data regularly collected by schools, behavior screening

data are used to support students at the earliest possible juncture so that they may benefit from general classroom instruction. Behavior screening tools are used to detect and monitor student behaviors as well as to monitor primary prevention practices and indicate areas to strengthen through professional development efforts. Several tools are available with options for schools to match tools to resources (time and money). In sum, behavior screening tools offer school personnel reliable and feasible methods for early detection of students who may require intervention and supports beyond the primary prevention program.

Wendy Peia Oakes and Kathleen Lynne Lane

See also Application of Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports to Schoolwide and Classroom Settings; Behavior Disorders; Behavioral Online Screening for School Settings; Preventing Antisocial Behavior at the Point of School Entry; Schoolwide Positive Behavior Supports

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SCREENING AND MONITORING FOR ACADEMIC SUCCESS

An experienced teacher can quickly identify, through observing, which students are responding to instruction and which are not. However, doing so does not necessarily help inform decisions about what a teacher must do to meet students' instructional needs. A more useful method is to adopt a behavioral screening and monitoring system that provides a way to track the status and progress of the skills and behaviors central to functioning well academically, such as paying attention, following directions, and working cooperatively in small groups. Behavioral screening and monitoring systems not only facilitate teachers' making good decisions about how best to support students, they also provide data to parents or school personnel so that key persons outside the classroom can become involved in an informed way.

Behavioral screening involves first surveying all of the students in the classroom on a specific set of desirable skills and behaviors. The overall goals are the following: First, screening lets the teacher know the overall effectiveness of his or her routine classroom management strategies. Second, screening allows teachers to identify students who are not behaviorally successful given routine classroom management. Third, screening informs which specific skills and behaviors might be problematic for a majority of the students. To achieve these goals, initial screening must include all students within a given classroom, focus on a limited number of skills and behaviors the teacher deems essential for academic success, occur on a scale that the teacher can readily apply based on his or her knowledge of students, and result in instantly available and readily interpretable data.

In addition, the screening tool should allow quick and easy entry of class lists manually or by uploading from online applications. In doing so, gender, race, ethnicity, and English learner status should be recorded to allow disaggregations of data by student subgroups. Different subgroups may require different strategies and ways to support.

Any screening tool should also allow for a way to *rate* a short list of key skills and behaviors—in a manner that is meaningful to the teacher doing the rating. For example, a scoring scale ranging from *demonstrates mastery* to *needs improvement* to *cause for concern* allows teachers to categorize students into three skill levels. Color coding each scoring option (e.g., green for mastery, yellow for needs improvement, and red for cause for concern) further facilitates teachers' interpretation of students' behavioral support needs along a continuum.

To assess if their overall classroom management efforts are adequate, teachers need to be able to access a report that shows them the scores each student in their class received on all key skills and behaviors. At a glance, teachers should be able to see how many green, yellow, and red scores they assigned. If green prevails, teachers will know that their classroom management efforts are successful and that students in their classroom have mastered and show the skills and behaviors necessary for academic success.

Furthermore, if a few students received yellow or red ratings on key skills and behaviors, teachers can quickly identify those students as eligible for additional behavioral support. If many students received yellow or red ratings on one or two specific skills, then teachers know that these specific skills and behaviors need to be taught and encouraged or required for the whole class. Conducted two to three times during the academic year, screening allows teachers to quickly assess the effectiveness of their overall classroom management and the supports provided to students.

Students who were identified via screening as needing additional behavioral supports should receive additional support for the appropriate skills and behaviors at the appropriate intensity. Support for a student who needs to ask for help appropriately will be quite different from support for a student who has trouble managing emotions. In other words, the intervention should match the type of need identified.

Once a student starts receiving support, that student's progress should be monitored frequently. The overall goal of monitoring progress is to assess if the type of support being given is effective and whether to continue, intensify, or discontinue the support. To achieve this goal, teachers need to rate the student's performance on the specific skills and behaviors found to be problematic based on overall screening and do so in a manner sufficiently nuanced to detect small changes in levels. For example, one student might need additional instruction and practice in order to better follow directions, while another student might need additional instruction and practice working in groups. Yet another student might need additional instruction and practice on multiple skills and behaviors.

A six-point scoring scale ranging from 6 (responsive to the intervention) to 1 (unresponsive to the intervention) can be useful for monitoring progress using specific interventions and supports. Frequent, for example weekly, monitoring allows the teacher to assess whether the student is catching up to his or her peers, or if he or she needs more intensive support. Teachers should be able to monitor students' progress on individual skills and behaviors as well as monitor overall trends in students' progress on multiple skills and behaviors. Once

a student has caught up with his or her peers, the additional support can be discontinued.

With the growing popularity of online assessment tools, the ease and efficiency of screening and monitoring progress is likely to increase. To encourage teachers to make use of online screening and monitoring tools, tools need to be easy to navigate, focus on key skills and behaviors associated with academic success, offer scoring scales that teachers can readily apply based on their knowledge of students, and—most important—yield instant reports that are easily interpretable and can be used for decisions to maximize the effectiveness of classroom management.

*Brion Marquez, Claudia G. Vincent,
and Hill M. Walker*

See also Assessment of Students; Assessment of Tests and Exams; Documentation and Classroom Management; Functional Behavioral Assessment; Target Behaviors

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SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY

Self-determination theory (SDT) is a theory of human motivation, development, and wellness. The theory treats self-determination as a stable psychological construct, though self-determined behavior can vary considerably from person to person. This entry discusses ways that self-determined behavior can be facilitated in students and the ways in which SDT can help with supporting motivation to learn.

Three Human Needs

SDT focuses on three innate human needs, namely, the need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. *Autonomy* refers to persons having choices and control over their behavior. *Competence* refers to persons' ability

to do or perform well so as to have an effect on the world. *Relatedness* refers to having connections to others—to caring for and being cared for, and, in general, to functioning in a social world. From an SDT perspective, fostering autonomy, competence, and relatedness plays a central role in nurturing intrinsic motivation, which is critically important for engagement and success in school. In short, SDT proposes that students who are intrinsically motivated will show more interest in their work, more independent learning, more task engagement, enhanced performance, and greater persistence.

SDT explains that teachers who adopt an autonomy-supportive style facilitate student engagement. Engagement involves the behavioral intensity, emotional quality, and personal investment of a student's involvement during learning and is central to intrinsic motivation. Consequently, engagement influences the learner's behavior (e.g., attention, effort, persistence), emotion (e.g., interest, enjoyment, enthusiasm), cognition (e.g., personal investment, preference for challenge), and voice (e.g., expressing preferences, participating).

It should be noted that compliance and engagement do not result in the same outcomes. In other words, a compliant child who follows the teacher's instructions without really wanting to invest is not a child who is engaged. SDT holds that education must be delivered in a way that children want to engage and to adopt motivational goals that promote lifetime learning. Students who are engaged are better at paying attention, applying effort, and persisting. Engaged students are personally and emotionally invested and become part of the learning process, thereby increasing enjoyment and enthusiasm. They exhibit a preference for challenging activities and a desire to work hard toward learning and accomplishment.

Obstacles to Promoting Self-Determination in Schools

Children begin life with a natural tendency to learn. Their world of play is intrinsically motivated and provides abundant opportunities for children's development and learning. However, the nature of the social/cultural structure of schools is such that learners' intrinsic motivation is often negatively influenced.

External, tangible rewards can undermine intrinsic motivation and autonomy, as the motivation of the person seeking the reward shifts away from intrinsic (e.g., the pleasure of playing baseball) to extrinsic (e.g., the trophy awarded for winning). In other words, one can be in control of her own feeling of pleasure, but is not in control of whether or not she gets a trophy. When teachers are controlling and use negative feedback, students' intrinsic motivation tends to diminish. Hence, the use of

grades, punishment, competition, and high-stakes testing, all ubiquitous in schools, have a tendency to reduce intrinsic and increase extrinsic motivation. Furthermore, environments that are controlled by rewards and punishments are predicted to last only as long as the contingencies remain in place. Conversely, environments that encourage autonomy promote a strong drive for learning. Autonomy-supportive climates are characterized by children being in charge of their own learning and engagement, and by the teacher's facilitating an environment in which effort and personal improvement define success.

In addition to the negative effect that stimulating only external motivation can have on self-determination, there are several other obstacles to self-determination. The main obstacles that teachers themselves report include the following: teachers assuming that students would not benefit from such instruction, teachers not having the training to teach self-determination, teachers not having the authority to teach self-determination, other areas more urgently needing teaching than teaching self-determination, and teachers not having time to teach self-determination.

Strategies to Facilitate Self-Determination

Strategies used to facilitate self-determined behavior result in engaged learners. Students become invested in the learning process, seek out challenge, and exhibit a genuine desire to learn. A positive consequence of such engagement in the learning process is that students demonstrate better behavior. When learners are engaged, they pay attention, work hard, and persist. Because most behavior problems occur when students are bored or feel the tasks are not relevant to them, facilitating self-determination in learners can lead to a reduction of behavior problems. Following are some examples of using autonomy, competence, and relatedness in ways that can improve student behavior.

Autonomy

Autonomy can be facilitated by giving learners responsibility. An example is having a responsibility board that lists the roles for the week. It may list line leader, door holder, lunch monitor, computer inspector, and so on. Each role on the board has a child's name in a pocket so that the children know who is responsible for what. The children's behavior dictates how much autonomy is given, but the process itself is likely to facilitate responsible actions.

Another way of promoting autonomy is to provide choices. Note that this is not letting the children

do whatever they want, but rather crafting alternatives from which they can choose. Choices increase student engagement and are likely to reduce behavior problems. Of course, the student is always made aware that he or she is the one in control of his or her actions and must accept the consequences of his or her choices.

Competence

SDT holds that students engage in and value activities they can actually understand and master. In doing so, students learn not only that they are good at something, but also that what they do matters to others—which initially means to others in the classroom.

Student competence is promoted by teachers designing activities that are optimally challenging, allowing students to advance their skills. Teachers provide students with the appropriate learning tools and feedback to promote success and self-efficacy. When appropriate, teachers use student ideas—a strategy that promotes autonomy as well as competence. Teaching children to use key words to remember how to execute the components of a skill is a useful tool for children to develop competence. Creating tasks that provide feedback to the learner without relying on the teacher, such as a ringing bell for a target, allows the learner to determine outcomes and a drive toward competence. When the teacher does provide feedback, it can be done so in a way that provides relevant information that is informative rather than evaluative.

Relatedness

In addition to the need for autonomy and competence, incorporating relatedness into the learning experience is critical for promoting self-determination. When they feel connected to a teacher and connected to others in the classroom, learners tend to be internally driven and adopt the values and practices of the teacher. In feeling connected to a teacher, students feel that the teacher genuinely likes, respects, and values them. Students who experience connection, that is, relatedness, are more likely to exhibit motivation to learn demanding tasks, whereas students who do not feel connected or accepted by the teacher are more likely to respond only to external contingencies and controls and, as a result, underperform.

Conclusion

SDT fits naturally with children's inherent love of learning and challenge. When teachers teach in ways that facilitate self-determination, they also promote

autonomy, competence, and relatedness in students, leading in turn to engagement in the learning process. Fewer behavior problems occur when students have choices, can manage themselves, and are engaged and invested in their own learning. Such students tend to pay attention to instructions and persist at hard work, as opposed to those who engage in misbehavior associated with what they perceive to be meaningless tasks. Teaching for self-determination involves more front-end preparation and planning for effective strategies. However, teachers who nurture and provide opportunities for students to be self-determined have classrooms of engaged, independent students who thrive on learning and challenge.

Alice M. Buchanan and Mary Rudisill

See also Fostering Classroom Engagement; Motivation, Intrinsic and Extrinsic

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SELF-MANAGEMENT

Although teachers are charged with the primary responsibility of classroom management, students can also be called upon to help create a positive learning environment. Within the use of a self-management intervention, responsibility for the management of problem behavior

is shifted, in part, from the teacher to the student. Such an approach is certainly beneficial for busy teachers who may face logistical challenges in coordinating multiple individual behavior plans. However, the philosophical and practical benefits for students are also clear in that students may be better able to regulate their own behavior and may experience increased independence and personal responsibility as a result. In this entry, guidelines for development and implementation of self-management interventions are provided, as relevant to a wide range of student populations.

Use of Self-Management Interventions in Classroom Settings

The overwhelming majority of interventions that are used to help promote appropriate behavior in the classroom have one thing in common—they are interventions having to do with management by the teacher. This means that the classroom teacher retains primary control for the development, implementation, and monitoring of the intervention procedures. Examples of teacher-managed interventions are described elsewhere in this encyclopedia and include token economies, group management methods, and planned ignoring. Although the effectiveness of these interventions has been well documented within the literature, one concern is that teacher-directed interventions help to manage student behavior in the moment but do not necessarily help students to build lasting skills to be used outside the school environment.

One alternative to traditional teacher-directed behavior management strategies involves the use of a self-management intervention. Although many different variations can be found within the literature, at the core, self-management interventions aim to raise students' awareness of their own behavior. The underlying theory is that if individuals become (1) more in tune with their own behavior and (2) more aware of the discrepancy that exists between where their behavior is currently and where they desire it to be, actual change is more likely to occur. Everyday examples of this theory in action can be found in everyday practices, as when weight loss programs have participants monitor the number of calories they consume.

Implementing a Self-Management Intervention

The most basic self-management intervention configuration has been called self-monitoring and involves having the student observe and record his or her own behavior. Although a student might be instructed to self-monitor whenever he or she thought of it, typically the student would be given some type of prompt to signify

the appropriate time to reflect on his or her own behavior. Many of the studies within the research literature have utilized a beep track, which could be played on a private listening device (e.g., iPod) or aloud if more than one student is participating in the intervention. It is also possible, however, for the classroom teacher to provide a verbal (e.g., “Please make your rating”) or tactile (e.g., tap on the student’s shoulder) prompt to the student, which may prove less intrusive to the overall classroom environment. There is currently no evidence to suggest that one type of prompt may be more effective than another, and so this selection should be made based on whatever is most likely to be used reliably and with the least intrusion upon normal classroom routines.

Once the student receives a self-monitoring prompt, a self-assessment occurs. Assessments are typically conducted based on one of two targets: student’s behavior or academic performance. Typical assessments of behavior involve asking the student to judge whether he or she was paying attention, doing what he or she was supposed to be doing, or following the classroom rules. In such cases, a dichotomous (yes/no) scale is often used, and the student would indicate his or her rating on a recording sheet.

Assessments of academic performance, on the other hand, tend to involve more than a momentary judgment. Depending on the subject area targeted, the student may be asked to record different indicators of work progress. As one example, a student tasked with writing an essay might be asked to pause when given a prompt to count and record the total number of words written. During independent seatwork in math, the same student could be asked to check his or her work against an answer key and record the number of digits or problems computed correctly.

As indicated by the results of research, although simply observing and recording one’s own behavior can result in positive behavioral changes, self-management interventions often involve additional components beyond self-monitoring alone. An evaluation component, for example, is often included in order to provide the student with additional feedback regarding his or her behavior. A goal must first be established for the student that is both ambitious and realistic, such as paying attention 80% of the time or completing 10 math problems correctly by the end of a 5-minute work period.

Using the attention goal as an example, the student could divide his or her number of yes ratings by the total number of ratings conducted to obtain an overall percentage for the intervention period. The obtained percentage could then be compared to the previously established criterion to determine whether or not the goal was met. Evaluation may simply involve a discussion between the teacher and the student of how closely the student’s ratings came to meeting the goal and, if necessary, what

strategies the student might employ next time to achieve a higher level of performance. It is also possible to incorporate reinforcement into the evaluation process by awarding the student either points or actual rewards (e.g., tangibles, free time) for meeting established goals.

Finally, evaluation may be limited to within one individual day or extended over a number of days or weeks. In order to monitor behavior over time, the student might be asked to record his or her performance each day either in a log or graphically in the form of a chart. In this way, progress toward both short- and long-term goals can be tracked.

Intervention Adaptations and Modifications

Within the research literature, self-management interventions have been successfully used across a wide range of students with varied background characteristics. These interventions have been used with students from preschool through high school, in a range of settings across both general and special education classrooms, and have included family–school collaborative components. Although successful applications have been noted with students without exceptionalities, self-management has also been used to increase classroom preparation behaviors in students with ADHD, improve peer interactions in students with autism, and increase independent living skills in students with intellectual disabilities.

The central consideration in adapting a self-management intervention for use with a particular student is ensuring that the procedures are developmentally appropriate. In thinking about the behaviors targeted, for example, students in the later elementary grades may be able to accurately self-assess how well they were paying attention or following classroom expectations; however, this may be difficult for younger students or students with limited cognitive functioning. For the latter group of students, it may be necessary to target more concrete and discrete behaviors, such as hand raising or staying seated. Pictures may also be used to depict the target behavior for those students whose vocabulary is limited. As discussed below, it may be appropriate to scaffold the amount of adult assistance in completing the self-management.

In assessing developmental appropriateness, it is also important to consider the materials and scales used for self-management. Because the student will be the one conducting the ratings of his or her own behavior, it is imperative that he or she understands the rating scale being used. Whereas older students may be able to discriminate between multiple points on a Likert-type scale (e.g., 0–10), younger students will likely require a smaller scale that uses either numbers (e.g., 0–2) or pictures (e.g., smiley/frowning face). Alternatives to a paper-and-pencil

recording sheet may also be considered, such as conducting a verbal (e.g., “Yes, I was paying attention”) or physical (e.g., giving a thumbs up) assessment when prompted or placing a token in a jar each time the student exhibits a countable behavior. Finally, with regard to materials, the age and interests of the student must be considered if rewards are being incorporated into the intervention. Given that self-management interventions are designed to increase student participation and investment, teachers and students may collaborate to develop a reinforcement menu that is both acceptable to the teacher and motivating for the student. In addition, collaboration with home or alternative settings might be engaged to assist with reinforcement delivery.

Also, with respect to providing supports for self-monitoring, students may require different levels of adult scaffolding in order to successfully implement a self-management intervention. Although the goal may ultimately be to hand over full responsibility for implementation to the student, this transfer may occur more swiftly for some students than for others. One way to familiarize students with the rating process is to incorporate an initial phase in which the classroom teacher rates the student’s behavior and then discusses both the rating and the rationale behind it with the student. Once the student has received sufficient feedback and demonstrates an understanding of why particular behaviors warrant particular ratings, self-ratings could also be incorporated. Before fading their own ratings of the student’s performance, teachers may wish to continue to conduct simultaneous ratings until the student has achieved a sufficient level of rating accuracy.

Other ways in which the self-monitoring process can be scaffolded include gradually increasing the length of the rating period (e.g., beginning by rating every 15 minutes but eventually only having the student rate at the end of the period), decreasing the frequency with which debriefing meetings between the teacher and the student occur (e.g., meeting each day initially but fading the frequency to once a week over time), and fading the use of reinforcement over time (e.g., using tangible rewards in the beginning but then fading to the use of praise).

Conclusion

With over 40 years of research supporting the effectiveness of self-management to promote appropriate student behavior, it is clear that this intervention should have a place in every classroom management toolbox. Given that successful applications have been noted across a wide range of behaviors, settings, and student populations, educators should have confidence that, with appropriate modifications, self-management interventions can

be used as an initial, low-intensity approach to address the most common classroom concerns.

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See also Self-Determination Theory; Self-Regulated Learning; Self-Regulation and Sensory-Affective Co-Regulation

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SELF-REGULATED LEARNING

Self-regulation (SR) is a broad concept that comprises a set of interdependent skills and complex processes essential for goal-directed activities. SR involves deliberately recruiting and implementing the skills necessary to control, manage, and plan cognition, behavior, motivation, and affect. SR is traditionally not viewed as a trait or ability but rather as a self-initiated and directed process focused on achieving a particular goal (e.g., choosing to study for a test rather than join friends in a social gathering). Important indicators of SR include task persistence, inhibiting internal and external distractions, and intentionally directing motor actions and attention to an activity.

Classroom teachers, or anyone who has spent time with groups of children, will likely have anticipated a connection between SR and academic success. Indeed, the concept of SR naturally evolved to include individuals’ ability to achieve *academic* goals. As researchers became interested in the concept of SR and its importance for

successful functioning in academic contexts, a new term appeared—self-regulated learning (SRL)—which is the focus of this entry.

SRL has been defined in many ways but generally refers to the application of self-regulatory skills to a learning task. Most classroom teachers have encountered (and appreciated!) proactive students who display SRL behaviors. Research has shown that self-regulated learners are more likely than other students to have high levels of academic achievement, employ help-seeking strategies in order to find ways to succeed in school, use more efficient problem-solving strategies, maintain interest in academic tasks, and have learning orientations and goals based on mastering the material to be learned rather than on simply receiving a high grade. Self-regulated learners are able to be successful despite obstacles that often occur in complex school settings, such as multiple distractions, interruptions, and unclear directions.

The importance of SRL to academic success is consistent across domains (e.g., analogical reasoning, mathematics, reading comprehension, science, and writing). Most important, children with greater SRL are more successful academically than children with low SRL, regardless of the presence of risk factors such as minority status, English language learner status, low parental education, low family income, single-parent households, and maternal depression. Therefore, SRL can play a protective and facilitative role for children at risk of having learning difficulties. Furthermore, students with greater SRL are not only easier to manage but also allow for less time to be spent on discipline and on the teaching of rules and behavioral skills and more time for academic activities.

SRL to Meet Cognitive Demands

In classrooms, teachers manage curricula, materials (e.g., texts, digital tools, manipulatives), and interpersonal relationships. They also set the cognitive demands integral to achieving academic goals. Initial studies of SR primarily addressed the issue of managing cognitive demands. As research on SR matured, greater attention was given to the larger context in which cognitive demands must be managed. This section illustrates the progression of this work for the purpose of helping educators consider how research on SR can support their efforts. We begin by tracing one line of the research on SR: verbalized self-instruction.

Verbalized Self-Instruction

In the late 1970s and 1980s, there was considerable interest in the role of *self-verbalization* in supporting SRL. Self-verbalization, also referred to as

private speech, is speech that is for directing one's own activity rather than communicating with others. Self-verbalization has been successfully used to help students rehearse information—by modeling and practicing the breaking of information to be learned into smaller parts and by practicing repeating information (e.g., a set of vocabulary terms, formulas, or dates). Research on the application of self-verbalization indicates that it is useful for supporting learners to be more systematic in their learning activity and helps learners who tend to be impulsive. However, self-verbalization can distract learners who do not need this form of support.

In the 1980s, researchers became interested in *strategy instruction*. Strategy instruction was advanced by cognitive research on expertise. For example, think-aloud research, in which competent readers shared their thinking as they read, suggested that competent readers took control of their activity while reading—by predicting what they would read, by paraphrasing the information they were learning, and occasionally by monitoring how well they were understanding the information.

This research informed teaching for self-regulated reading. For example, Reciprocal Teaching, designed by Annemarie Sullivan Palincsar and Ann L. Brown to improve the reading achievement of struggling readers, focuses on teaching students to *summarize* by identifying and integrating key ideas in the text; to use prior knowledge and ideas in the text to *predict* upcoming content in the text; to identify, while reading, the kinds of questions the text is answering; and to *clarify* when they find text confusing. Borrowing from the self-verbalization research described above, these four strategies are taught in the context of a discussion with the teacher, in the course of which the teacher models expert use of these four strategies and supports the students to enlist the use of these strategies as they read. When done well, strategy instruction can help students become actively engaged in learning and help transfer the strategy to independent use.

When strategy instruction is done well, students are introduced to and practice the use of strategies in the context of challenging academic tasks; the expert use of the strategies is modeled for the student; and the student is provided support to learn how to apply strategies effectively. In addition, the students are provided opportunities to practice the use of strategies and to experience for themselves how taking a strategic approach enables them to be in control of their own learning.

Programmatic Approaches to SRL

Tools of the Mind

Children who enter formal schooling without adequate self-regulatory skills are at risk for learning

difficulties, including low levels of academic achievement. Though they are limited, there are interventions and curricula designed to enhance children's SR prior to formal school entry. One such program is the *Tools of the Mind* (hereafter *Tools*) preschool and kindergarten program created by Elena Bodrova and Deborah Leong. *Tools* uses developmentally appropriate problem-solving strategies within the context of dramatic play and academic content areas as a primary source of deliberately promoting, facilitating, and teaching SR in preschool-age children. *Tools* is based on the idea that social interactions are important for children's learning and development, allowing them to become more independent and self-regulated.

In *Tools*, the instruction is designed to intentionally increase SRL across and within content areas. For example, teachers scaffold children in writing explicit plans for their dramatic play, specifying not only what they are going to do but also what role they will take so that the play becomes more complex and self-regulatory and is more likely to enhance SRL and related metaskills. Moreover, teachers facilitate children's representation skills by recording their plans in a representational way such as drawing, conventional writing, or some combination, depending on the child's capability. *Tools* instruction includes similar activities for promoting SR in other content areas such as mathematics (e.g., word problems) so that children learn how to apply SR skills across domains.

Research on *Tools* has shown that SR can be increased, even in low-income preschool-age children. Furthermore, preschool teachers who have been trained to use the *Tools* curriculum were rated as having better classroom management than those not trained in *Tools*. Studies have indicated that *Tools* may even increase mathematics and language skills in preschoolers, although more research is needed in this area.

Fostering Communities of Learners

Fostering Communities of Learners (FCL), created by Ann L. Brown and Joseph Campione, is a program for older children organized around thematic units; for example, biological themes include interdependence and adaptation, and environmental science themes include balance, competition, and cooperation. With respect to materials, students in FCL classrooms have access to a broad array of materials to support their inquiry about the themes, including text, video, and a computer environment in which children correspond with one another as well as with expert consultants.

In FCL, instruction is designed to support an active role for the learners who are encouraged to assume control of their activity and be reflective in the process. The issue of transfer, or the capacity and inclination

to apply learning in novel contexts, is central to FCL. FCL instruction is first of all about mastering a rich domain of knowledge. Instruction in this rich domain must include modeling that is designed to help students acquire the critical thinking and reflection activities that will guide their thinking as they undertake learning in these new areas. Finally, students are provided with many occasions for explaining to others (and hence to themselves) the characteristics and limitations of what they are learning and the reasons they are engaged in particular learning activities.

Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction

The FCL research resonates with findings obtained in the research on the Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction (CORI) program, developed by John Guthrie and Allan Wigfield. The results show that students who have sustained opportunities to read interesting texts for the purpose of advancing content knowledge related to a particular theme (e.g., animal habitats) are more motivated to read and more strategic in their reading than students who are simply provided strategy instruction in reading. The CORI researchers determined that, when content goals (such as learning science) were salient to students rather than performance goals (such as getting a good grade), students showed increased motivation for reading, increased strategic behavior, and increased comprehension.

Concluding Remarks

Research has identified classroom and learning characteristics that are associated with greater levels of SRL in even very young (i.e., preschool) students. These characteristics include (1) allowing children to regulate their learning through choosing their own goals and levels of challenge and doing self-evaluation, and (2) encouraging both children and teachers to articulate and discuss their reasoning and problem solving. Furthermore, research has shown that certain types of instructional practices are most effective for facilitating SRL. These practices include explicit teaching and modeling of SRL strategies, as well as gradually decreasing the support (i.e., external regulation) provided by the teacher so that students begin to self-regulate as they learn. Finally, small group participation structures can enhance SRL; so too can whole group instruction when it provides independent and group decision-making opportunities, contextualized practice of SR, content-specific strategies, opportunities to collaborate, and a supportive environment where risk taking is encouraged and errors are viewed as valuable learning opportunities.

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See also Emotion Regulation; Impulse Control; Self-Management; Self-Regulation and Sensory-Affective Co-Regulation

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SELF-REGULATION AND SENSORY-AFFECTIVE CO-REGULATION

One of the jobs of educators is to help children struggling with issues of self-regulation. Although self-regulation can happen in many ways, one important, even essential, way happens through co-regulation where someone, usually a parent or teacher, helps a child by offering *sensory-affective* co-regulation. What sensory-affective co-regulation means and how it can figure prominently in classroom management is the subject of this entry.

Zone of Arousal

Consider the following common occurrences:

- In the midst of an open-ended, child-directed play in a preschool classroom, a child will suddenly and without apparent provocation hit another child, throw a block in the air, or burst into high-pitched cry.
- In the midst of circle time in a kindergarten classroom, while a teacher is trying to engage the children in a discussion around a book they have just read, a child is having a hard time participating, her body flopping back and forth, and she is sucking on the edge of her shirt, tucked into her mouth.
- In the midst of work time in a grade school classroom, a child is attempting to do his work while either humming or talking ceaselessly with his peers.

What do these examples mean? What do they tell us about the unique and individual profile of these particular kids? What do they tell us about their needs at that particular moment in time? How can a teacher address these needs in the context of a classroom? All of these questions are part of the problem-solving process teachers are required to engage in to optimize the learning environment, and the learning experience, of the children they teach.

When faced with situations such as the ones described above, there are a variety of approaches that might help. One of them is to approach these behaviors as expressions of problems having to do with self-regulation and the ways children can struggle when adjusting to and modulating stimuli. In a classroom setting, the sensory capacities of each child are engaged almost all of the time, just by the mere fact that they are surrounded by other children and adults, each of whom is a source of an ongoing stream of sensory-affective stimuli.

However, every child has an individual and unique *sensory-affective profile*. Each has specific sensitivities, whether to different kinds of textures (such as unexpected light touch on their skin), sounds (some to lower frequencies such as trucks going by or furniture being dragged on the floor, and some to higher frequencies such as bees flying by their heads or a baby's cry), sights (some to visual stimuli coming at them unexpectedly in midline, some to visual stimuli coming from the periphery, some to visual clutter), movements (either coming out of their own motion while swinging or even just while transitioning from a sitting position to a standing one, or, even worse, when motion is being imposed by an outside source such as another child slightly pushing them out of balance), smells, or affective states (some react to excitement, some to anger, some to confusion, and yet others to sadness).

Some children have an easier time modulating (adjusting the level of their reaction to the degree, or intensity, of the stimuli) their responses, and some children have a harder time doing so. There is a wide spectrum of reactivity among children, and even for each individual child, between different times of the day and under different circumstances (lack of sleep, lack of good nutrition, or a tendency for constipation), the capacity for modulation can be very different.

One way of referring to this basic capacity to modulate responses to match degree or intensity of stimulation is *zone of arousal*. In the range of *optimal zone* of arousal, we can, for the most part, modulate our responses, regulate our behavior, and thus react to the world around us in an adaptive way. For some children, this zone is pretty wide, and they can spend most of their day, under a variety of circumstances, comfortably there. There is a lot of safety being in that zone.

Sometimes though, children live in a zone of underreactivity. This can happen when children might be too tired or depressed, or have a neurological tendency toward underreactivity. At those moments, things have a hard time making an impression. They go unnoticed, not registered, and do not hold meaning. Some children spend quite a significant time of their day in this zone of underreactivity.

At the opposite end of a continuum is the zone of overreactivity. All children might find themselves in this zone after a very scary movie, or in any other situation where they face a particular fear or experience generalized anxiety. Although this zone is known to all, some children spend most of their waking lives in it. Most children with sensory-affective processing, integration, and modulation challenges know this zone intimately.

Being in the zone of overreactivity means that every little event draws a big, quite disproportionate reaction. Other children moving around them, the teacher's talking, people having ideas or demands, expressing different affects—all of this can be experienced as a bombardment: too many stimuli to take in and use in an organized, thoughtful way.

If this is the case, that a child is continuously in a zone of overreactivity, it is very likely that at some point the child will move to the zone of *fight/flight/freeze* (FFF). This move is not by choice; it is an obligatory move, as there is not much else to be done. In this case the child might hit, or throw a block, seemingly out of the blue (*fight*), might just run away and leave the scene (*flight*), or might dip into what *looks like* being an underreactive zone. This is shutdown mode (*freeze*) and is a defensive way of tolerating the intolerable level of stimulation. Furthermore, to manage over- or understimulation, children use their own partial solutions to modulating stimulation—such as by sucking on their shirts, flopping their bodies, and humming.

Sensory Profile, Self-Regulation, and Co-Regulation

The job of an occupational therapist includes analyzing a child's *sensory profile* and building a *sensory diet* accordingly. The sensory diet can be carried out throughout the day in an attempt to keep the child's sensory needs met on a consistent basis. Doing so is, of course, easier said than done, and even under the best of circumstances, having a sensory diet spelled out does not address what to do about the crises that can occur throughout a day. Thus, we are left with the question "*What can a teacher do in the moment to address the needs of a child (or sometimes more than one child) while maintaining order and the flow of the class as a whole?*"

At this point, it is helpful to refer back to the concept of zone of arousal and to think about the behavior of the child in those terms (in optimal, under, over, or FFF zones). No matter what the trigger for a crisis event is—the event will bring with it a shift in arousal state, usually toward the overreactive and/or FFF zones. This will cause the child's behavior to become disregulated. The disregulation might look very different for different children, but the experience is more or less the same. Feeling disregulated means feeling out of control, not safe, not held, not open for interacting, processing, or learning.

Self-regulation is by now quite a widespread concept, used often in the fields of child development and special education. "This child has a hard time regulating his behavior" is a common complaint, which leads to a formulation of a behavioral/therapeutic goal of self-regulation. The rationale here is that we need to teach this child how to better regulate himself or herself.

This rationale is not without truth, yet it is fundamentally constricted in its understanding of the developmental foundations for self-regulation. In fact, there is more and more research that reveals the relational foundation of regulation, referred to as either *mutual* or *co-regulation*. Learning how to self-regulate by co-regulation means being able to use another person's sensory-affective bids for the sake of regulation. It means that if a toddler falls while attempting to explore the environment a few steps away from Mom, he will search for her face while expressing pain, insult, or confusion, and be able to take in her corresponding expression of comfort (even if initially this will result in another burst of crying). It means that if a preschooler is experiencing anxiety due to a tower of blocks crashing right next to him, he will search for his teacher, express his fear to her, and be able to be consoled by her affective expression back to him. It means that a child knows *how* to be with another person (usually an adult, but not only) while experiencing distress. This knowledge is *implicit relational knowledge*, and it supports self-regulation.

Teacher as Sensory-Affective Co-Regulator

This, then, is where the teacher comes in: the teacher as a *sensory-affective co-regulator* for the child. In fact, to some degree, teachers co-regulate the children they teach all the time. They do so because for most teachers it is a way of being that is part and parcel of their implicit relational knowledge. Nevertheless, this skill of being a co-regulator with and for children very often goes unnoticed. It remains under the radar and not part of what teachers thematize about, and thus not perceived as being a skill to develop and refine.

There is also another issue getting in the way of becoming a sensory-affective co-regulator for children. Many of the classroom management theories, such as conflict resolution, promote verbal processing while maintaining affective neutrality. Promoting verbal processing is useful and in many situations helps children immensely, but it bypasses the experience of co-regulation, which can rob some children of the most important skill they need for developing self-regulation. In these situations, conflict resolution usually does not work.

What does it mean, then, for a teacher to consciously become, among other things, a *sensory-affective co-regulator*? How is it done? To begin with, it means allowing for sharing control with children and for degrees of freedom in the flow of the classroom. Some teachers, and some schools, are more comfortable with this, while others require more structure. The more structure put into place, the less space there will be for the experiences of co-regulation to take center stage. The next challenge lies in the moment of an event.

Let us pretend we are observing open-ended play in a preschool setting, where children are playing in small groups in different areas of the room, and the teacher is sitting at one of the tables where a few children are drawing. Suddenly, from the corner of her eye, she sees a wooden block being thrown at a wooden structure in the block area, and she hears a hysterical burst of crying.

In a scenario of this kind, there is the child who is crying, there is the child who instigated the crying by throwing the block (which, more likely than not, was related to the child's unique sensory profile), *and* there are all the other children in the classroom as well as the teacher. What is relevant to this discussion is the fact that everyone involved has their own sensory profile and zone of arousal. This means that events such as this block-throwing involve not just one or two children but everyone in the classroom—and the involvement includes challenges to everyone to process the event and demonstrate a kind of self-regulation that will lead to the best possible resolution.

That said, though everyone may be involved, the resolution process often begins with the teacher. This

means the first and most pivotal experience we need to explore is that of the teacher herself or himself. How does she react to a child's crying? How does she react to the aggression that the block-throwing child displayed? How does she react to the potential of it becoming a whole classroom management challenge?

Underneath a controlled, unemotional way of reacting, there is always a personal visceral reaction, which, more often than not, infiltrates a teacher's behavior. This can be a very subtle surge of anxiety that tightens the vocal cords, makes the voice higher in pitch and less rich in those overtones that are the soothing components in anyone's voice. Something as delicate as this can undermine any attempt to resolve the situation and promote self-regulation and, therefore, deserves much reflection and exploration.

For a teacher, choosing to address this block-throwing event through the frame of co-regulation calls for acknowledging the affects that are being displayed (including his or her own), and in a way that has resonance for those particular affects, but does not match those affects in intensity, and/or in modality (i.e., from seen action to heard sound). This, according to noted child psychiatrist Daniel Stern, is called *affective attunement*. The speed, the volume, the frequencies of our voice, its rhythms, and its affective tone all play a significant role in this moment, and tweaking any of these parameters can change the quality of our reaction.

To this end, it is helpful to think about younger developmental stages and the way we engage with toddlers. For example, with toddlers, using short, repetitive, rhythmic words (such as *Ah ah ah ah*), beaded together in a string that starts out bigger, louder, and goes down to smaller and softer, can be very helpful when trying to manage this sort of event from across space. Why? The short utterances do not overload the distressed toddlers' systems with too much information (such as might happen if we choose to use a long sentence). The initial utterances conveyed with more affect and a bit louder allow for the distressed toddlers to register them (as they are close enough in nature to the heightened level of distress they are in; that is, of similar wavelength). The repetition of the utterances in a rhythmic way allows for an experience such as when two people walk together and their stride becomes synchronized after a few steps, an experience that shifts from high level of arousal (may be in the FFF zone) to one that is more regulated and organized.

This does not mean that the crying stopped. Crying in and of itself is *not* a sign of dysregulation. It is the quality of crying that we look at and the availability it provides the child for further processing as the child's attention shifts from an internal affective state to the one now shared with the teacher. If this happens and if the children are now shifting into the zone of optimal arousal, their behavior is now becoming regulated, and

this benefits them on at least two levels. In the moment, it opens up the space for exploration. What happened? Why are you crying? Why did you throw the block? How can we solve this problem? This is where other, more cognitive strategies are called for and the ability to utilize them and access them increases. In the long run, it supports children in learning how to use co-regulation, both on the receiving end and also on the giving end. At first, the calming down of an episode like this might take much longer, but as time goes on, both the length and the intensity of these episodes will decrease. Furthermore, children co-regulate each other in their interactions, and later on in life they will need to become experts in co-regulating their own children, or those they teach. Knowing, on the level of implicit relational knowledge, that you can be co-regulated gives you a sense of safety that is then transferred into your own attempts at co-regulating others.

Concluding Remarks: Implications for Whole-Class Management

One byproduct of a sensory-affective co-regulation way of intervening with particular children and in crisis situations is that it is very likely to engage other children's attention, children not needing interventions, and children busy in other areas of the classroom. In the previous example, this means that these other children might shift their attention from the play they are engaged in to the incident in the block area. Their shifting attention might be perceived as a negative, and in many situations, teachers try to teach children to stay focused only on what they are doing or need to do. This is important, but it is also as important to help children learn to shift attention and know how to move between different loci of attention smoothly and effortlessly.

Additionally, it is also important to give children a lot of opportunities to observe co-regulation when they themselves are not directly participating. There is a way in which children participate in an experience by observation. Participant observation can be extremely powerful and have direct implications for the development of empathy and self-regulation. Sensory-affective co-regulation for one child may, then, benefit an entire classroom.

Tal Baz

See also Conflict Management; School-Based Occupational Therapy; Self-Regulated Learning; Sensory Integration

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SELF-REGULATION TO SOLVE PROBLEMS

Self-regulation occurs when students are actively involved in their own learning. This active involvement typically involves the use of specific strategies to help students achieve predetermined academic or social goals and to solve problems using higher levels of self-regulation. Specific self-regulation strategies around learning or social tasks and goals include strategies to monitor one's own behavior, strategies to make good use of the immediate environment or context, strategies to change (for the better) one's attitudes and feelings, and strategies to change (again, for the better) one's thinking.

A student who successfully implements self-regulation strategies to solve problems monitors his or her own behavior for the purpose of solving a problem. For example, after working on a task or project that has been less than successful, a student may evaluate the quality of his or her results and then, based on evaluations of progress made, contemplate the negative consequences if the task is not completed.

Using self-regulation to solve problems that are either academic or personal almost always involves students changing or manipulating their environment or immediate context so as to help them successfully address and solve a problem. For example, before settling down to study, a student may consider what happened the last time he or she was unsuccessful at a learning task and think about how to find a better setting that would be more conducive to study, thereby achieving a better grade. An additional example is when a student changes seats in a classroom to help himself or herself focus better, or turns off loud music while studying to address a problem of lack of focus or poor grades in the recent past.

Self-regulation of motivation and affect involves a student controlling motivational beliefs and attitudes, such as beliefs and attitudes related to the student's confidence that he or she can be successful, as well as beliefs and attitudes that have to do with managing anxiety and frustration. For example, if a student consistently believes and states that he or she dislikes reading and approaches each reading assignment with negative views, the motivation to read independently may be negatively affected by this poor affect. Simply being aware of and working to control negative beliefs and attitudes can address the problem and improve motivation and affect.

Self-regulation of cognition involves a student's use of strategies to promote his or her own learning, strategies such as organizing and transforming information through the use of concept mapping, self-testing, outlining, using note cards, summarizing, and highlighting. If a student has had problems in retention or learning new skills and content in school, increased self-regulation in active learning strategies may help to address academic problems.

In summary, the use of self-regulation strategies to solve academic problems and challenges includes methods to organize and transform information, self-reward, and accept the consequences of one's actions, as well as use memory aids such as rehearsing. Self-regulated learning occurs when students use these strategies to systematically regulate their actions, thoughts, feelings, and environment.

Using Self-Regulation to Address Academic Problems

Self-regulation can be a vital part of students' academic success. Students who consistently use and apply self-regulation strategies to their educational pursuits are typically more scholastically successful and able to solve academic problems than their counterparts who do not use these strategies.

Students who learn to self-regulate their *behavior* actively control the various resources that are available to them, such as their time, study environment, and use of others such as peers and faculty members to help them. Students who experience problems with self-regulation of behavior and affect typically do not schedule time to study, do not analyze where and when they study best, and do not reach out to peers or faculty to help or support their academic progress.

Students who struggle with self-regulation of *motivation* and *affect* typically cannot change or control their motivational beliefs. In addition, students who experience problems with self-regulation of motivation and affect do not learn how to control their emotions and affect (such as anxiety) in ways that improve their

study skills and ultimately their learning. Some of these students give up quickly, become angry and visibly frustrated, and simply ignore the learning challenges they are facing.

Third and finally, students who excel in school regularly use deeper and more active cognitive strategies for learning, particularly when they encounter problems or challenges. They may use several strategies to learn or study for a test, such as retyping their notes, taking new notes, testing themselves, meeting with a study group, outlining content from their textbooks, preparing essays that may be on their exams, studying for several days before the exam, developing flash cards, and even asking their teachers for extra assistance.

Students who struggle with their self-regulation of cognition do not typically employ multiple cognitive strategies for learning, such as the use of deeper processing strategies that result in positive learning experiences and performance. Some repeatedly use the same study strategies, even if those strategies have resulted in poor grades in the past. For example, many students who have problems or challenges with self-regulation of cognition use inefficient study strategies such as skimming a chapter, hastily reviewing their notes as opposed to retyping notes, creating flash cards for information not mastered, writing an essay that they believe might be on the test or exam, or spacing out their studying over a week before the test.

Research on self-regulated learning indicates the efficacy of many different types of self-regulation strategies to solve academic problems and also suggests that the use of self-regulated learning strategies can contribute to higher levels of academic success. Previous research on self-regulation has also found positive correlations between the use of specific strategies students use while studying to better understand instructional materials as well as their performance on problem-solving activities in general and in specific content areas.

Cyclical Feedback Loop to Solve Problems

Students who use self-regulation strategies typically implement the strategies either consciously or unconsciously in a feedback loop to solve problems. Typically these loops follow a process, with student consideration of these specific strategies before, during, and after specific learning processes. In the before stage, for example, a student examines a problem he or she needs to solve and how he or she plans to approach this problem. In the during stage, the student implements specific strategies that directly help to solve the problem. The after stage involves reflecting on and looking at internal or external feedback to determine if the strategies

implemented in the previous state were effective and if that strategy could be applied to solve other problems.

In the first phase of self-regulation, often called forethought/preaction, students are taught how to set the stage for action to solve a problem, map out the tasks that will minimize the unknown, and help to develop a positive mindset to address the problem. They are also taught to set realistic expectations, establish goals as specific outcomes, and consider questions such as when they will begin to study, where they will do the work, how they will begin the work, and what considerations might hinder their work.

For example, students who are struggling to complete their homework successfully should consider what they can do to become more engaged in their work, whether this involves finding a better time or place to do homework, considering whether to spend at least 5 or 10 minutes on a problem before giving up and moving to the next problem, and/or whether they can arrange to have a friend to ask for help by text, phone, or email.

In the second phase, known as performance control, students attempt to use specific strategies to help themselves become more successful. Students are asked to consider whether they are accomplishing what they had hoped to do, whether they are distracted, whether the study strategy is taking more time than planned, under what conditions they accomplish the most work, the questions they can ask, and the ways they can encourage themselves to keep working to address a problem.

In phase three, which is known as self-reflection, students consider how their work was conducted, reflect after their studying is done, and self-evaluate their outcomes as compared to goals. Students are asked to consider whether they accomplished what they had planned to do, whether they were distracted, if they planned enough time, and under what conditions they accomplished the most work.

The following example illustrates the cyclical feedback loop in action. A student consistently experiences difficulty completing homework. The student has been trying to do homework at a friend's house with other students where they all do homework as a group. The student does not complete his homework during this time, and his grades decline. The student reflects on his declining academic performance (the before stage of the cyclical feedback loop) and determines that the environment in which he is trying to study is not conducive to focusing.

The student then decides to implement a plan to change this process and solve his homework problem (during this stage of the cyclical feedback loop). The student decides that in order to focus he will use headphones while he is doing homework at his friend's house. After implementing this strategy for a period of time, the student reflects on the effectiveness of the intervention

(the after stage of the cyclical loop) and notes that there is no improvement in grades—and so then reevaluates the problem and thinks of an alternative intervention. Upon consideration, the student decides that he should try studying in a different environment (return to during stage of cyclical feedback loop). The student decides to stay after school and go to the school library to do his homework for a period of time. After implementing this environmental change intervention, the student self-reflects on the intervention (return to after stage of cyclical feedback loop). The student determines that this intervention was successful, and he might be able to use this strategy or a similar one for other potentially successful work for other attention-related academic issues.

Limitations of Self-Regulation

Students who are trying to develop self-regulated behaviors to solve problems can encounter challenges when the behavior or cognition they are trying to change or regulate is no longer of greater importance than the desired goal. For example, if a student studies spelling words for a weekly test that she has failed the previous week, she could regulate the number of minutes studied each evening as well as the study strategies used to achieve that goal. If achieving high grades on a spelling test or a report card decreases in importance or appeal, her drive to remain self-regulated and continue to study her words regularly will also decrease. The decrease in the importance of a goal, associated with the motivation to continue the self-regulated behaviors associated with achieving that goal, is often termed *underregulation*.

Disparity can and does occur in an individual's ability to maintain self-regulated behaviors over a long period of time. Students' capacity for using self-regulation to address problems and to change their self-regulation to solve problems that occur due to poor self-regulation differs but can be influenced by practicing specific strategies.

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See also Self-Management; Self-Regulated Learning; Self-Regulation and Sensory-Affective Co-Regulation

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SENSORY INTEGRATION

This entry explains the theory of sensory integration developed by Jean Ayres, a pioneer in the field of occupational therapy. It also explains typical and atypical sensory processing development in children and describes sensory processing dysfunction, particularly sensory modulation disorder, as it manifests in classrooms. The entry goes on to discuss classroom techniques for assisting children with sensory modulation disorder and provides a brief definition of other identified sensory processing disorders (sensory-based movement disorders and sensory discrimination disorders). Finally, it discusses the research base provided by intervention effectiveness studies.

Foundations of Sensory Integration Theory

In the 1970s, Jean Ayres, an occupational therapist, educational psychologist, researcher, and neuroscientist, developed the theory of sensory integration as she worked with children in her Torrance, California, clinic, matching her knowledge of neural science to her observations of adaptive and maladaptive motor and behavioral responses of children during therapy. She postulated that maladaptive motor, behavioral, and emotional responses were due to inefficient processing of sensory inputs. Ayres felt the learning and behavioral issues prevalent in her clients could be explained by this inefficient sensory processing, and consequently intervention aimed at ameliorating sensory integrative deficits would result in improved educational and behavioral outcomes.

Ayres's theory about the mechanism, presentation, evaluation, and intervention in the area of sensory integration disorders has undergone a process of refinement, by herself and other occupational therapists she mentored,

that continues to this day. Currently, the proposed nosology considers sensory integration as the theory and as a foundation for evaluation and clinical intervention, and sensory processing disorder (SPD) as the terminology for disrupted sensory integration. The current nosology for SPD includes three broad areas of dysfunction: *sensory modulation disorders*, *sensory-based movement disorders*, and *sensory discrimination disorders*. Each of these categories has identified subdisorders.

Typical Sensory Processing

Sensory processing can be thought of as information processing through the body senses. For example, one can *see* and *feel* the difference between a block and a blanket. Touch, taste, smell, hearing, and vision are typically thought of as the basic senses. In sensory integration theory, two other sensory systems are added to the mix and are important to understand for later discussion of classroom strategies; these are vestibular input and proprioceptive input and are sometimes referred to as the hidden senses.

Vestibular sensory input gives a person information about movement (how fast/how slow, upside down or right side up, etc.), and proprioceptive input gives a person information from the joints (how heavy/how light, how much pressure to use, etc.). Rarely is information processed through one single sense at a time; rather the multiprocessing that occurs as the person both *sees* and *feels* that blanket or block enables the ability to triangulate that information to make sense of the items. Now let us think about a vestibular and proprioception multisensory example. Children running forward and fast will be receiving lots of vestibular information. If they are running in heavy winter boots, they will also be receiving information through the proprioceptive system. This combination of sensory inputs allows them to understand speed and direction of movement, along with how much effort they need to call forth to bring the boots running along with their feet. When the incoming sensory inputs are clearly understood, Ayres theorized that a child then would be able to use that information to adaptively act on and in the world. When children can clearly interpret the signals from the vision and hearing senses, they are able to adaptively move their body around environmental obstacles, for example, in the correct direction toward a target sound, while deftly moving around the obstacle in their path. When they are able to clearly interpret incoming sensory input from the touch, proprioception, and vestibular senses, then they are able to adaptively pull themselves up the steps to the playground slide, position themselves correctly at the top, and slide down, landing on their feet, and run fast while wearing winter boots. When typically developing,

children process multisensory information throughout the day in a very automatic and unconscious manner.

Sensory Modulation

Sensory modulation is one subtype of sensory integration as theorized by Jean Ayres. Sensory modulation, as a regulatory function, is the ability to organize the degree and intensity of response to sensory input. Two occupational therapists, Sherry Shellenberger and Mary Sue Williams, expanded Ayres's work in the area of sensory modulation as they created the Alert Program. Self-regulation is the ability to attain, maintain, or change, as necessary, the level of alertness required for a particular situation. A sensory preference for soft background noise at night to assist with falling asleep or a sensory preference for chewing on a shirt collar to assist in managing a new and perhaps scary transition such as entering kindergarten are manifestations of individuals' ability to self-regulate their level of alertness to match the task or context.

In young children, the range of typical sensory modulation is fairly wide. There is a window for optimal alertness, and children in this optimal window demonstrate appropriate alertness and self-regulation for their current context. If children are above or below this optimal range for self-regulation, then they are considered overresponsive or underresponsive.

Sensory Processing Disorder

Sensory idiosyncracies occur for all children, and even adults; sensory preferences exist in typically developing children. Sensory processing is considered disordered when the functional outcomes of daily routines and roles are chronically disrupted. Sensory modulation becomes disordered when a child has significant difficulty recouping after a sensory incident, when the child stays in the extreme above-optimal or below-optimal range, or when the child has a narrow optimal window.

For the purposes of this entry, sensory modulation disorders will be the focus of discussion, as knowledge regarding the presentation of modulation disorders and the respective intervention is appropriate for addition to any classroom management toolbox. Three subtypes of sensory modulation have been identified: *sensory overresponsivity* (SOR), *sensory underresponsivity* (SUR), and *sensory seeking* (SS).

Sensory Overresponsivity

A child who demonstrates SOR is easily overwhelmed by sensory aspects of the environment or

a task. A response to a typical sensory input is more intense, of longer duration, and may be perceived as noxious or painful. Behavioral responses to typical sensory inputs are exaggerated, and the recouping after a sensory event is longer than typical. A child with SOR may gag at the sight of a certain food, cover his or her ears when hearing the sound of the toilet flushing, or be unable to co-participate in activities of daily living such as nail cutting, shampooing, and cutting hair.

Again, it is not a single sensory incident, such as crying when accidentally bumped by a peer; SPD is identified by multiple and chronic impacts to daily functioning.

Sensory Underresponsivity

A child who demonstrates SUR may take a long time to register a sensory input and a longer time to react to the input. A child who presents as lethargic, does not seem to notice pain, or does not seem to hear his or her name called (in the absence of frank hearing issues) may be a sensory underresponsive child.

Sensory Seeking

A child who demonstrates this subtype of sensory modulation disorder craves sensory input. All children seek sensory input as they learn and grow; however, SS as a modulation disorder is characterized by an unquenchable need for input. A child who is on the move constantly, touches items or people constantly, or crashes to the floor when asked to sit on the floor may exhibit SS behaviors. To parents and teachers, it may look and feel like the child's sensory system is never satiated.

Interventions for SPDs

There are a number of interventions to help with SPDs—some carried out mostly by specialists, primarily occupational therapists, but others available for teachers.

Classic Sensory Integration Intervention

Intervention that adheres to Jean Ayres's ten fidelity principles is typically delivered by a therapist with postgraduate training in sensory integration theory, evaluation, and intervention; most often these professionals are occupational therapists. Ayres's interventions require an environment that can offer rich sensory experiences in the tactile, vestibular, and proprioceptive channels, through suspended and large equipment specifically designed for this type of intervention. Private clinics that specialize in this type of intervention are the usual places

for children to receive this service. Occupational therapists use clinical reasoning gained in their postgraduate training to design individualized intervention plans for children with SPDs.

Classroom Management: Sensory-Based Strategies

Sensory-based techniques outside of a clinical environment and perhaps using only one or two of the fidelity principles are not considered classic sensory integration intervention. These techniques and strategies are most appropriately termed sensory-based or sensory motor techniques, rather than sensory integration intervention.

The Alert Program model of intervention for sensory modulation issues uses sensory-based strategies and is often utilized by school-based occupational therapists and educators. It emphasizes matching a sensory strategy to the child's "engine" level, and common techniques for each of the modulation subtypes are suggested below.

Techniques to Assist Children to a More Optimal Level of Self-Regulation

Children who demonstrate SOR can be assisted to a more optimal level of self-regulation with techniques that include slower breathing modeled by the adult, dimmed lights, soft music and quiet voices, and rhythmic, slow rocking in a rocking chair. Neutral warmth, such as being wrapped in a blanket or wearing a favorite hooded sweatshirt, can help a child attain, maintain, or regain self-regulation.

Children who demonstrate SUR can be assisted to a more optimal level of self-regulation with techniques that include making the environment more energizing; using louder voices and asynchronous music; fast, erratic movement; sour or spicy foods; or using a straw with thicker liquids. At snack time, use a little bit of water to thin the child's applesauce and have him or her use a straw instead of a spoon.

Techniques for children with regulatory issues around SS may include scheduled movement breaks, jumping on a mini-trampoline, and opportunities for regular, supervised intense sensory experiences at intervals throughout the day. Riding a tricycle or bicycle up a hill, eating frozen pickle chunks, wheelbarrow walking, pushing a laundry basket full of books across the classroom, all are examples of sensory-intense activities appropriate for SS children.

Other SPDs

Other SPDs have been identified in addition to sensory modulation disorders; these include sensory-based

movement disorders and sensory discrimination disorders. *Dyspraxia*, defined as the inability to translate incoming sensory input into adaptive motor responses in a novel or sequential motor activity, is one of the subtypes of sensory-based movement disorders. A child with dyspraxia may present as having difficulty learning new motor skills, may be clumsy or accident-prone, and often has difficulty with independently performing sequenced self-care routines, such as dressing. In *sensory discrimination disorders*, the child's ability to discriminate between two or more similar sensations is disordered. A child with sensory discrimination disorder may not be able to tell, just by touch and without eyes helping, the difference between a block and a toy car in the child's pocket.

Concluding Remarks: Research Outcomes

Research outcomes for classic sensory integration effectiveness have been mixed, due in part to weak methodology and nonadherence by researchers to the principles of intervention fidelity. Occupational therapists recognize that continued research with more rigorous study design, homogenous subjects, and fidelity to intervention principles is required. Research in the area of particular sensory-based or sensory motor strategies is available; effectiveness is minimal to moderate depending on the strategy researched.

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See also Inclusive Classrooms; School-Based Occupational Therapy; Self-Regulation and Sensory-Affective Co-Regulation

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SERVICE LEARNING

Service learning is a pedagogical tool that involves requiring students to provide some sort of service to the broader community as a means of fostering mastery of content. Service learning is considered a high-impact instructional practice—meaning that it is associated with increased student engagement and positive long-term outcomes. Classroom management, particularly at the secondary level, is mediated in large part through student engagement. Engagement is increased when students view the course work as meaningful and relevant and are actively involved in learning. Because service learning has the capacity to increase student engagement in precisely these ways, it is an effective classroom management tool. The sections below provide a summary of the benefits of service learning for different groups of students as well as a description of the aspects of service learning that differentiate it from volunteerism and capitalize on its effectiveness. A brief summary of limitations associated with service learning is also provided, followed by recommendations for assessing the impact of service learning.

Critical Elements of Service Learning

Service learning can take many forms, but all involve arranging for students to participate in an organized service activity that meets a community need. Community members, for example, agency personnel or public employees, are considered equal partners in a service learning arrangement. The service activity is selected and designed in collaboration with community partners, keeping in mind the goal of also furthering the students' understanding or allowing them to practice application of specific course content. At the secondary school level, the service activity is often designed in advance by the teacher in conjunction with community partners. The activity relies, at least in part, on knowledge or skills that are part of the teacher's curriculum. The focus on mastery of course content during the service activity is one of the main distinguishing features between service learning and volunteerism.

Service learning differs from simply volunteering one's time in several key ways. First, in a service learning experience, students apply disciplinary or content area expertise to community-identified areas of need; the expectation is that the students apply specific knowledge, skills, or perspectives to real-world problems. Another defining feature of service learning is that the students will also be gaining new discipline-relevant knowledge, skills, and/or perspectives while they engage in the project. In a service learning experience, the

learning is bidirectional. Students apply what they have learned in class (which benefits the community) while simultaneously expanding their knowledge and understanding of class content through their activities in the community (benefiting themselves). A hallmark feature of service learning is that the community is benefited, as well as the students who are engaged.

A feature of successfully designed service learning activities is inclusion of guided reflection. It is strongly recommended that teachers who employ service learning include opportunities for structured reflection within the overall service learning task in order to achieve the strongest benefits for students. Structured reflection activities promote students' stepping back from what they are experiencing in the service site to consider how those experiences connect with what they have learned in the classroom. Incorporation of guided reflection activities, such as journaling or facilitated discussions, is an important element that distinguishes service learning from volunteer work.

Another distinguishing element of service learning is that students are expected to have prolonged engagement in the community in order to better understand and appreciate the specific community problem. Prolonged engagement also has the benefit of allowing students to become familiar with the community partners, thereby diminishing the chance of a dynamic developing whereby students feel like outsiders or mere helpers. As noted earlier, one of the foundational aspects of service learning is the element of reciprocity. Limited, brief contacts do not allow students to get to the point of realizing benefits for themselves. Brief engagement also limits students' ability to reflect in meaningful ways over time about the experience. Some schools and teachers adopt minimums for the number of hours students must spend in the community (e.g., 25–30 hours) before the experience meets the threshold to be considered service learning.

Service Learning in Secondary Schools

In addition to the benefits already highlighted, another benefit of service learning is that it provides a way for educators to increase students' sense of civic responsibility and overall civic engagement. Although it is used most extensively in postsecondary learning environments, service learning has also gained popularity in high school settings. Many high schools throughout the United States have adopted service learning requirements for graduation or have instituted formal service learning programs for students to participate in optionally. A smaller number of middle schools offer service learning programs for students. While service learning as a tool could certainly be used in elementary school

settings, the full impact of independent community involvement and reflection on one's role in communities and societal challenges is most easily experienced by adolescent learners.

Service learning has been linked to a host of positive outcomes for secondary students. Benefits range from personal to social to academic. Generally, community involvement in adolescence can provide exposure to diversity and allow students to develop leadership and teamwork skills. Because the students involved in service learning are out in the community without the traditional school rules to govern their behavior, they have the opportunity to practice authentic problem solving and experience natural consequences.

Students who participate in service learning activities feel more connected to their communities, which can benefit school climate. Many college students and other young adults who volunteer in their communities started their service trajectories by participating in a service learning experience in high school. Together, these benefits draw attention to the fact that some of the most important effects and impacts of service learning may be on distal outcomes that are not easily measured within a semester.

Service learning has also been identified as a practice that can foster meaningful inclusion for secondary students with disabilities when those students are included in service learning activities alongside their peers. Community-based instruction, which also takes place in authentic community settings, is a recommended instructional intervention for promoting positive vocational and other adult outcomes for students with severe disabilities.

Limitations to Service Learning

Although service learning is an effective instructional tool and can be used to aid in overall classroom management, it is not equally useful or applicable to all subject matter or across all grade levels. Some content lends itself well to easily identifiable community needs. Trail restorations and stream or beach clean-ups are examples of common community environmental needs that can be tackled by students who are learning in a science class about erosion, spawning, or the impact of pollutants on aquatic life cycles. For a high school Latin or geometry teacher, connections to locally identified community needs may be less obvious. Additionally, some teachers may identify community partners with authentic needs relevant to the content that cannot be addressed in the time frame allowed, given the constraints of school calendars. Consider, for example, an English teacher who is approached by a nearby community center director wondering if the students in a

high school English class could tutor elementary school students on a writing assignment after school. The teacher may discover that the community center only wants to work with tutors who can commit to at least 6 months of weekly tutoring sessions. This constraint might make the possibility of a service learning assignment attached to the high school English course a difficult proposition.

Certainly, with creativity and persistence, it may be possible to come up with community connections for any content area or find a work-around to any scheduling mismatch. However, it is important to keep in mind that service learning is a pedagogical tool and that not all pedagogical tools are equally appropriate for all instructional goals. Teachers sometimes gravitate to service learning because of a personal commitment to civic engagement and/or a desire to facilitate their students having access to a motivating, high-impact instructional practice. While these are laudable motivations, teachers should carefully consider their instructional goals and consciously weave in service learning requirements at the times and places in the semester where those requirements will help students reach and master the learning objectives.

An additional limitation to service learning—which certainly impacts an assessment of the appropriateness of service learning for a particular course—is the fact that service learning takes a substantial commitment of time both in and out of the classroom. Because the benefits of service learning are greatest when students have the benefit of prolonged engagement and immersion in the community setting, it is not practical to use service learning for every unit or in every class. Service learning may be appropriate for capstone courses or for courses with a specific community-building mission.

Assessment of Service Learning Activities

As described above, service learning activities are designed with specific learning goals in mind. Teachers who use service learning must also include a summative assessment activity in addition to the ongoing reflection activities. Summative assessment for service learning often involves student and community partner presentation of the agreed-upon product or activity, as well as a culminating project that allows the student to demonstrate his or her understanding of the connections between the service hours, the traditional classroom meetings, and any additional readings or assignments that were plausibly connected to the service activity. Grades for culminating projects should be assigned on the basis of students' ability to demonstrate these connections.

Also important is gathering input from the community partners. This input can be incorporated in a

variety of ways. One common practice is for teachers to create opportunities throughout the activity for the community partners to provide evaluative feedback on students' performance in both formative and summative ways. Another important purpose of obtaining community members' feedback is to check to make sure that the community partners' needs were met by the collaboration so that this feedback can inform future collaborative efforts.

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See also Caring Approaches; Climate: School and Classroom; Democratic Practices in Classrooms and Schools; High School and Classroom Management; Motivating Students; Promoting Purpose and Learning Environments; Service Learning and Special Education

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SERVICE LEARNING AND SPECIAL EDUCATION

Service learning has been identified as the active participation of students in thoughtfully organized experiences within the community that simultaneously promote student learning and address an identified community need. In 1979, service learning pioneer Robert Sigmon asserted that service learning only occurs when reciprocal learning takes place, or both the provider and the recipient benefit from the experience. Examples of service learning projects range from simple activities such as having students practice their reading fluency by reading the newspaper aloud to older adults

at an assisted living residence, to complex tasks like building a community garden in an area of high need. In the second example, students might work on research, soil analysis, communication, and organizational skills, as well as practice working with others to accomplish a task.

Working collaboratively is often an important context for students with disabilities to develop social skills. Many students with disabilities will have personal goals focused on the improvement of their social skills in order to prepare them for employment after school. For this reason, service learning, as an educational strategy, has been steadily gaining popularity within special education programs as part of transition planning.

The Importance of Service Learning to Students With Disabilities

To address the problem of adults with disabilities being more likely to be unemployed or underemployed, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA 2004) mandates that all students aged 16 years or older who are receiving services through special education have a transition plan. Research suggests that service learning can improve post-school outcomes in the areas of employment, education, and independent living.

Transition plans include activities to prepare youth for participation in postsecondary education and/or employment. Often these plans focus on life skills such as communication (oral and written), self-awareness, self-advocacy, self-determination, and daily living skills (personal needs, preparing food, health care skills, safety, and financial management). This makes service learning projects ideal for practicing joblike skills in an authentic community environment.

With a tendency to focus on the remediation of weaknesses in special education, students with disabilities often become used to receiving assistance from others and less accustomed to giving assistance. For this and other reasons, students with disabilities often display behaviors associated with learned helplessness, low self-esteem, and low levels of self-efficacy. Deficits in self-efficacy (the belief that one's actions can produce positive results) can lead to behaviors associated with lower achievement in academics and difficulty transitioning to life after school.

Because everyone, regardless of the severity of his or her disability, has something to contribute, students with significant disabilities can still find ways to contribute—for example, by honing their mobility skills when walking dogs from their scooter at the local animal shelter. Students with mild disabilities might study the effects of poor nutrition on brain development and performance in school. The students might then conduct

a health fair open to the students in the school and community members. The youth working on this project could create teams to write informational material, create a cookbook of healthy and fast snacks for children, help design a website, and/or design a public service announcement for the local radio station. By doing so, students can develop a self-identity around their contributing and supporting others, an identity that supports authentic use of skills learned in schools, and that can also support academic skills and enhance self-efficacy and independence.

Implementing a Service Learning Project With Students With Disabilities

In order to implement a service learning project within a special education classroom, there are several steps that have been developed to guide teachers in the design of a meaningful venture. First, teachers should start by identifying the instructional and individual goals for the project and for students. The service learning project should be a natural fit within the curriculum and an extension of the student's individualized education program (IEP). Every public school child receiving special education services must have an IEP. IEPs are designed specifically for each child to identify the appropriate services needed for the student to be successful in school and outlining the student's goals for the year. If a student has an IEP goal associated with oral fluency, a service learning project designed to allow the student to speak to a public audience might be a perfect option. However, this is only a service learning project if someone has identified a need for a public speaker. If there is no identified need, then the project is arbitrary and may not lead to the intended service learning outcomes. Therefore, the identification of an authentic community need is essential for a good service learning project.

Teachers may need to collaborate with representatives from educational organizations, retirement communities, health agencies, day-care centers, food banks, or other service organizations in order to identify an appropriate and genuine service learning activity. To effectively organize the project, teachers will need to involve the appropriate administrators from the school and the organization. It is important to obtain the required approvals before a service learning project is initiated. Likewise, parents should be kept informed of the participation of their child in any service learning project. This is especially important if the minor is working in a community-based organization outside of the school and transportation is required. Signed parental consent might be required for some service learning activities.

Depending on the age and functional level of the students involved with the project, the students may work to identify community needs and to design their own service learning project. In this case, the teacher may serve more as a mentor and guide. It is important to remember that students with disabilities need opportunities to express themselves and be heard. Therefore, as much as possible, teachers should consider involving students in the design of the service learning project.

Students with disabilities may require support to develop the prerequisite skills needed to carry out the project. These skills, including both academic and social skills, might be taught, reinforced, and evaluated prior to initiating the project. Ideally, these skills should be the goals the teacher identified initially in the planning for the service learning project and should correspond with the student's IEP goals.

As the service learning project unfolds, teachers will need to monitor student involvement and assess progress. Evaluation of the project should allow the collection of data based on the initial goals for the students and goals associated with the identified community need. Evaluation of the project should also involve student reflection. Given the opportunity to reflect on their learning and ability to assist others, children tend to internalize feelings of accomplishment, pride, and self-efficacy. Many teachers ask students to keep a journal and reflect on their success during the course of the project. Reflective activities can stimulate student pride, motivation, and feelings of success. Additionally, reflection on setbacks requires students to engage in critical thinking.

Outcomes of Service Learning

When done well, one of the outcomes of service learning is the empowerment students derive from helping others. This is especially significant when implementing a service learning project with students with disabilities who might have limited opportunities to help others. The involvement of administrators, students, families, and community organizations will ensure that the appropriate resources are obtained and that the project has a greater likelihood of success.

Completion of a well-designed service learning project has the potential to accomplish three important outcomes for students with disabilities: (1) significantly increase self-esteem and self-worth through the completion of a project of social importance, (2) actively engage students in curriculum and school-related activities, and (3) counteract negative views of students' worth and ability to assist others in a meaningful way. Additionally, service learning can help students develop empathy and a greater understanding of the social condition of those around them. Service learning has also been linked to

higher academic achievement and higher standardized test scores. Thus, service learning has a potentially central role to play in supporting students with disabilities and their transition to adult life.

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See also Individualized Education Programs; Individuals with Disabilities Education Act; Service Learning; Social Skills: Meanings, Supports, and Training for Developing; Special Education Laws

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SEVERE DISABILITIES AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

One of the main reasons students with severe disabilities (SWSDs) continue to be excluded from general education settings, despite continued advances in educational policies, is that teachers are not prepared for the challenge of instructing learners with problem behaviors. This entry focuses on evidence-based classroom management strategies that can be used to address the challenging behaviors of many SWSDs across settings. Methods for developing Individualized Positive Support Plans with special consideration to this population conclude the entry.

Defining Students With Severe Disabilities

SWSDs include those who have been traditionally classified as having moderate, severe, or profound intellectual disability, autism spectrum disorders, and multiple

disabilities. Recently, definitions from TASH (an international advocacy association for persons with disabilities) and AAIDD (the American Association for Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities) have revised definitions to include the level of support students need to participate in major life activities. Based on these definitions, SWSDs require extensive or pervasive levels of support in more than one major life activity to fully participate in inclusive contexts (e.g., domestic, leisure, educational, community, vocational). These supports often address issues of limited physical and communication abilities, sensory losses, and behavioral challenges. Although the characteristics of SWSDs vary from student to student, many have difficulty learning, maintaining, and generalizing skills.

Changing Curricular Context

SWSD represent less than 1% of the student population. Historically, these students were excluded from public schools, but with the introduction of Public Law 94-142 (i.e., IDEA), public schools were required to include SWSD in the least restrictive environment (e.g., neighborhood schools, inclusive classrooms). Recent federal regulations (e.g., the No Child Left Behind law) require that students make progress in the general education curriculum when provided with appropriate modifications and adaptations. Despite these changes in legislation, as many as 75% of SWSDs remain in self-contained settings with other students with similar needs and separated from their typically developing peers. Often, general education teachers do not feel adequately prepared to meet their needs, and schools and districts do not always have resources to support SWSDs in inclusive settings.

Effective Classroom Management Strategies for SWSDs

One of the primary reasons SWSDs are placed in alternate settings (e.g., special schools, residential facilities) is their challenging behavior; however, when educators collaborate to understand and implement effective strategies for addressing problem behavior proactively, SWSDs can be successful in inclusive settings. This section addresses evidence-based classroom management strategies used across a variety of settings, from fully inclusive to hospital/homebound, including visual supports and schedules, video modeling, peer support interventions, and self-management.

Visual Supports and Schedules

Visual supports, in the form of written words, pictures, or highlighting of salient information, can assist

SWSDs in both the expressive and receptive communication challenges many of them face. Visual supports can be used to convey information about classroom expectations, serve as reminders for appropriate behaviors, or assist students with class assignments. For example, some students may benefit from having a copy of classroom rules at their desk in the form of pictures or written in specific terms (e.g., “Keep hands and feet to yourself” rather than the more abstract rule “Be respectful”).

One type of visual support is a visual schedule, which is a sequence of pictures, objects, or words that outline the activities for the school day. SWSDs often have difficulty transitioning between activities; using visual schedules can help because they can determine what will happen next. Depending on the needs of the student and the classroom, schedules can be used for the whole group, can be individualized, can include activities for the entire school day, or can include one activity broken down into smaller components (e.g., how to calm down). By breaking down the day or activity into smaller components, these activities can seem less overwhelming for some students.

Video Modeling

Video modeling is an evidence-based practice for teaching SWSDs a range of skills (e.g., academic, communication, social, and play skills) and can be used in a variety of settings (e.g., school, home, community). With the increasingly pervasive availability, accessibility, and affordability of mobile devices, video modeling can be particularly appealing because the student can have access to it whenever it is needed. In a video model, an adult, peer, or the student himself or herself demonstrates the desired behavior, which may be a discrete (e.g., raising one’s hand) or chained skill (e.g., going through the line in the cafeteria). One advantage to using video modeling is that it can be used over and over again, with a variety of students and in various settings and situations.

Peer Support Interventions

Peer support interventions are evidence-based and involve teaching one or more peers without disabilities to provide academic, social, and behavioral supports to their classmate in a variety of settings and across grade levels. Erik Carter and his colleagues suggest developing plans for peer support interventions by determining the typical activities, routines, and expectations for all students, evaluating the adaptations and supports needed for the SWSDs to participate, and determining the roles of peers in providing support. Peer support plans should be individualized, consider the strengths and needs of the SWSDs, and work well within the classroom context.

Self-Management

Self-management strategies can be used with SWSDs to help them regulate and monitor their own behavior. Self-management strategies may involve students instructing themselves, setting their own goals, self-monitoring, self-evaluating, and reinforcing themselves. Checklists, wrist counters, visual prompts, or tokens can be used to self-monitor occurrences and nonoccurrences of both problem and desired behaviors. When a student has met his or her goal, he or she can learn to independently ask for and/or deliver his or her own reinforcers.

Developing Individualized Positive Behavior Supports

Although many of the strategies described above can contribute to a successful classroom management plan, some SWSDs will require additional, individualized supports for their challenging behaviors. Understanding the basic tenets of behavior, along with consideration of functional behavior assessments, functional analysis of behavior, and positive behavior interventions and support, is imperative to understanding how to comprehensively address the challenging behaviors of SWSDs; however, since other entries describe these topics in detail, this section will highlight special considerations specific to SWSDs.

Challenging Behavior Has a Function

SWSDs often have challenging and sometimes perplexing problem behaviors, including self-stimulatory (e.g., rocking, twirling hair), aggressive (e.g., pinching others), self-injurious (e.g., head banging, biting oneself), and inappropriate social behaviors (e.g., hugging or touching inappropriately). When evaluating these challenging behaviors, it can be difficult to remember that *all behavior has a function* and that determining the function of a behavior can lead to useful interventions. In the course of trying to determine a behavior’s function, it is helpful to first describe what the behavior *looks like* (i.e., topography), and only then to consider *the reason for the behavior* (i.e., function).

Defining and Assessing Challenging Behavior

Robert O’Neill and his colleagues propose that problem behavior addresses two major functions: to obtain something that is desirable (e.g., attention, objects), or to avoid/escape something undesirable (e.g., tasks, attention). Owing to the unusual problem behaviors some SWSDs engage in, it can be difficult to determine the communicative function of the behavior.

David Westling and Lise Fox suggest that the answer to “What will make the behavior stop?” helps us to identify the consequences that are maintaining the problem behavior. For example, if a student slaps herself whenever she enters her social studies classroom, it is unclear whether she is communicating that (1) the material is too challenging, (2) there is a bully in class, (3) she has a headache, or (4) she wants to work with a group of her peers rather than with her paraprofessional. If she stops slapping herself when she begins to work with her friends, the function of the slapping becomes clear.

Designing Effective Positive Behavior Support Plans

Once the behavior and function have been defined, a team can design a positive behavior support (PBS)

plan. According to Rob Horner and his colleagues, the purpose of a PBS plan is to produce lasting changes by developing prevention strategies (i.e., make the problem behavior *irrelevant*), teaching strategies (i.e., make the problem behavior *inefficient*), consequence strategies (i.e., make the desired behavior more *effective*), and long-term supports (i.e., include lifestyle changes and strategies to sustain *support*). Because several evidence-based strategies exist, and since educators must select a strategy based on the individual needs of the student, Table 1 includes multiple strategies for prevention, teaching, providing consequences, and determining long-term supports for SWSDs. Most of these strategies can be used for students in at all grade levels. Further, general education teachers, special education teachers, paraprofessionals, peers, and students can use many of the strategies to assist SWSDs in developing lasting, meaningful changes.

Table 1 Behavior Support Plan Interventions

| <i>Type of Strategy</i> | <i>Examples</i> |
|-------------------------|---|
| Prevention strategies | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Conduct preference assessments to determine reinforcers ✓ Use visual supports and schedules ✓ Notify students when there are changes in the schedule ✓ Use video modeling of desired replacement behaviors ✓ Modify the environment (e.g., change prompt from “time for bed” to “Let’s read a bedtime story”) ✓ Modify instruction (task length, materials, instruction) ✓ Offer choices of activities ✓ Use the Premack principle (first complete the undesired activity, then you can complete the desired one) ✓ Ask students which reinforcer they would like to earn |
| Teaching strategies | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Implement functional communication training for replacement behaviors ✓ Consider using high and low tech for replacing challenging behaviors ✓ Teach social skills, such as a greeting ✓ Teach play skills ✓ Teach problem-solving skills ✓ Teach students to make requests (e.g., break, help, attention, activities) |
| Consequence strategies | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Shape behavior by reinforcing attempts at desired behavior ✓ Ignore problem behavior that is attention-maintained, if possible ✓ Encourage students to self-monitor behaviors ✓ Provide tokens (or other reinforcers) |
| Long-term supports | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Use person-centered planning to determine a long-term vision for the student ✓ Foster peer relationships ✓ Encourage participation in community events and activities ✓ Ensure desired behaviors are part of transition planning ✓ Provide communication between teachers from year to year ✓ Support families with access to resources |

Implementing, Evaluating, and Revising the PBS Plan

After the team has created the PBS plan based on the function of the behavior and student progress data have been collected over time, the team evaluates whether or not the plan has been effective. Has the plan been implemented with fidelity? If so, has the student made progress? Data from these sources guide the decisions and revisions made by the team. Two considerations for this population: (1) a variety of people usually work with SWSDs, so adequate evaluation of implementation can be a challenge; and (2) SWSDs will likely show progress more slowly than other students. A plan with details on the responsibilities of each team member in meeting the goals of the PBS plan along with short-term benchmarks can ameliorate these problems.

Conclusion

SWSDs benefit from instruction provided in inclusive settings; however, general education and special education teachers, as well as related service providers, will need to collaborate to ensure that SWSDs are able to express their wants and needs without engaging in inappropriate and challenging behaviors. Several classroom management strategies can be provided proactively so that students are less likely to engage in challenging behaviors; however, some SWSDs will require intensive, specialized support using a PBS model to replace such behaviors.

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See also Applied Behavior Analysis; Inclusive Classrooms; Functional Analysis; Functional Behavioral Assessment; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports

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SEXUAL HARASSMENT, SCHOOL-BASED PEER

School-based peer sexual harassment is unwanted sexual attention, comments, and/or touching that interferes with a student's academic performance and educational opportunities. Under Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, sexual harassment is understood as a form of sex discrimination. The law recognizes two forms of sexual harassment: quid pro quo (this for that) and hostile environment. Quid pro quo sexual harassment occurs when someone in a position of power coerces a student to engage in sexual activity under a threat of harm or punishment or in exchange for a benefit.

School-based peer sexual harassment is rarely framed as quid pro quo, although instances of sexual activity in which a student with significantly more power (e.g., a team captain) uses a threat or promises a benefit to coerce sexual compliance may appropriately be considered as quid pro quo. Most school-based peer sexual harassment is understood as contributing to a hostile environment. This form of sexual harassment refers to conduct that creates an intimidating, hostile, or offensive academic environment.

According the definition provided by the U.S. Department of Education Office for Civil Rights (2010, p. 6),

Sexual harassment is unwelcome conduct of a sexual nature, which can include unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, or other verbal, nonverbal, or physical conduct of a sexual nature. Thus, sexual harassment prohibited by Title IX can include conduct such as touching of a sexual nature; making sexual comments, jokes, or gestures; writing graffiti or displaying or distributing sexually explicit drawings, pictures, or written materials; calling students sexually charged names; spreading sexual rumors; rating students on sexual activity or performance; or circulating, showing, or creating e-mails or Web sites of a sexual nature. (<http://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ocr/letters/colleague-201010.pdf>)

Because legal action can only take place after the harm has occurred, it alone cannot serve as a method for creating school environments that are conducive for learning. Instead legislation can best be understood as a tool for helping provide norms for school policies designed to prevent and address peer sexual harassment.

Sexual Harassment, Gender Harassment, and Bullying

While some teachers and administrators are more comfortable collapsing sexual harassment into the generalized category of bullying, the specific sexual and gendered aspects of sexual harassment require independent attention. Bullying refers to a range of harassing behaviors that interfere with a student's psychological well-being and educational performance. Peer sexual harassment is a form of bullying that specifically involves sex and/or gender.

Unlike more generalized forms of bullying, sexual harassment finds its basis in socialized and institutionalized gendered power imbalances and accordingly requires preventive strategies that attend to these imbalances. Moreover, because sexual harassment is considered a form of gender discrimination, bullying and sexual harassment are regulated by different laws.

It is also instructive to draw a distinction between sexual harassment and gender harassment. *Gender harassment* refers to harassing behaviors that focus on a student's perceived failure to adhere to gender norms. These norms are usually relatively local and based on the norms of the dominant group, racial or ethnic, represented in the region or school. The harassing behavior usually takes the form of antigay, homophobic, and/or transphobic slurs, irrespective of the student's known gender identity and sexual orientation. Although any student who engages in gender-nonconforming tasks or behaviors may become the target of gender harassment, girls who are athletes or not stereotypically feminine, boys who are not athletic or not stereotypically masculine, and boys and girls who are perceived as overweight are the most common targets.

Peer sexual harassment is commonly understood to begin in middle school and is correlated with the onset of adolescence. Gender harassment more typically begins in elementary school, in the form of gender-specific comments such as *girls stink* and *no girls allowed* and calling others gay or lesbian in a negative way, often without fully understanding the meaning of the terms. Although peer sexual harassment may be at its peak in middle school, it continues through high school, college, and into the adult workplace.

Prevalence, Nature of, and After-Effects

The American Association of University Women (AAUW) has conducted several seminal studies on the issue of peer sexual harassment in schools. Much of the information that follows reflects the findings of AAUW research. According to AAUW research, the most prevalent type of school-based peer sexual harassment is

nonphysical harassment in the form of unwelcome sexual comments, jokes, looks, or gestures. The second most prevalent type of sexual harassment is physical harassment in the form of being touched, grabbed, or pinched in a sexual way. Sexual harassment of the first type may take place in person, or through text, email, or social media. Often, students who are harassed through social media are also harassed in person.

The majority of school-based sexual harassment takes place in public, most often in school hallways, classrooms, and cafeterias, in the presence of others. Harassment also takes place in physical education classes, locker rooms, schoolyards, and school buses. Most students witness sexual harassment taking place on a regular basis. As much as 90% of sexual harassment is not reported, and when it is reported, it is often the case that there are no consequences to the perpetrator. Perhaps because of its prevalence and the corresponding lack of intervention, perpetrators of sexual harassment believe that their behavior is *no big deal*, *just a joke*, an attempt to be funny, and just a part of school life.

School-based peer sexual harassment affects girls and boys differently. Overall, girls are more likely than boys to experience all forms of sexual harassment at a higher rate. Girls are more likely than boys to be sexually harassed both in person and via text, email, or social media. Common targets of sexual harassment are girls who develop early, are more developed than their peers, are judged to be pretty, are judged not to be pretty, are judged to be overweight, are perceived as masculine, and are perceived to be too sexual. In short, any girl may be a target of sexual harassment. Girls who are singled out as too sexual (irrespective of their sexual behavior or lack thereof) are called sluts and whores and must contend with speculations and rumors about their alleged sexual behavior.

Girls are also more likely to be negatively affected by sexual harassment. Because girls are more likely to both experience peer sexual harassment and to be negatively affected by it, peer sexual harassment leads to more significant negative educational and psychological outcomes for girls.

The form of peer sexual harassment that boys are most likely to experience is gender harassment. Although boys and girls experience being called gay or lesbian in a negative way at equal rates, boys find this type of harassment significantly more troubling than girls do.

The emotional distress of being harassed affects students' educational productivity and performance. The common consequences of experiencing sexual harassment are having trouble sleeping, not wanting to go to school, feeling *sick to my stomach*, having a hard time concentrating on studying, changing the route taken

to and from school, quitting an activity or sport, and changing or dropping a class. The negative psychological effects of harassment include students feeling upset, worthless, and hopeless. Both boys and girls report increased feelings of shame about their bodies.

Race and socioeconomic class may also have an effect on how students experience sexual harassment. Students of color and students from moderate-income or low-income homes are significantly more likely to say that sexual harassment has had a negative impact on them. These students are more likely to stay home, terminate their participation in an activity, and change their route to and from school as a result of experiencing harassment.

What Schools Can Do

There are many ways in which administrators and teachers can address and work to prevent sexual harassment in their schools. It is extremely important that students know who they can talk to about sexual harassment when it occurs. Title IX stipulates that schools must have a coordinator who is designated to manage Title IX violations, including sexual harassment complaints. Administrators can ensure that their schools have such coordinators, and that they are adequately trained and given the resources necessary to handle the complaints. Having one coordinator is the minimum required, but ideally schools should have a team of trained liaisons, consisting of faculty, staff, and coaches, with whom students know they can discuss instances of peer sexual harassment. Offering additional avenues for students to make anonymous reports can increase their willingness to report instances of sexual harassment.

One of the most important components of a peer sexual harassment prevention strategy is education. First, the school needs to have a sexual harassment policy in place. Staff and faculty should be appropriately trained about peer sexual harassment and the school's policy. Next, students need to be educated about what sexual harassment is, its effects, and the school's policy, including consequences for sexually harassing one's peers and how to report such instances. The ideal proactive scenario is to integrate discussions about sexual harassment into the curriculum. Families should also be made aware of the school's peer sexual harassment policy.

By having a clear policy in place, administrators can provide guidelines for staff to follow when they witness or receive reports of sexual harassment. It is important that teachers address sexual harassment when they see it immediately, by naming the behavior and saying that it must stop. The incident can be an additional educational opportunity to talk to students about sexual harassment. School policy should be followed regarding

consequences for those who sexually harass others, such as sending them to the appropriate administrator's office and notifying the families.

When a student approaches her or his teacher to report an instance of sexual harassment, it is important that the teacher respectfully listen without voicing judgment of the student. The student should be encouraged to write down everything that she or he can recall, including any witnesses who may have seen the incident. The teacher should be aware of and able to advise the student about her or his rights and options for moving forward. Teachers can help students feel supported by offering to accompany or assist students if they want to report instances to school officials.

Conclusion

By building classroom cultures and school climates of community and respect, countless instances of sexual harassment can be prevented. Given the disturbingly high rates of emotional distress students experience from attending school in a hostile environment, it is important for administrators to make preventing sexual harassment a top priority for their students' safety and success.

Jo Trigilio and Jessica Nelson

See also Bullying, Gender Differences in; Bullying and Bullying Prevention; Bullying and the Law; Cyberbullying; Schoolwide Discipline Policies; Sexual Orientation and Classroom Management

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SEXUAL ORIENTATION AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Understanding how sexual orientation affects the well-being of students in schools is complex largely because the cultures of schools have historically placed lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer/questioning (LGBTQ) students in emotional and physical danger. Because schools reflect the social mores of the larger

society, this entry first considers how schools have reinforced the heteronormative values pervasive in the dominant culture, then considers the legal status of LGBTQ students, teachers, and administrators within schools. Next, the contemporary experiences of LGBTQ students in classrooms and schools will be explored. Finally, the entry examines models of supportive classroom and school environments that have been developed by organizations, educators, and communities.

The Heteronormative Institution of School

Many social theorists have identified the institution of school as an organization that serves to reproduce the existing social order. Schools enculturate youth into a society by valuing and rewarding certain behaviors and beliefs. This includes defining and reinforcing normative behaviors and beliefs concerning sexual orientation and gender expressions.

Throughout most of the twentieth century, homosexuality was considered a degenerate lifestyle by the larger society and classified as a mental disorder by the medical community. The emerging research on sexuality in the early twentieth century cast sexual orientation as binary. Heterosexuality was viewed as the healthy lifestyle, while homosexuality was viewed as deviant.

Homophobia in schools and the larger society manifests in the verbal, physical, and sexual harassment of individuals with diverse sexual orientations and individuals who fail to conform to gender roles. This homophobic mindset views all diverse sexual orientations and gender expressions as a threat to a patriarchal, heteronormative world. As a result, an antigay culture of verbal abuse, heteronormative monitoring, and sometimes physical assault permeates many school cultures. Indeed, expressions surrounding sexual orientation and gender are part of the deep cultural structures of public schools. All aspects of formal schooling reinforce heteronormative values. Every day, students are both formally and informally socialized toward heterosexual behaviors, identities, and relationships. Only heterosexuality is legitimized by school culture. This can be seen in school traditions such as prom king and queen pairings, as well as the official school curriculum: in health and science classes, only heterosexuality is mentioned, while the historic records and the literary canons students are exposed to are sanitized so as to exclude any significant mention of diverse sexual orientations.

Adolescence is a time when sexual and gender identities are being formed. As such, heightened scrutiny and policing of others' sexual and gender development occurs. Acceptance is a subtle mechanism of social control, especially in secondary schools. As such, sexual orientation and gender identity are regulated by a school

culture that accepts only a heterosexual orientation and demands gender conformity.

Diverse gender behaviors are seen as maladaptive and are often admonished by peers and adults alike. The stigma and victimization experienced by LGBTQ students, as well as some heterosexual students, relates directly to levels of their gender nonconformity. Heterosexual boys whose mannerisms and dress challenge gender norms are less accepted by peers and are often the victims of verbal and physical abuse. In fact, homosexual name calling is often viewed by young men as worse than physical abuse. Schools reinforce these gender rules through dress codes. In the past, girls in schools were restricted from wearing slacks. Today, many boys are banned from having long hair or wearing jewelry or skirts.

Furthermore, public schools throughout the twentieth century provided little or no accurate information about sexual orientation. There was no formalized sexual education in public schools until the 1980s. Materials concerning sexual diversity are still not available in school libraries and media centers. Merely discussing homosexuality in schools is seen as promoting homosexuality as a way of life, even recruiting youth into the lifestyle. For much of the history of public school, and in many places today, when it comes to diverse sexual orientations, schools remain silent.

In the end, attitudes toward homosexuality and gender nonconformity have changed little since the turn of the twentieth century within schools and the larger society. While some progress has been achieved through legal avenues, gender conformity and homophobic attitudes continue to shape school settings.

Sexual Orientation, Schools, and the Law

Public schools are government agencies that are shaped by and adhere to laws, statutes, and guidelines. Therefore, laws and legal rulings concerning sexual orientation and public schools can help shape our understanding of the relationship between schools and individuals with diverse sexual orientations and gender expressions.

First, laws do not sufficiently protect LGBTQ faculty in schools. Historically, laws have worked to silence and exclude LGBTQ individuals from working in public schools. For example, sexual orientation is not a protected category under Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, which prevents employers from discriminating in the hiring process. Specifically, in the 1950s some state legislators called for the removal of gay, lesbian, and bisexual personnel from public schools. In fact, suspicion of homosexuality was enough to terminate tenured teachers on the grounds that they transgressed communities' moral standards. In the 1970s, state and

local ballot initiatives to ban LGBTQ individuals from working in public schools surfaced. One example was Proposition 6, introduced in California in 1978, that would have prevented gays and lesbians from teaching in public schools. The initiative failed.

In 1969 some progress was made when the California Supreme Court in *Morrison v. State Board of Education* ruled that teachers' private actions can only influence employment matters if their conduct influences their teaching ability or negatively affects the learning environment. The California State Board of Education had revoked Morrison's teaching license after knowledge of a homosexual affair surfaced in the community. The court ruled in Morrison's favor. Yet, in *Gaylord v. Tacoma School Dist. No. 10* (1977), Gaylord was discharged for publicly admitting to his homosexuality. The Supreme Court of Washington ruled that Gaylord's choice to be gay was immoral and that the scandal would result in his ineffectiveness as an educator.

There are some current legal tools to fight discrimination based on sexual orientation in schools for students. For example, school districts that do not protect LGBTQ students from harassment could be liable for damages under Title IX of the Education Amendments Act of 1972, but only if the school deliberately ignores the harassment. Some court decisions have also protected the rights of LGBTQ students.

In *Fricke v. Lynch* (1980), a gay high school senior in Rhode Island challenged his school's ban on same-sex couples attending prom and won. In 1996 the constitutional obligation of public schools to treat the harassment and violence toward LGBTQ students as other offenses was established in *Nabozny v. Padlesny*. In this case, the principal blamed the physical violence and verbal abuse Nabozny suffered on his decision to be openly gay, though he had received severe injuries from group attacks that included instances of urination and mock rape. Nabozny was awarded close to \$1,000,000 in damages.

Another legal victory occurred in Utah in 1999 when the Supreme Court ruled that the East High Gay Straight Alliance was permitted to meet at the high school after having been barred by the school's administration. Similarly in 2003, the Boyd County High School GSA was allowed access to school facilities after the local board of education had suspended all student groups from meeting on school grounds (in an attempt to prevent the GSA from meeting there), but permitted some groups to continue. It should be noted that these rights have been won after long-standing discrimination and harassment. While recent court decisions have protected LGBTQ students from discriminatory practices, these cases evidence the hostile environment many LGBTQ students find themselves in at school.

Currently there are only about a dozen states that prohibit sexual orientation discrimination. Wisconsin, one of the earliest to do so, mandated in 1991 that all school districts adopt policies that forbid the harassment of LGBTQ students. Often local city and county laws are the only avenues for redress. At the beginning of the twenty-first century, 14 states maintained bans on consensual sodomy, and only 13 provided equal protection with regard to sexual orientation.

LGBTQ Experiences in School

It is well documented that LGBTQ students and students who do not adhere to gender norms experience harassment in school. Discrimination based on diverse sexual orientation or gender nonconformity touches every area of student life, including academics and social relations. Harassment leads to isolation, which leads to educational and social problems such as less class participation and reduced participation in school activities. Often teachers and administrators fail to address these instances of harassment or are themselves perpetrators of the harassment.

In 1991 the National Education Association (NEA) recognized that LGBTQ students experience hostility and neglect in school environments. Certainly, harassment due to sexual orientation or gender nonconformity affects mental health and school performance. It is well documented that the majority of LGBTQ students continue to face harassment and violence in schools. Nearly all students report hearing homophobic remarks daily, and about half report hearing these comments frequently. Sadly, there have been few interventions. Studies show that school personnel rarely intervene when students are harassed due to sexual orientation or gender nonconformity. Indeed, many school personnel maintain and reinforce homophobic/heteronormative environments. As such, more than half of LGBTQ students report not feeling safe in their schools.

Homophobia in schools leads to low self-esteem and damaging behaviors. LGBTQ students report higher levels of depression, suicidal thoughts, and drug use. The majority of LGBTQ students will be victimized, which includes verbal abuse, threats of violence, and both physical and sexual assault. Those frequently victimized will experience increased anxiety and depression along with a diminished sense of school belonging. Support from friends and family may not be enough to insulate LGBTQ students from the most homophobic school environments.

Additionally LGBTQ students are more likely to feel unliked and more likely to feel that others are unfriendly. Many experience school trouble such as lower grade point averages and truancy. In the end, LGBTQ students

will more likely be victimized, abuse drugs, attempt suicide, drop out, feel isolated, lack adult role models, be truant, and perform poorly academically.

Many LGBTQ students talk of isolation. In 1995 the NEA called on schools to make LGBTQ people visible in the curriculum. Diverse sexual orientations, they maintain, should be included whenever lessons on sexuality, diversity, stereotyping, and tolerance are being taught. Notwithstanding, there remains little information or resources in most schools concerning LGBTQ issues. Gay Straight Alliances, discussed in the next section, are absent more than present from school landscapes and controversial when they exist. Yet safety issues regarding the harassment of LGBTQ students are of increased concern as nearly half the attacks of LGBTQ adolescents take place at schools.

A positive school climate that provides support for LGBTQ students is essential in ameliorating oppressive school environments where homophobia, heteronormativity, and the victimization of students with diverse sexual orientations and gender expressions flourish. Advocates have called for school policies that protect LGBTQ students, training for school personnel, school-based support groups, information on diverse sexual orientations in school libraries and media centers, and the hiring of LGBTQ teachers.

Programs That Support LGBT Students and Families

Educators and LGBTQ advocates question whether schools can teach LGBTQ students effectively when the school climate and their treatment interfere with students' ability to learn. Learning is difficult in an atmosphere of hostility and violence. A few have suggested separate schools for LGBTQ students. In 2003 Harvey Milk High School became the first public school for LGBTQ students. The school had operated privately at the Hetrick-Martin Institute since 1985. Yet this approach has been criticized as it segregates students and does not call for change in the practices or culture of public schools.

The Gay, Lesbian, Straight Educational Network (GLSEN) is the nation's largest homosexual advocacy group. Founded by Ken Jennings in 1984, GLSEN works to make schools safe places for LGBTQ students. While GLSEN's stated mission is "to assure that each member of every school community is valued and respected regardless of sexual orientation or gender identity/expression" (www.glsen.org), the organization's detractors believe that GLSEN promotes and encourages alternative sexual orientations and discriminates against conservative, religious values. GLSEN coordinates local LGBTQ groups known largely as Gay Straight Alliances (GSAs).

GSAs began in the late 1980. Newtown South High, Concord Academy, and Philips Academy were the first secondary schools in Massachusetts to form GSAs in response to pervasive homophobic bullying. These groups are dedicated to the discussion of LGBTQ issues, education of the larger school community, support for LGBTQ students and their families, and activism and advocacy for LGBTQ causes. There are currently close to 5,000 GSAs in operation.

GSAs are controversial, especially in conservative areas, because they promote affirmative images of homosexuality. Conservative groups and individuals, many from fundamentalist religious traditions, have worked to prevent schools from presenting homosexuality positively. Ironically, GSAs are protected under the Federal Equal Access Act of 1984, which prohibits school districts from discriminating against extracurricular groups and was enacted to protect religious clubs that wanted to use school facilities.

Students who attend schools with GSAs report less homophobic rhetoric. Also, students in schools with GSAs report knowing about teachers, administrators, and other school personnel who are supportive of LGBTQ students. There is evidence that GSAs promote a tolerant, accepting climate for LGBTQ students as well as for students who do not conform to conventional gender roles. Experts agree that a student-led GSA in a school is the factor most likely to create a healthy environment for LGBTQ students.

Massachusetts' Safe School Program (SSP) for gay and lesbian students began in 1993 and is considered an exemplar as to how states and districts can make schools and classrooms safe and welcoming for LGBTQ students. The SSP promotes the support and safety of LGBTQ students. It brings information to school communities with increased regard and respect for sexual diversity. The SSP encourages policies that protect LGBTQ students, training for school personnel, formation of support groups, and counseling services for families.

Conclusion

Although today's schools have come a long way toward including LGBTQ students, there is still a long way to go. LGBTQ students are still often victims of harassment and exclusion. They need supports to ensure their safety and well-being. Supportive administrators, teachers, and school personnel can have the strongest influence on the positive school-related attitudes and behaviors of LGBTQ students. Indeed, positive relationships with teachers play a significant role in cultivating affirming attitudes on the part of LGBTQ students toward schooling and developing productive academic and social behaviors in LGBTQ students, such as paying attention

in class, completing homework regularly, and working cooperatively with others. It is undeniable that homophobia and heterosexism are detrimental to all students. Teachers, administrators, and other school personnel need to acquire the dispositions, skills, and confidence to address homophobic rhetoric, challenge the prevailing heteronormative culture, and create safe learning environments for LGBTQ students.

j. Zack

See also Bullying and Bullying Prevention; Cyberbullying; Gender and Classroom Management; Homophobia; Safety, Policies for Ensuring; Sexual Harassment, School-Based Peer

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SHARING AUTHORITY

A central assumption underlying all matters of classroom management is that the teacher is the authority in charge and is responsible for structuring a positive learning environment for students. Teachers who consciously and actively seek to share some of this authority with students report reaping large rewards, including better assessment knowledge of students, increased student self-regulation, and greater enthusiasm and cooperation in the classroom.

Dimensions of Authority

The authority of teachers in any classroom must be understood as having two dimensions; that is, the teacher is *in* authority for classroom procedures—who does what, when, where, and how; and the teacher is *an* authority—what knowledge is authorized, sanctioned, and included in the classroom discourse. Thus, regarding teacher authority, there is a content dimension in which the teacher is authorized to share aspects of our culture with learners, and there is simultaneously a process dimension of the teacher’s authority wherein the teacher is responsible for organizing the classroom materials, time, space, and also mediating social, emotional, cognitive, and physical interactions among peers. Clearly, these are both enormous jobs and are simultaneously interwoven and interact with each other.

Opportunities to share authority with students abound and, indeed, can be remarkably powerful in creating a sense of shared commitment and responsibility for learning. In a democratic society, schools are places in which students must learn *about* democracy (civics, social studies), yet the most enduring lessons in democratic living are often a result of direct experience with democratic deliberation and decision making.

Teachers who seek to teach *through* democracy are cognizant that opportunities must be created for students to engage in dialogue and in problem posing and problem solving. Even when classroom curriculum is heavily prescriptive and regulated (as with scripted curricula, publishing companies’ teachers’ guides, or district-level requirements), teachers are always making minute-by-minute decisions about what student questions to answer and what deviations from the plan will be permitted.

Exploring matters related to *content authority*, many teachers seek to make connections with students’ knowledge, prior experiences, and current interests. Scaffolding from students’ schema (citation) to new knowledge is an essential act in teaching. Thus, the more clues a teacher has regarding students’ knowledge, experience, and interests, the greater will be the teacher’s ability to make learning meaningful and possible for students.

The challenge here is, of course, that it is relatively easy to do this with one student, or a handful, but requires deliberate planning for interactive participation structures within a classroom to do it with a large group. The larger the class size, the harder it can be to know and understand the often diverse identities and always wide-ranging learning needs the students bring with them into the classroom.

The Dialogic Approach to Teaching

Sharing classroom and teacher authority with students grows from the understanding that knowledge is not

always transmittable and that teaching is not just telling. Certainly, some facts and information are transferable from the teacher's head to the students' heads, and undeniably most forms of traditional schooling depend most heavily on this approach, which is what noted educator Paulo Freire called the *banking model* of teaching. Following this model, which we all know, the teacher tells the student what they are to learn, the student receives this information, and then the teacher evaluates how well the student has regurgitated the information or facts. However, knowledge requires more than simple memorization. Knowledge implies networks of connected information. Understanding then comes when this knowledge is connected to the learners' lives, prior experiences, and what they have learned before. Thus, constructing understanding is a dialogic, rather than didactic, process.

A dialogic approach to teaching requires that teachers allow for students to initiate along both the process and content dimensions of authority. Certainly, all teachers know that all children and youth, unless they are depressed and withdrawn, are full of ideas and continually share the connections they are making between new information or knowledge and prior information or experience. Present any text (a poem, a book, a video clip, etc.) to students in the classroom and they are almost always able to make what Marilyn Cochran-Smith called a text-to-self connection. Teachers who share authority with students make room for these connections and sometimes even build them into the curriculum.

Take, for example, the case of a sixth-grade social studies teacher whose class was studying early history and was learning about how humans organized their lives as hunters and gatherers. While making a list on the board about characteristics of the lives of nomads, one student asked, "Are homeless people nomads?" The teacher immediately saw an opportunity to make a connection and led the class in creating a Venn diagram of the similarities and differences between nomads and homeless people. In this way, the student had directed the cognitive work of the classroom, and her intellectual initiation was followed. An important message was sent by this teacher. What the student and the class may have learned from this split-second decision of the teacher is that asking questions about the world will be encouraged in this classroom and that their ideas are valuable. By authorizing the student's question as important, and spending class time on her inquiry, the student is positioned as a thinker who has important contributions to make to community knowledge. By following only a few student initiations, teachers can easily bring students into directing the flow of classroom learning and reinforce their focus and interest in learning.

Likewise, teachers can also share the process dimension of authority by building in student choice. Choice is a powerful mechanism by which humans learn to self-regulate. Choices may be small, such as "Find a spot in the room where you can work quietly and not be distracted," or large, such as "For this unit design a presentation format to share your knowledge with the class; this may be a poster, a video, a report, a graphic novel, a song, a slide show, or another format of your choice." By designing places, times, and formats for students to make decisions about their learning, teachers scaffold students' metacognition about their own learning, help students organize their time and their bodies, and thus help students mature and build both independence and interdependence with others.

Sharing Authority Is Not Abandoning Authority

When teachers first consider sharing their authority with students, they sometimes operate from a very common misconception that such teaching is *laissez-faire* (anything goes) and fear that students might run amok in the classroom. This image of turning over teacher authority to a group of students who vastly outnumber the teacher is clearly not appealing, nor is it a good recipe for effective instruction. Sharing authority as a teacher should not be confused with abandoning that authority or abdicating it. Students are much more able to take risks and make initiations when they know there are clear and safe boundaries for their explorations.

This is particularly true and apparent when it comes to sharing authority for classroom *process*: who gets to do what, where, when, and how. The teacher must decide at which points students are free to move around the room, for example, to sharpen pencils, get a book that is needed, or put paper in a recycling bin. If students are permitted to share authority for such classroom processes, it can often allow the teacher to spend more time on the cognitive work of the classroom. For instance, when watching a video, an eighth grader noticed the screen would be easier to see if the lights were dimmed, so he got up from his seat and adjusted the lights. This small action helped everyone in the class. He did not first seek permission from the teacher; he simply noticed that something needed to be done and did it. In some classrooms, no one is ever allowed to get out of a seat without permission, and in other classrooms, teachers may worry about what to do if other students popped up at the same time to turn down the lights. However, when teachers do share such process authority with a classroom full of students, they are helping to support young people to take responsibility for the world around them and act on their analysis of what needs to be done.

In such classrooms, students come to see the classroom as a space where they have ownership and belong. This typically results in greater investment in learning.

Affordances and Liabilities

Sharing authority can also produce new problems for the teacher. Any approach, including sharing authority, in the classroom comes with both affordances and liabilities. One common challenge for teachers who open up the classroom floor to students' initiations is the challenge of student initiatives coming so fast and so furiously that the result is confusion and disappointment. There is just not enough time in the day to follow all student initiations. This then requires that teachers follow some initiations and not others.

But which ones should the teacher follow and which ones could he or she direct the students to follow on their own, and when should the teacher stop following student-initiated actions altogether? These are obviously questions without any formulaic answer. The teachers who are most satisfied with sharing authority with students are the teachers who experiment a little with following some student initiations and who simultaneously develop strong boundaries and set clear expectations. This means that students need to know when initiations will be accepted and when they should follow teacher directions. After all, the teacher is assumed—and indeed is paid to be—the person more knowledgeable about what experiences and knowledge most count in our world and are most needed for the students' future.

It is students, however, who are often more knowledgeable than the teacher about popular culture, community events, and the shifting social-emotional lives of themselves and their peers. A teacher who listens to students' connections and initiations gains more authority because he or she is more knowledgeable about students' understandings and interests. Thus, a teacher who shares authority by opening up the classroom floor to student initiations does not lose any authority at all, but actually gains it. This is a fascinating aspect of sharing authority in the classroom in that it is not like sharing a cookie, where if I share some with you, I have less for myself. Sharing authority in the classroom is clearly not a zero-sum game. The more opportunities the teacher creates for getting into the heads and hearts of students, the more he or she knows how to organize classroom life and design meaningful instruction.

Concluding Remarks

Sharing teacher authority can be thought of as a sort of dance, one where the teacher often leads the dance of

the classroom by deciding what music to play and which dance move to teach. And then the teacher can invite students to bring new music into the mix and watch students create new moves on their own. The teacher then watches and listens to learn the students' rhythms and movements, learning from them and with them. Teachers who share authority with students do not hesitate to teach them established dances, but they also learn new ones and together, as a class of learners, create new dances the world has yet to see.

Celia Oyler

See also Authority, Children's Concepts of; Cogenerative Dialogue and Urban Classrooms; Collaborative Approach to Classroom Management; Community Approaches to Classroom Management; Democratic Practices in Classrooms and Schools; Ecological Approaches; Progressive Education

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SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL LEARNING

Schools in general—and classrooms in particular—are complicated, dynamic environments in which social and emotional learning evolves alongside academic learning. In fact, today's research suggests the two are inseparable, with both needing teachers' support. In particular, today's research shows that student achievement is greater when the social-emotional landscape of a classroom is well tended to, and when teachers build learning *communities* and not just classrooms for test preparation and acquiring academic knowledge and skills.

Doing so is complicated by a growing number of children who enter our schools with a lack of basic social skills; they do not know how to interact positively with others, solve problems, follow directions, or manage

their emotions. In other words, they need special support for their social and emotional learning. This entry focuses on how social and emotional learning has come to play such an important role in educating children and on what is involved in promoting social and emotional learning or SEL, as it is more commonly referred to.

History of SEL

Children's social and emotional development has been the concern of educators throughout history. In the United States, this concern showed in nineteenth-century habit training as well as in the progressive education and mental hygiene movements in the first half of the twentieth century. Prior to the 1970s, the emphasis was on explaining children's problem behavior in terms of rewards and punishments, how classrooms were set up, and underlying psychopathology or the potential for psychopathology.

In the 1970s, an important new emphasis began to emerge. Educators and therapists began to see negative behaviors more as the result of skill deficits. So, rather than relying on rewards and punishments, classroom set-up, and responding to negative behaviors therapeutically, educators began to explicitly teach positive prosocial behaviors that need to be taught much like how academic subjects need to be taught. This more educational approach was initially the focus of remediation for a select group of challenging children; however, it was soon adopted for the general population of school-age children.

The approach was bolstered 20 years later when psychologist Daniel Goleman published his groundbreaking book, *Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ*. Goleman's book popularized the concept of emotional intelligence (EQ) as being a critical component of human success alongside intelligence, as measured by IQ. Emotional intelligence is the ability to identify, assess, and control one's emotions while recognizing and responding appropriately to the emotions of others. The basic skills accounting for emotional intelligence include perspective taking, relationship building, self-regulation, and conflict resolution, and it is these skills that came to be targeted for instruction and support—so as to improve students' positive behavior and essential classroom navigation skills while reducing negative behaviors such as relational aggression and bullying.

Defining SEL and the Conditions and Evidence for Its Success

More clearly defined, SEL is an approach for helping students develop the fundamental skills for leading effective and positive lives. SEL teaches children the

skills they need to handle themselves, their relationships, and their complex school environments proactively and confidently. It includes the skills of recognizing and managing emotions, developing empathy for others, establishing positive relationships, making responsible decisions, and handling challenging situations constructively. These are the skills that allow children to calm themselves when angry, make friends, resolve conflicts respectfully, and make ethical and positive choices. SEL has three major components: *demonstration of desired behaviors*, *guided practice*, and *successful reinforcing experiences*.

Character education, positive behavior supports, and prosocial skills training (e.g., Skillstreaming) are complementary and overlapping approaches to SEL. What defines an SEL approach is, at the core, an emphasis on consistent, focused, developmentally appropriate, sequenced social skill-building instruction in a caring school environment.

While SEL targets individual student's behaviors and develops a set of social skills, it also provides a framework for classroom management and school improvement. The most successful SEL programs provide sequential and developmentally appropriate instruction in a targeted set of social skills across grades. Successful programs also have shared school language and consistent practices, provide time in the schedule for students to complete their work, and have focused professional development for teachers and staff.

SEL builds students' capacities to handle themselves constructively and improve their academic performance. A landmark review found that students who receive SEL instruction had more positive attitudes about school and improved, on average, by 11 percentage points on standardized achievement tests compared to students who did not receive SEL instruction.

SEL Programs

Many schools have either put into practice or begun to look for SEL programs that suit their programmatic needs and demographics.

There are many SEL programs being used, some more successful than others. It is critical to find a program or an approach that best fits the school's culture, budget, time, and resource allocation.

An informative resource for evaluating SEL programs is the *Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning* (CASEL). In 1994, Daniel Goleman, Eileen Rockefeller Growald, and a group of researchers and practitioners founded CASEL. CASEL's mission is to advance the research and the teaching of SEL. A major piece of work done by this organization is the publication of *The 2013 CASEL Guide to SEL*

programs. It identifies 23 well-designed, evidence-based SEL programs.

Two of these programs with widespread implementation are Responsive Classroom and Developmental Designs. These are research-based pedagogical approaches to classroom management that help decrease problem behaviors, improve social skills, develop a strong sense of community, improve academic achievement, and increase personal responsibility for students. Designed for elementary-age students, Responsive Classroom encourages teachers to target the first 6 weeks of school as community building, routine, and expectation setting time. Doing so lays a solid foundation for the remainder of the year. The program carefully defines the physical environment needed to support social learning, the time needed to co-create classroom rules, the process for beginning each day with a morning meeting, and practice for developing social skills such as active listening and handling distractions. *Teaching Children to Care*, *The First Six Weeks of School*, *Rules in Schools*, *Classroom Spaces That Work*, and *The Power of Our Words* are few of the many books and resources offered by the Northeast Foundations for Children in support of this work.

Created for middle schoolers, Developmental Designs addresses adolescents' developmental need for autonomy, competence, relationship, and fun. With support from advisors, students are guided to feel connected, heard, empowered, and safe and have structures and practices in place to successfully navigate middle school social and academic demands.

No matter what program a school chooses, it should contain specific goals, a list of targeted skills, and a set of competencies to develop. For example, CASEL has identified five social and emotional competencies to teach:

- *Self-awareness*—accurately assessing one's feelings, interests, values, and strengths; maintaining a well-grounded sense of self-confidence;
- *Self-management*—regulating one's emotions to handle stresses, control impulses, and persevere in overcoming obstacles; setting and monitoring progress toward personal and academic goals; expressing emotions appropriately;
- *Social awareness*—being able to take the perspective of and empathize with others; recognizing and appreciating individual and group similarities and differences; recognizing and using family, school, and community resources;
- *Relationship skills*—establishing and maintaining healthy and rewarding relationships based on cooperation; resisting inappropriate social pressure; preventing,

managing, and resolving interpersonal conflict; seeking help when needed;

- *Responsible decision making*—making decisions based on consideration of ethical standards, safety concerns, appropriate social norms, respect for others, and likely consequences of various actions; applying decision-making skills to academic and social situations; contributing to the well-being of one's school and community.

As with any set of skills to be taught and measured in classrooms, there should be a schoolwide sequence addressing the particular needs of different age groups. In the younger grades, the focus should be on self-discovery and self-regulation. Children can be explicitly taught how to recognize and differentiate and then manage their emotions and emotional experiences. They can be helped to build their emotional vocabulary and learn to make I-statements to manage conflict and to communicate effectively. They can play reinforcing games that require self-control and collaboration.

For middle school students wrestling with issues of identity and intimacy, SEL goals are more apt to focus on fostering independence and building interpersonal skills central to friendships. Explicitly learning how to arrange problems by importance, deal with others' anger, defend one's rights, and resolve conflicts by de-escalating or mediating are examples of skills needing to develop for adolescents. Conversations, role playing, and individual and small group support can help adolescents manage ongoing questions of inclusion and exclusion, bullying issues, and the role of the bystander and upstander. These skills must be taught just as explicitly as a math algorithm.

Explicit instruction helps middle schoolers learn to manage stress, plan time, ask for help, embrace multiple intelligences in themselves and others, and make decisions about having a healthy, balanced lifestyle. These are indeed lifelong skills for leading successful, happy, and more connected professional and personal lives, so developing these skills during middle school has implications for success in high school and beyond.

Conclusion

Research has shown that SEL is critical to academic success, and that teachers need to support the development of both EQ and IQ. Furthermore, evidence-based programs have shown how SEL can be broken down into a set of skills to be taught, modeled, and nurtured through students practicing and being reinforced for making use of the skills taught.

A number of SEL programs are available to teachers and schools to help them break down the scope, sequence, and execution of SEL skills.

For SEL programs to succeed, teachers must be supported by their administration, make a commitment of their time and energy, and expend resources for professional development. Current research on SEL suggests doing so is worth it, as children will benefit and be more likely to succeed in school and beyond.

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See also Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning; Emotion Regulation; Mental Hygiene Movement; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; Progressive Education; Schoolwide Positive Behavior Supports

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SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL LEARNING FOR YOUNG CHILDREN

Social and emotional learning has long been a cornerstone of early childhood education, and a major endeavor in teaching for social and emotional learning is that of helping young children label, communicate, and understand their feelings and the feelings of others. Doing so can be central to young children's developing ability to regulate their own emotions and show care and respect for the feelings of others. Furthermore, doing so has implications for the future, as research has shown that strong social and emotional skills in early childhood are linked to both future academic success and the

development of positive relationships. This entry describes several developmentally appropriate practices that can be used in early childhood classrooms to help young children label, communicate, and understand feelings.

Age and Fostering Communication About Feelings

Toddlers often need help with naming their emotions, and teachers can help them acquire the necessary language by reflecting their emotions back to them.

Oliver and Audrey, both 18 months old, are playing next to each other in the sandbox. Audrey reaches over and grabs Oliver's shovel, and he begins to cry. Their teacher, Maria, comes over to console him: "I see that you are crying. Are you feeling sad that Audrey took your shovel?" Oliver nods, and then Maria turns to Audrey and says, "Audrey, I see that Oliver is crying. He is feeling sad that you took the shovel that he was using. I have another shovel here that you can use."

Even though Oliver and Audrey may not yet have the verbal skills to describe their feelings by themselves, Maria is helping Oliver recognize and name his own feelings, and Audrey to identify her classmate's.

In preschool and kindergarten, children's language skills are more developed, and teachers can facilitate children's emotional expression by including children's feelings in conflict resolution discussions:

Jada and Melissa are arguing over who gets to be the mom in their dramatic play scenario. Their teacher, Helena, comes over to ask what is going on. After each of the girls talks about what the other *said*, Helena asks, "Jada, how did it make you feel when Melissa said that you couldn't be the mom?" Once they were each able to talk about their feelings, they understood where the other was coming from. Melissa and Jada then decided they would both be moms and continued with their play.

When young children learn how to verbally express their feelings, they are better able to regulate them. In turn, emotion regulation helps children have positive social interactions. The reverse is also true: children who have a difficult time regulating their emotions appropriately often are rejected by their peers and develop adjustment problems later on, problems such as anxiety, lack of self-control, and depression.

Strategies for Dealing With Difficult Emotions

Teachers can help children develop strategies for dealing with difficult emotions, such as demonstrating how to take deep breaths to calm down their bodies and dedicating a quiet space in the classroom for children to use to take breaks when they are feeling angry. Taking breaks can help children calm down so that they can engage in constructive conversations with others about conflicts that may have occurred.

Teachers can also practice talking about their own feelings, demonstrating the importance of emotional expression, as well as modeling appropriate ways of responding to our feelings.

Jenna, a preschool teacher, accidentally slips and drops a bowl of apple slices on the floor of the classroom while serving snack. “Oh no, I just spent all this time getting snack ready, and now it’s on the floor,” she says. “I’m feeling really frustrated. I’m going to take some deep breaths to calm down.”

By taking the time to verbally express her own feelings, Jenna helps the children understand that it is okay to feel frustrated, that even teachers need to take a break and breathe deeply sometimes.

Talking with young children about emotions helps to improve both their social understanding and their ability to take into account the perspectives of others. Between ages 3 and 5, children become increasingly better able to correctly identify others’ feelings, a skill necessary for their development of empathy. Teachers can support preschoolers’ perspective-taking skills while reading picture books by stopping to ask children how they think a character might be feeling. They can suggest that children look at the character’s face and think about the situation the character is experiencing. They might ask children how they would feel if they were in the character’s shoes. A similar activity can be done with puppets. By putting on a puppet story, teachers may choose to highlight common conflicts that are occurring in their classroom. They can freeze the action mid-scene and ask the children for their reflections about the characters’ feelings, as well as ideas about how they would solve the problem.

Another activity to support emotional competency is to take pictures of the children making faces that display emotions such as happy, sad, angry, and scared. Teachers can print and laminate the pictures so that children may sort them by feelings or play a matching memory game. To play the latter, teachers can place all of the cards upside down and then the players can take

turns flipping over two pictures at a time. They must identify the emotions shown in the pictures, and if the emotions match, they put them aside as a matching pair. Interesting classroom discussions can ensue when children have differing assessments about which emotion is displayed on a card.

Visual art and music can be brought together to support emotional awareness in a multimedia project. First, teachers select various songs that evoke certain emotions and then encourage the children to dance to each one, thinking about how the music makes their bodies feel. Next, they invite the children to sit at the table and paint or draw a picture that matches the feelings of the music. The teacher provides a new piece of paper, and perhaps a new medium, for each song. Afterwards the class can look at their collective work and discuss how the art reflects the feelings evoked by the music.

Conclusion

When young children are taught to understand, express, and manage their feelings, and to understand and respect others’ feelings, they are more apt to engage in positive social interactions and thrive in classrooms. Early childhood teachers do well, then, to support young children’s emotional competency and social and emotional learning, both through curriculum activities and through creating a classroom environment that fosters young children’s emotional understanding and expression.

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See also Conflict Management; Early Childhood Education and Classroom Management; Emotion Regulation; Prosocial Behavior; Self-Regulated Learning; Social and Emotional Learning

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SOCIAL PROBLEM SOLVING

Students' ability to solve problems is fundamental to becoming academically and socially successful. Teaching social problem-solving skills through a cognitive-behavioral approach provides students with a process that facilitates effective problem solving in social situations through the use of sequential steps. When students learn to solve division problems, for example, they are taught a process rather than the answer to a specific problem. They can apply the sequential steps to solve any division problem. Similarly, rather than teaching specific content or telling students what solutions to choose for specific social problems, the cognitive-behavioral approach to social problem solving provides a general framework that can be applied to any social problem, regardless of its complexity.

Students can be taught to internalize the problem-solving process through a combination of a cognitive approach and behavioral techniques, with self-talk playing a key role in the learning process. Teaching students cognitive strategies for social problem solving helps them control their own behavior without relying on adults. When used as an intervention, therefore, social problem-solving instruction can help prevent behavior problems and improve classroom and behavior management, thereby creating a more effective learning environment for all students. This entry will present the rationale for teaching social problem solving, describe the steps of the problem-solving process, review related teaching strategies, and explain assessment procedures.

Rationale for Teaching Social Problem-Solving Skills

Programing that targets social problem solving is an essential component of social-emotional learning. Problem solving is a critical, life-long skill for handling complex problem situations more effectively, improving self-regulation, fostering social skills, and improving social competence. Moreover, by providing skills necessary for behavioral self-regulation, social problem-solving instruction can serve as a preventive approach for students at risk for problematic behavior.

Social problem-solving interventions can be used in Response to Intervention (RTI) models and multitiered systems of support to address the significant challenges presented by school behavior and discipline problems. In RTI models, evidence-based interventions are provided in tiers of increasing intensity, based on student responsiveness to instruction. Social problem solving can be used at any level in these systems, depending

on individual needs and types of instructional delivery available.

Typically, students with or at risk for significant behavior problems are poor problem solvers. These students are at increased risk for school failure, drop out, and other negative outcomes, often due to social skill deficits, inadequate social interactions, and difficulty controlling impulses and regulating their own emotions and behaviors. Students who exhibit aggression, for example, typically have deficits in specific stages of the social problem-solving process. They are likely to view their own problem-solving abilities negatively, generate fewer problem solutions, and impulsively choose a solution. For students with or at risk for behavioral difficulties, therefore, social problem solving should be taught through explicit instruction as a step-by-step skill. Moreover, as for students with any academic or behavioral deficit, more intense, targeted instruction may be indicated, possibly through tier 2 or tier 3 interventions.

Social Problem-Solving Steps

Social problem-solving instruction is a specific cognitive-behavioral intervention to teach sequential steps that facilitate solving social problems effectively. Students learn to use verbal self-talk to guide this process, such that internalizing the problem-solving steps can alter cognition and thereby affect the resulting behavior. Social problem-solving instruction involves a combination of cognitive and behavioral components that include modeling, self-talk, and reinforcement. Thus, this cognitive-behavioral approach is an effective way to teach the problem-solving process explicitly and systematically and concurrently to improve self-regulation, foster generalization, and provide cognitive strategies that support independence.

The sequential steps of the problem-solving process can be delineated in several different ways, with some curricula providing fewer steps than others. Regardless of the specifics, the process essentially contains the same basic steps. The first is to recognize that a problem exists; thus, students are taught the importance of identifying that there is, indeed, a problem, before being taught how to proceed. The second step is to define the problem, usually in terms of a barrier to reaching a goal. Students are taught the importance of identifying their goal in a specific situation, so that a problem can be defined as related to that goal. The third problem-solving step is to generate solutions, which is often difficult for poor problem solvers but essential to good problem-solving skills. In this step, students are taught various strategies and resources for coming up with possible solutions. The next step is to evaluate the solutions generated. Students are taught how to evaluate solutions strategically and

realistically according to potential outcomes and then to choose the best solution for overcoming the problem and reaching the goal. In the next step, students design a plan and carry it out according to the chosen solution. Finally, students are taught to evaluate how well the plan worked by looking back at what happened, determining if the goal was met, and deciding whether the problem-solving process is finished.

Teaching Social Problem Solving

When teaching social problem solving, several instructional techniques are particularly effective. First, teachers should define and model the skills being taught. Students will need explicit instruction, with multiple examples modeled by a skilled problem solver. Role plays can be used to illustrate problem-solving scenarios that are appropriate and relevant to students and provide opportunities for students to be actively engaged. Teachers should give detailed feedback as they summarize and review student performance. Finally, teachers must plan for the generalization of social problem-solving skills. In addition to providing multiple examples in natural settings, they can assign homework, utilize teachable moments, and look for opportunities to provide reinforcement in other settings.

Cognitive modeling, specifically, is a vital and powerful instructional technique for teaching social problem solving. Before students can use self-talk to internalize a cognitive process, they need to have an adult model the process for them. Adult use of cognitive modeling helps students gain skills, internalize cognitive processes, and change behavior through observational learning. In addition to instruction in the steps and strategies for problem solving, therefore, students need cognitive modeling examples to illustrate how an efficient problem solver implements the process. These examples provide access to the adult's problem-solving thought processes and consequently expose students to thoughts and problem-solving approaches in a concrete, observable way. When an adult thinks aloud during problem solving, thereby verbalizing his or her thought processes, students learn *how* to think instead of *what* to think, which promotes the internalization of self-regulating cognitive processes.

Using cognitive modeling through think-alouds is an important teaching strategy for social problem solving, but it is also an advanced instructional technique that is sometimes difficult to implement correctly. As they use cognitive modeling, teachers verbally talk through all of the thoughts and strategies they are using to solve a problem. Thus, cognitive modeling goes beyond simply listing the steps and actions they took. For example, a teacher may begin a lesson on social problem solving by cognitively modeling how she solved a problem she

had with a friend. She might begin by explaining the situation to the students and then say something like, *I was thinking, "I'm so mad at her! I really want to tell her off, but I might regret that later. Maybe I could just not speak to her again. But then again, I don't want to lose her as a friend. I think I'll ask her why she said that to me and try to let her know how I'm feeling."* Verbalizing her thoughts as she solved her problem thus gives her students a window into her cognitive processing of a specific social situation. If the teacher simply states her decisions and actions, she denies students the opportunity to observe the thought processes underlying her problem solving. Cognitive modeling is clearly a vital tool for teaching this process.

Assessment

As with any type of instruction, it is essential to assess learning and evaluate student progress. The assessment of social problem solving can include both formal and informal measures. Formal assessments include standardized measures like the Social Problem-Solving Inventory–Revised (SPSI–R), a self-report measure that consists of 52 items to assess how the student approaches social problems and his or her problem-solving style. A short version of the SPSI–R that contains five scales can be used as a screening measure, while the longer version provides more detailed scoring, with subscales for specific problem-solving skills. The SPSI–R has been tested for reliability and validity and used in many settings, including educational settings.

Informal assessments are less structured and may include observations, checklists, portfolios, interviews, or work samples. An example that can be used for social problem solving is an on-the-spot assessment that combines observation with a brief interview. When a teacher observes a student who appears to be following a problem-solving step or carrying out a plan, the teacher can interview the student as soon as possible afterward about what he or she was thinking and whether that helped solve the problem. To assess the student's understanding of the process, the teacher asks questions about the student's thought process, decision making, and any problem-solving steps the student mentioned, and then makes informal notes to guide teaching and review.

Conclusion

Social problem solving is an essential skill that can be taught within a Response to Intervention framework at the universal level for all students, or at more intensive tiers for students with or at risk for significant problem behaviors. By learning problem-solving skills, students are better able to manage their behavior without relying

on adults, improve their social competence, and benefit from more productive educational settings.

The basic steps of social problem solving include (1) identifying a problem, (2) defining the problem, (3) generating solutions, (4) evaluating solutions, (5) designing and carrying out a plan, and (6) evaluating the outcome. When teaching the problem-solving process, effective instructional techniques include providing multiple practice opportunities through role plays, giving feedback on student performance, and planning for generalization of skills. Cognitive modeling is an especially important technique using teacher think-alouds that allow students an opportunity to observe an adult's thoughts during the problem-solving process. Formal (e.g., SPSI-R) and informal (e.g., on-the-spot assessment) measures can be used to assess student learning. In sum, social problem solving as an intervention offers teachers a strategy that has the potential to prevent and decrease behavior problems, improve classroom management, and foster a more effective learning environment.

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See also Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning; Emotion Regulation; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; Preventing Behavior Problems; Prosocial Behavior; Self-Regulated Learning; Social and Emotional Learning

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SOCIAL SKILL INSTRUCTION FOR LATINO STUDENTS

Latino English language learners (ELLs) are the fastest growing and most prevalent student minority group in U.S. schools. Research shows that in order for Latino ELLs to succeed in schools, effective academic and behavioral interventions are essential. Despite a number of existing educational supports (e.g., English as a second language programs, English immersion programs, bilingual education), as a group, Latino ELLs, compared with their peers, continue to experience higher school dropout rates, poorer academic performance, and higher levels of peer rejection and social isolation. The need for more support has led to a new focus on social competence and social skill instruction for Latino students, the subject of this entry.

Building social competence to succeed in U.S. schools is critical for Latino ELLs because many Latino ELLs are unfamiliar with the culture of U.S. schools. This can lead to peer conflicts, social segregation, and Latino ELLs being misinterpreted by teachers. Compounding the problem, educators often receive little training in how best to acclimate and support Latino ELLs. The focus here is on explaining the importance of culturally responsive social skill instruction for Latino ELLs and on defining the necessary instructional components of social skill instruction for Latino ELLs in U.S. classrooms.

Becoming Culturally Responsive

Becoming a culturally responsive educator is critical for developing and providing proper social skill instruction for Latino ELLs. Doing so entails becoming aware of hidden biases that can lead to culturally diverse students being unintentionally misjudged or misinterpreted. For instance, a Latino ELL may resist leading a peer group discussion in class because the skills needed to lead may not be reinforced or expected

in that student's home. As a result, resistance to leading may be misperceived as the Latino student being naturally quiet, withdrawn, indifferent, or otherwise socially isolated. Similarly, Latino ELLs may be misperceived as being naturally uninterested in collaborating with other cultural groups due to their strong family unity and to their being bound within their cultural friendship circle.

These and other misperceptions based on lack of information and cultural biases can lead educators down a slippery slope of setting low expectations for Latino ELLs, which can negatively affect these students' peer relationships, self-concept, and chances of succeeding in school. It is crucial, therefore, for educators to become culturally responsive and sensitive when working with Latino ELLs.

To become culturally responsive, educators must first become aware of any possible cultural deficit views they may have about Latino culture and then make a conscious effort to learn about the strengths in Latino culture, as well as the origins, traditions, and family life of the culture. By doing so, educators can better understand the differences between a behavior appropriate within a Latino culture and a true, overall behavior deficit. Moreover, doing so will help educators target specific social skills that Latino ELLs need to develop in order to succeed in school, without assuming or communicating that Latino ELLs are overall less skilled than their non-ELL counterparts.

Thematic Social Skills for Latino ELLs

Although there are many social skills educators can target for social skill instruction, the skills that are especially important for helping Latino ELLs include (1) initiating and maintaining positive social relationships with non-ELLs (cross-cultural friendships) and (2) developing positive school adjustment. Within these thematic areas, specific social skills should be selected for instructional lessons so that skill expectations are clearly defined and taught. For example, within the competency of building cross-cultural friendships, specific social skills to be targeted for instruction may include using English when starting and maintaining a conversation, complimenting a peer, inviting a peer to join a group, and requesting to join in a peer group activity.

To be most effective, educators should solicit feedback and involvement from family members to help determine the most critical and functional social skills to be taught for individual Latino ELLs and to support skill maintenance (demonstrate skills over time) and skill generalization (demonstrate skills across settings, people, and situations).

Culturally Responsive Social Skill Instruction

Direct and explicit social skill instruction is an effective, research-based instructional practice used to teach socially appropriate alternatives and to reduce social skill deficits. Culturally responsive social skill instruction involves teaching socially appropriate skills while incorporating students' native culture within the curriculum and instruction. Culturally responsive social skill instruction not only prompts educators to become aware of cultural biases and misconceptions toward the social behaviors of Latino ELLs, it also can support Latino ELLs by attending to culturally appropriate skills and expectations and by making the instruction relevant and meaningful to the students.

When developing and implementing culturally responsive social skill instruction for Latino ELLs, educators are urged to address six essential components: (1) identifying school-related social skills for instruction (e.g., cross-cultural peer relationships) that are important for Latino ELLs, (2) using culturally relevant materials within lessons (e.g., Mexican literature or folktales), (3) including Latino-competent peer models in instruction to promote appropriate peer interactions, (4) integrating students' personal experiences, (5) considering and integrating supports for language needs (e.g., explaining key vocabulary in Spanish or with pictorial/visual cues), and (6) providing opportunities for students to apply learned skills within natural environments, such as classrooms, recess, and peer group activities in general.

In order to effectively provide social skill instruction to Latino ELLs, educators may follow the seven major steps listed below to ensure that students learn, apply, maintain, and generalize social skills over time and across situations/settings.

1. *Defining*: introduce, define, discuss importance of, and describe steps necessary to perform the target social skill.
2. *Modeling*: show students the skill and the sequence of specific steps students must use to perform the social skill.
3. *Rehearsing/practicing*: allow students multiple opportunities to rehearse or role-play the skill for the whole group and in pairs during situations where the students are most likely to be expected to perform the skill.
4. *Reviewing*: review the skill during social activities that naturally occur during the school day or in situations that have been created to allow students to practice the skill so that it will transfer to new settings and situations.

5. *Giving feedback*: provide individualized and specific feedback (including praise, affirmation, and error correction) or reflection to students when they attempt the new skill.
6. *Prompting*: prompt students to use the skill at an appropriate time or to remind students of the specific steps to perform the skill.
7. *Reinforcing*: reinforce the students when they use the skill appropriately to help motivate students to maintain the skill.

Conclusion

Now, more than ever, educators must have adequate cultural knowledge and must implement culturally responsive instructional methods to support the social development of Latino ELLs in U.S. schools. Culturally responsive social skill instruction is one such instructional method that can effectively improve the social outcomes of Latino ELLs, increase cross-cultural peer relationships, and provide a toolbox of social skills students can successfully use in and outside of school.

Teaching appropriate social skills to Latino ELLs is often missing in American schools today, most likely because the focus is solely on academic learning. However, given the goal to make a difference in the lives of all students so that they succeed not only in school but also in life, it is imperative that Latino ELLs get the supports they need, which includes directly teaching them social skills that will build a strong foundation for learning and long-term development.

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See also Cultural Diversity; Culturally Responsive Classrooms; English Language Learners and Classroom Behavior; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; Social and Emotional Learning; Social Skills: Meanings, Supports, and Training for Developing

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SOCIAL SKILLS: MEANINGS, SUPPORTS, AND TRAINING FOR DEVELOPING

Social skills—and the social competence that is achieved by mastery of social skills—are important mediators of academic success. Research has demonstrated that a student's social competence is a strong predictor of his or her academic achievement. Increasing the social competence of students in a classroom by supporting the development of social skills also contributes to a positive classroom climate, which provides a strong foundation for teachers to deliver high-quality instruction. Managing behavior in a classroom is made easier when students in the class have strong social skills. The sections below present a definition of social competence, followed by a description of approaches that can be used by teachers to develop and support social skills in the classroom.

Defining Social Competence

Success in school hinges on students' ability to successfully navigate the social demands of classroom and school environments. Students who are socially competent are viewed more positively by peers and teachers, view themselves more positively, are better accepted, and have better academic and long-term adult outcomes than students who are rejected or socially isolated. However, it is important to acknowledge that there is no one definition of social competence. Here, the definition focuses on possessing and embodying various traits, many of which are context-dependent. Understanding the various ways social competence is constructed *specific to school settings* allows educators to consider the many possible ways social skills and social competence can then be promoted in the classroom.

Social Skills as Academic Enablers

Social competence hinges, in part, on mastery of specific social skills that are valuable in a wide range of settings. In school settings, specific social skills are sometimes referred to as academic enablers because a student's

competence with those skills enables him or her to be academically successful. Having a high level of social knowledge—that is, knowing what to do and when to do it in school contexts—is one example of a social skill that is an academic enabler. When students in classrooms demonstrate a high level of social knowledge, they generally experience the approval of their peers and teachers. Teacher and peer approval is, in turn, paramount to success in school. The importance of social skills for overall success in school applies to students both with and without disabilities and across grade levels.

Social Competence as Emotional Competence

Having strong skills in regulating emotional responses and a well-developed awareness of one's own emotional state are also considered essential components of social competence. Emotional regulation is the ability to control one's own behaviors that result from various emotional states (e.g., slamming a door when angry, becoming uncommunicative when sad). Emotional awareness is the understanding of one's emotions and the ensuing ability to recognize them and respond to them appropriately (e.g., knowing triggers that prompt frustration and taking the steps to avoid those triggers). Using a framework of social competence as emotional competence, regulation of emotions is foundational to developing positive relationships with peers and teachers. Without emotional control, social relationships are difficult to build and maintain.

Teachers are thus urged to think about social skills and abilities by first considering a student's emotional well-being. This is because positive social experiences are predicated by personal emotional stability. Some students—particularly those who exhibit behavioral challenges—are especially prone to emotional instability and demonstrate difficulty with emotion regulation. These students may need targeted social skill intervention in addition to the social skill instruction a teacher embeds into everyday instruction.

The ability to read others' emotions and respond appropriately is also an important part of social competence. Often considered as separate constructs, emotion regulation and emotion response can be viewed through a lens of social competence. Instruction in social skills can, therefore, focus on identifying emotions and emotional responses and helping students identify possible productive responses to potentially frustrating—or other emotionally charged—situations.

Approaches to Developing Social Skills

Allocating time in the school day to directly teach social skills is often a challenge for classroom teachers. Teachers

sometimes perceive instruction in social skills as vying for precious instructional time that is better spent on core academic instruction. One justification for teaching social skills in general education classrooms, however, is to consider and understand how these skills influence and support students' academic achievement as well as the overall classroom environment.

Improving Social Skills Through Peer Interaction and Group Work

Teachers can encourage the development of social skills that enable all students to meet the social demands of a school setting by promoting cooperation in the classroom, relying on small group or paired instruction, and incorporating relationship-building activities into the school day. These efforts all provide authentic opportunities for students to interact with peers and for friendships to develop. Fostering peer interaction through structured peer-mediated learning activities is one avenue to creating a cooperative and accepting environment. When teachers use peer-mediated instructional techniques to deliver content instruction, students are given the opportunity to gain and practice social skills in an authentic context but with support and structure.

Implementing Social Skills Curricula

In addition to fostering an atmosphere of community, emphasis on the development of social skills allows students who have gaps in their social competence to learn social rules and expectations in a safe and nurturing environment. Many youth, including students with disabilities, struggle with making sense of the social demands that are placed on them throughout a typical school day. Explicitly teaching social skills in the classroom helps students discover appropriate ways to navigate the social terrain of the school day while learning skills that will enable them to succeed in other settings in the future as well.

Providing explicit instruction through a curriculum designed for this purpose is a common tactic. Teaching social skills in the classroom explicitly is particularly beneficial for those students who actually do not have a well-developed repertoire of social skills upon which to rely. This is sometimes referred to as a *skill deficit*—which is juxtaposed against a *performance deficit*, wherein students are knowledgeable about and capable of performing social skills but choose not to perform those skills in specific situations. For students with a skill deficit, or knowledge gap, explicit instruction by teachers' use of an evidence-based social skills curriculum is beneficial. Published social skills curricula are widely available; choosing among them can be

challenging. Teachers who are looking for a social skills curriculum can consult with other professionals in their school district, including school psychologists. Teachers should look for curricula that have been demonstrated as effective through documented authentic classroom use or through empirical intervention studies.

Schoolwide Approaches to Strengthening Social Skills

Schoolwide programs that address students' social skills are often used in conjunction with classroom approaches and individualized plans designed for specific students who have significant social skills needs. When viewing social skills instruction through the lens of prevention models, schoolwide programs play the role of universal or primary prevention because the strategies are used with all students in a school. Schoolwide programs can be used in conjunction with secondary or tertiary interventions.

Schoolwide approaches to improving social skills allow educators to promote skill maintenance, which is helping students to use social skills continuously over time, and generalization, which is the use of social skills in settings outside of a particular classroom where those skills were initially taught or practiced most successfully. Schoolwide approaches also can be used to improve the overall school climate. Whereas skill instruction is typically delivered through a classroom-based format in schoolwide programs, reinforcement of skills occurs across every school environment (e.g., academic and nonacademic classes, hallways, cafeterias). Additionally, schoolwide programs at the elementary level begin skill development in either pre-K or kindergarten and continue to sequentially build skills through fourth or fifth grade. So, students are not just taught about a skill (e.g., accurately identifying emotions) only one time; instead they are taught the skill across different grades using different developmentally appropriate activities. Learning skills and receiving feedback on the application of those skills across time and across settings promotes the generalization and maintenance of social competence skills.

Inclusion is promoted in schoolwide programs because all students receive the same instruction and intervention. These programs are not just for students who are experiencing problems, they are for everyone. Additionally, when school personnel teach and reinforce behaviors related to respect and social competency, students with and without disabilities are more likely to engage in more appropriate behaviors and exhibit fewer problem behaviors. When behavior problems are reduced, both students and staff feel safer at school. Increases in appropriate behavior and decreases in

inappropriate behavior thereby directly connect to the creation of a more positive school climate.

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See also Cooperative Learning Groups; Emotion Regulation; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; Schoolwide Positive Behavior Supports; Social and Emotional Learning; Social Skill Instruction for Latino Students

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SOCIOCULTURAL THEORIES AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

This entry describes key concepts of sociocultural theory and their potential for providing a theoretical and analytic framework for understanding classroom

management. From the standpoint of sociocultural theory, classroom management is viewed and defined as an ensemble of cognitive and emotional organizers that put management systems in place to ensure that the shared meaning of those organizers is realized and enacted. An overview of key concepts introduced by Russian developmental psychologist Lev Vygotsky is followed by a series of brief illustrations explaining how schoolchildren are socialized into ways of thinking, doing, and being that are highly valued by K–12 institutions. The entry concludes with a discussion of the increasing emphasis in activist scholarship that draws on sociocultural theory to examine how the lived experiences of children and communities interact with, and potentially resist, the normalizing functions of schooling.

The Mind in Society

Sociocultural theory is an analytic framework grounded in the legacy of Soviet developmental psychologist Lev Semyonovich Vygotsky (1896–1934). In his short lifetime, Vygotsky generated an oeuvre that was quickly suppressed by Soviet authorities but kept alive by his circle of students, notably Alexander Romanovich Luria and Alexei Nikolaevich Leont'ev, in the form of cultural-historical psychology. Vygotsky's legacy was rediscovered in the English-speaking world in the 1970s through highly influential edited and translated versions of *The Mind in Society* and *Thought and Language*—also translated as *Thinking and Speech*.

In educational circles inside and outside the United States, sociocultural theory has taken on various elaborations (e.g., sociohistorical, cultural historical activity, cultural historical theory, and neo-Vygotskian). Although a definitive nomenclature for the framework has been elusive, what these frameworks share is an emphasis on human (cognitive and affective) development as a transformation of interpersonal processes into intrapersonal ones and the role of helping or mediational means in such transformational processes.

For Vygotsky and the sociocultural school of psychology he helped inspire, higher mental functions in humans are products of social interaction mediated by tools, including language and emotions. Development is thus a fundamental transformation of interpersonal processes into intrapersonal processes, with every function of a child's cultural development appearing twice: first between people (intersychological) and then within the child (intrapsychological).

Sociocultural theory places a particular emphasis on how children learn tools for thinking, doing, and being, through the mediating devices their cultures provide and through social interactions with more skilled partners or peers in the metaphorical *zone of proximal development*.

Gradually becoming more capable, children move to engaging with cultural tools of thought and emotion for their individualized purposes. Consequently, many socioculturalists focus on locally situated social practices and reject the notion that researchers can study individuals' development separate from the social contexts in which they participate either directly or peripherally.

The Social Nature of Classroom Management

Sociocultural perspectives for understanding classroom management might, therefore, examine how children are first socialized into certain management practices, such as walking quietly in single file on the right side of a hallway with their hands by their sides or clasped behind them, from a classroom to the cafeteria.

The theoretical and analytic framework of sociocultural theory would also emphasize how those management practices are subsequently internalized by individuals—to the extent that those same children as adults might find themselves in another public space and find themselves asking, “Where's the line?” or “Are you standing in line?”

The first weeks, if not the entire year, of kindergarten in U.S. schools focus on, among other things, socializing children into ways of thinking, doing, and being that are highly valued by U.S. schools and the larger society. Those values might be captured in a school motto such as “Respectful, Responsible, and Ready to Learn.” Socialization into learning what being respectful, responsible, and ready to learn means and how those values are enacted is an elaborate process of enculturation.

Helping Means and Mediating Processes for Learning-to-Do School

Embedded in the hypothesis of the social nature of human development is a focus on how material tools and symbolic artifacts function as helping means for shaping or mediating thinking. In an often-cited example, Vygotsky describes an individual who, not wanting to forget something she had to do, ties a string around her finger. Thus, the process of remembering is externalized through a sign—in this case a knotted string. In terms of classroom management, learning in kindergarten the appropriate way to walk from a classroom to the cafeteria might be mediated by a variety of signs and tools. In some school buildings, for example, signs might be posted strategically to remind students of the procedures they are in the process of internalizing, for example, “Quiet, please! Students are learning!” or the sound of a bell or switching on and off a room's lights might signal, “It's time to form a single-file line.” In some

cases, lines might be painted on hallway floors in various colors—indicating exactly where students are to line up and the path that they are to follow through the hallway to various designated locations. An entire class might be rewarded symbolically for learning to move quietly from space to space with a pennant to be proudly displayed on a classroom door.

Mediating signs and tools might take on various dimensions. Like the string around the child's finger, monuments are to keep people from forgetting—only on a larger scale, socially and architecturally. Likewise, classroom management is enacted not only at the classroom level by individual students and their teachers but also at institutional and district levels. As such, classroom management might take the macro form of a districtwide handbook outlining policies related to expectations for students' behavior—and institutionalized procedures for addressing cases where the socialization process has not been successful—what to do with a bully, for example, who chronically kicks other children as they stand in single file.

Zones of Proximal Development and Classroom Management

A particularly widespread Vygotskian metaphor is that of the zone of proximal development (ZPD)—the distance between what learners are able to do by themselves and what they could do with the guidance of an adult or a more experienced peer. In terms of classroom management, a ZPD for kindergartners learning to move in single file might involve the teacher and teacher assistant actually lining up with the children—modeling the targeted posture and providing immediate feedback to individual students or an entire class in the form of praise. Students demonstrating an internalization of the targeted behavior might be appointed as monitors—leading the others, again, through modeling and feedback. The children and teachers might actually practice lining up in the hallway—without the intention of going anywhere in particular—and, once successful, practice returning to their seats in a prescribed manner. Thus, the activity of filing to the cafeteria might be broken down into discrete pieces or scaffolded—with the goal of helping the children achieve that which they might not be able to do independently.

Development, Lived Experience, and Difference

In short, classroom management, from a sociocultural perspective, is an example of human thought distributed across the material tools and social and cultural psychological devices and experiences shaped over time, and that have in turn shaped their participation and the participation of subsequent generations and in specific activity settings such as K–12 schools. There are,

however, sometimes considerable differences in the ways individual children or even entire communities experience classroom management—how they interpret a particular rule or how they might remember an interaction with a teacher or management system. Emotional and cognitive development is realized through participation in a community; however, development is also processed through the subjectivities of individuals—memories that become the fabric of how they eventually might perceive and interact in a particular setting. For example, were a teacher or even an institution to make a young child or group of children always stand at the back of the line, those children would have a markedly different lived experience than if always chosen to stand at the front of the line—especially if standing at the back was constructed as something humiliating.

In recent years, sociocultural theory has been leveraged to examine more closely how individuals' and communities' lived experiences interact with the development of individual and community identity, as well as the possibilities of an individual or community improving the socially constructed norms of participation in various activity settings. As such, refusing to stand in line, or standing in line on one foot, might be theorized as a conscious act of resistance to an oppressive system.

Thus, activist sociocultural scholarship has used Vygotskian frameworks to expose the normalizing functions of K–12 schools and classroom—institutional practices that often underestimate the cultural and social nature of the *modus operandi* of the intutional tools and signs that mediate teaching and learning, often at the expense of children from nondominant communities. That is to say, when a child or even a community struggles or resists a particular classroom management paradigm, the question such scholarship has posed is, “Who decides what social or cultural practice is enacted? And at whose expense?”

Conclusion

Students and teachers come from families and communities with sometimes very specific notions about what constitutes a well-behaved child or an effective classroom manager. Indeed, the very subject of this encyclopedia, classroom management, can only loosely be translated in certain languages. Rather, what classroom management is and what it is not depends on how individuals and communities have constructed that notion over time and across contexts—and to what extent it has become a part of their individual and shared identities.

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See also Constructivist Approaches; Cultural Diversity; Developmental Approaches; Vygotsky, Lev; Zone of Proximal Development

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SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS

Socioeconomic status (SES) combines income, education, occupation, and other variables related to living conditions, all to provide a powerful measure of influence over the lives of individuals, families, and groups. As an oft-used topic of interest in education, whether discussing policy, school climate, classroom practices, teacher issues, or a host of related areas, SES is an important topic for consideration. Following a brief introduction to the measurement and significance of SES, this entry presents a discussion of considerations related to classroom management and SES.

Measuring and Using SES

SES can be measured in a number of ways, including personal income, past education, and current occupation. In measuring SES, the varying interactions of variables are usually considered. However, they often are used differently depending on topic, issue, and intended use. Whatever the topic, issue, or intended use, SES is often used in conjunction with or synonymous with the term *class*. The broad concepts of lower, middle, and upper SES correlate with or are synonymous with the broad levels of low, middle, and high social class. SES is by no means fixed and referring only to individuals. For example, individuals born into one SES level can move up or down the SES scale. SES can also refer to neighborhoods

and sometimes to schools. Influences on SES are many—including educational opportunity, racial privilege (whether one comes from a racial group that has been discriminated against or that has a history of being privileged), macroeconomic developments, and culture.

As a predictor variable, high SES has been positively correlated with access to opportunities for better education and work (higher paying, more prestigious jobs) and negatively correlated with membership in racial and ethnic groups subject to discriminatory treatment by the majority population. Most important and as numerous research studies over the decades have reported, SES has been found to significantly correlate with a wide variety of important indices of thriving and its opposite, including affluence and poverty, health and ill-health, steady employment and unemployment, abiding by the law and trouble with the law. One would think, therefore, that the specifics underlying these correlations would, through research, be well understood. Unfortunately, this is not the case, as Jerome Kagan, a leading social scientist, has recently explained.

SES and Classroom Management

SES has had its influence on school climate and classroom management, and so understanding SES can help when preparing for a class, providing academic instruction, or handling student misbehavior. The following sections highlight considerations that should be taken into account regarding low and high SES levels. In particular, there are a number of implications for classroom management and creating good learning environments.

Low SES Considerations

There are a number of common traits that are associated with schools in low SES areas. These schools are usually in high-poverty neighborhoods that have low educational achievement among adults and increased levels of unemployment. In general, low SES schools have fewer resources for students to access. Consequently, limited resources and the perception of having more challenging student populations than moderate or high SES schools makes the retention of high-quality teachers difficult. All of these factors contribute to achievement gaps that are seen between low SES schools and high SES schools.

At an individual level, students from low SES communities have shown a propensity for physical, physiological, and/or mental health problems, family issues, poor academic skills, and diminished future prospects educationally and occupationally. Depression, malnutrition, neurological disorders, and other such concerns are not uncommon for students from low SES families. These students may display delays in language and math

skills. Identification as having learning disabilities or behavioral challenges is also common. Negative educational outcomes are correlated with low SES students. The risk of academic failure and potential for dropping out of school is higher among low SES students. With lower possibilities of graduation, students also decrease their opportunities for postsecondary success both educationally and occupationally.

This negative portrayal of students from low SES families and neighborhoods has often led to the unintended consequence of blaming the victim, that is, seeing children and youth from low SES environments as somehow deficient and even defective. However, in the past several decades, the ascendance of sociocultural perspectives on schools and schooling has provided a quite different view, one that emphasizes more the many mismatches that can occur when students from lower social classes are taught by teachers from higher social classes, as is the case for many students. That new emphasis has brought to light differences (not deficiencies and defects) that teachers and other educators can and should accommodate. For example, many lower-class students are raised in families with authoritarian but caring styles of parenting and many are raised in a pattern referred to as hard individualism whereby toughness and respect for adult authority are highly valued. Teachers of low SES children would do well to design classroom management so as to become warm demanders who provide structure in different ways than those associated with suburban schools but who nevertheless hold high expectations for students. Furthermore, and since so many from low SES neighborhoods are from ethnic and linguistic groups and are discriminated against and marginalized in mainstream North American culture, teachers of low SES children would do well to design culturally sensitive classrooms, classrooms where the students' cultures are openly recognized and celebrated.

High SES Considerations

Just as there are a number of negatives associated with low SES schools, conversely, there are a number of positives associated with high SES schools. Many high SES schools are in affluent neighborhoods and areas with desirable human and monetary resources. The opportunity to work in schools that pay more and are perceived to be less troubled attracts highly skilled teachers, more so than do low SES schools. Having more monetary resources, high SES schools can spend more on technology, enrichment programs, teaching/educational materials, and extracurricular activities, all of which provide students with increased opportunity for academic and future occupational success.

High SES students typically have more experience with complex reading and conversation while younger, and more experience having their natural intellectual curiosity encouraged and nurtured. They also have greater access to more and better resources at younger ages, resources that allow them to be better prepared during early years of school. Not surprisingly, as they progress through the grades, high SES students continue to outperform low SES students academically.

Although high SES has mostly been associated with positive outcomes, there are some potential negative outcomes to consider. Mental health issues seem to emerge later for high SES students, such as depression and stress-related pathological levels of anxiety. Additionally, a significant number of high SES students experience substance abuse as teenagers and a significant number are prone to academic cheating.

Conclusion

Both low SES and high SES have implications for student achievement and classroom management—though the implications for low SES are greater and more troubling. However, neither low nor high SES needs to be a permanent advantage or disadvantage for students. If teachers demonstrate proactive anticipation of the needs of students, any detrimental influences from SES can be mitigated. For example, in an effort to close early achievement gaps in education, Project Head Start was created to assist children from low SES homes—and for a number of decades, the research has shown significant positive results for adequately funded programs. With the right interventions and conditions, students of all SES levels can excel.

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See also American Individualisms; Caring Approaches; Culturally Pluralistic Classrooms; Rural Schools; Urban Schools

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SPACE: ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY CLASSROOMS

The physical environment of a classroom influences the teaching and learning that occurs in that space, and it provides an initial perceptual communication that conveys a variety of messages relating to both learning and social expectations. Thus, arranging the classroom space to align with pedagogical goals and the cultural backgrounds and learning needs of each student is an aspect of effective classroom management that a teacher can and must intentionally address long before students arrive. Various physical arrangements support different types of learning experiences that include students' receiving, applying, creating, communicating, and evaluating. An effective classroom space is one that (1) reflects the teacher's philosophy of how students learn best, (2) makes optimal use of the material and technological resources available, and (3) takes into account the growing body of research across multiple disciplines regarding the relationship between classroom space and students' learning, physical needs, and emotional development. Moreover, whatever the teacher's educational philosophy, three critical aspects of any room arrangement influence student behavior: visibility, accessibility, and distractibility. Classroom space sets the stage for both teaching and learning as it influences students' interactions with others, learning materials, and the teacher. How this stage is set will shape the play that occurs within its walls.

Room Arrangement: A Brief History

The concept of classroom physical space can be placed on a continuum ranging from merely a functional container for learning to a set of architectural encounters, reflecting what educators have believed about learners over the past century. Classroom arrangement began with individual students in rows facing the teacher's desk front and center, signaling a teacher-centered, student-as-passive-and-empty-learner belief. Later, the teacher's desk moved off center stage, and other room arrangements reflected a more student-centered philosophy. Learning stations through which students rotated to solve problems signaled a student-as-discoverer belief; desks in pairs or small groups (often changing arrangement according to activity) indicated a student-as-active-learner belief; u-shaped or circular

student desk arrangement allowing students to see one another's faces supported a student-as-social-learner belief. Currently, classrooms tend to embrace a mixture of these arrangements. The open classrooms experiment in the 1970s generally failed through a lack of alignment of classroom space with teacher philosophy and pedagogy.

Elements of Effective Classroom Space

Making effective use of classroom space comes about when space reflects a teacher's philosophy of teaching and when there is optimal use of available resources.

Reflection of the Teacher's Philosophy of How Students Learn Best

Though tools to evaluate classroom spaces effectively remain in their infancy, recent research suggests that alignment between classroom space and pedagogy is essential to the classroom experience. The arrangement of the room should support the desired instructional strategy (e.g., whole-class discussions work best when students can see one another's faces); direct instruction works best when all students can see the source of instruction (teacher, media, other student); partner collaborations work best when there is adequate space between the sets of students; inquiry-based instruction works best when students have access to adequate resources such as computers, texts, labs, and manipulatives.

Optimal Use of Available Resources

The physical environment includes both physical resources and their resulting influences (see Table 1). Furniture resources may include any combination of the following: individual student desks and chairs, chair-desks, tables (square, oblong, round, trapezoidal, and kidney-shaped), a teacher desk/work station, file cabinets, storage cabinets, student cubbies, book shelves, wastebaskets, and the odd piece of casual furniture. Technological resources may include board, screen, mobile devices, various types of projectors, and computers. Together these resources can be used to encourage various forms of instructional interaction and through the personalization of learning space and technologies to respond to the individualized instructional, social, and cultural needs of students. In addition, as the physical classroom continues to be impacted by virtual and social learning spaces, it is increasingly necessary to understand how physical space and digital technologies work together and can be intentionally co-designed in classroom spaces.

Table I A Checklist to Evaluate Classroom Space

| <i>Aspects of Physical Environment</i> | | <i>Yes</i> | <i>No</i> |
|--|--|------------|-----------|
| Access—physical | 1. Pathways allow the teacher to move to each student and for students to move easily to all instructional areas. | ___ | ___ |
| Access—visual | 2. Students can easily see any instructional display. | ___ | ___ |
| | 3. The teacher can easily make eye contact with each student. | ___ | ___ |
| Acoustics | 4. The room is free of competing noise such as loud AC motor and/or fan, popping radiator, buzzing lights. | ___ | ___ |
| | 5. Room surfaces absorb sound rather than reflect it. | ___ | ___ |
| Air quality | 6. Air is fresh—not stale and or overly fragranced. | ___ | ___ |
| Color | 7. Colors are complementary rather than clashing. | ___ | ___ |
| Cooling | 8. The room is appropriately cool in warm weather. | ___ | ___ |
| Displays—screen/board | 9. Board space is adequate for instruction and there is a separate matte projection screen. | ___ | ___ |
| Displays—walls | 10. Displays are relevant to instruction, within fire department guidelines, and include space for student work. | ___ | ___ |
| | 11. Student desks/chairs/tables are appropriate for the student body size. | ___ | ___ |
| Furniture | 12. All students have an equitable seating/learning space. | ___ | ___ |
| | 13. The arrangement of furniture supports the type of instructional experience. | ___ | ___ |
| | 14. The room is appropriately warm in cool weather. | ___ | ___ |
| Heating | 15. Lighting is soft rather than harsh (more natural than fluorescent) and free from distracting flicker. | ___ | ___ |
| | 16. Lighting levels can be adjusted for written work and for projected instruction so students can still see to write. | ___ | ___ |
| Lighting | 17. Ample electrical outlets allow optimal student use of technology, and power cords are out of the way. | ___ | ___ |
| Power | 18. Pathways are clear of obstructions, allowing quick exit if needed. | ___ | ___ |
| Safety | 19. Bookcases/cabinets/cubbies provide ample book and materials storage space and allow easy student access. | ___ | ___ |
| | 20. Students have appropriate space to store their work/belongings, and the same is true for the teacher. | ___ | ___ |
| Storage | 21. Both teacher and students can easily reach all needed instructional materials. | ___ | ___ |
| Supplies | 22. All technology is in working order and easily accessed. | ___ | ___ |
| Technology | | ___ | ___ |

Recent Research on Classroom Space and the Student

A growing body of national and international research (primarily due to recent billion-dollar school building initiatives in Australia and England) has illustrated the relationship between classroom space and students' learning, physical needs, and emotional development. Research has explored how environmental factors such as heating, cooling, lighting, acoustics, and air quality impact student learning and academic achievement. Though it is difficult to separate and study each of these factors, they are important in the design of classroom space. Similarly, the physical environment of a classroom impacts student perceptions of safety (e.g., needs for personal space and for mobility in case of emergency), and the overall esthetic qualities of the classroom influence student engagement (e.g., over-decoration, messiness, and discordant colors distract; a lack of student work display discourages).

Many learning theories, including situated learning, distributed cognition, and constructivism, are currently exploring the relationship between a student and the physical space of the classroom. The value of these theories for classroom management is the underlying notion that physical space—including the furniture, tools, and technologies students have at their disposal and that also allow for different social interactions—is essential to how students construct knowledge and learn.

Three Crucial Aspects—or, How to Arrange a Room to Prevent Problems

Optimal visibility and accessibility, as well as minimal distractibility, are critical aspects of any room arrangement. A classroom arrangement with good visibility and accessibility optimizes two of a teacher's most valuable classroom management tools—eyes and feet; and a room arrangement that minimizes distraction improves student academic engagement.

Maximum Visibility

The teacher must be able to see the faces of all students, and all students must be able to see the teacher and all instructional displays. Arranging student seating so the teacher can easily make eye contact (think literal pupil–pupil contact) with each student improves student engagement—especially when the teacher makes a habit of frequent eye contact. Arranging student seating so all students have a clear view of the board, video screen, key posters, and so forth, ensures educational equity and improves student engagement and learning. Students should be seated facing academic displays or

angled so that they need only look left or right without moving chairs or straining. The room should have no hidey-holes such as spaces shielded by shelving, where students cannot be seen—all students should be clearly visible at all times. In classrooms where architecture has created hiding spaces, a well-placed wall or ceiling mirror can make that space visible.

Maximum Accessibility

The teacher must be able to reach each student and all instructional materials quickly. Accessing all students requires a clear hip-width access to at least one side of every desk, and this width of course varies from teacher to teacher. When backpacks or furniture limit a teacher's access to a student, the student's resulting sense of isolation from the teacher typically results in off-task behavior. Having teacher materials within immediate reach saves instructional time and maintains student focus.

All students, including those with special needs (refer to the Americans with Disabilities Act, 42 U.S. Code Chapter 126, for specific classroom requirements), must be able to enter the room and reach their learning spaces and materials quickly, and to exit the room quickly in case of an emergency. Frequently-used sets of materials should be located near student work areas. In classrooms with limited space, tape arrows on the floor indicating one-way traffic at certain areas (e.g., a supplies area) to prevent bottlenecks. Because desks tend to scoot throughout the school day, marking the floor with visual cues (e.g., small squares of tape) for desk placement can help students return furniture to a position that maintains optimum access.

Minimum Distractibility

Here the task is to identify and neutralize the competition. Analyze the room to determine what things may draw student attention away from the learning task (e.g., pencil sharpeners, wastebaskets, windows overlooking a playground, classroom pets). Some distractors can be eliminated through a procedure (e.g., pencil sharpener distraction can be eliminated with the use of a pencil pot where students trade a broken/dull pencil for a sharp one); others can be minimized visually (e.g., distracting windows can be covered with student artwork related to academic content). Still others can be controlled with student seating (e.g., friends who distract one another if seated together can be separated).

Conclusion

The physical space of a classroom is not a black box for learning. Rather, when aligned with pedagogical goals it

can provide an array of opportunities that foster learning and respond to students' various ways of learning. With the significant increase in educational products and technology currently available, there are more opportunities for teachers and schools to address physical space intentionally and to create equitable and responsive classroom environments for students.

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See also Ecological Approaches; Materials in Early Childhood Classrooms; Organization of Classrooms: Space; Spaces for Young Children; Spatial Activities and Manipulatives for Early Education Classrooms

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SPACES FOR YOUNG CHILDREN

The physical environment is a critical component of every classroom. From the design of the space to how the children and teachers interact in it, there are many things to consider when planning an environment for young children. Here the focus is on how spaces for young children play a powerful role in children's well-being and in the learning that takes place in the classroom. First we look at the importance of learning spaces for young children. Second, we focus on characteristics of a learning environment and what to consider when constructing a learning environment for young children. While this entry focuses on space in early childhood settings, the principles outlined below can be applied in other settings as well.

The Importance of Learning Spaces

Physical space defines the very culture of the classroom. It has not only esthetic implications but also emotional, intellectual, physical, and political ones as well. Spaces also communicate. They communicate images of children and teachers and of the educational process. What *should* a classroom look and feel like? What *should* a child be learning? How *should* a child act in the classroom? Physical space communicates answers to these questions. In other words, physical spaces are not neutral. They are active participants in the lives and education of young children, and they are essential to the well-being of children in the classroom, as well as to teachers and families.

Although it is not a widely researched topic, many remarkable individuals have devoted much of their time to thinking and writing about the design of learning spaces for young children. For the past several decades, the municipal preschools and infant-toddler centers of the city of Reggio-Emilia in Northern Italy have dedicated themselves to creating powerful learning environments for young children, environments that are not only intellectually rich but socially responsive. American writers such as Anita Olds and Jim Greenman, among others, have also spent a great deal of time thinking about learning spaces and the well-being of children. The following section outlines characteristics of a learning environment that anyone would need to reflect upon when designing a space for young children.

Characteristics of a Learning Environment

Children grow up and live in a deeply diverse, multifaceted world. The classroom can mirror this diversity. It can reflect the complex, mysterious, and sensory nature of the places we inhabit. Providing a range of materials varying in textures, color, softness, and weight is a way to support a child's relationship with this complexity. Sand and water, vibrant paints, soft fabrics, and recycled objects are just some of the materials and objects that contribute to the sensory richness of a space. Unexpected objects such as unused nuts and bolts or an abandoned beehive add surprise and a sense of curiosity to the space. Soft furniture and grainy wood surfaces warm up a space, while angular clean-lined spaces can be organizing or alerting for a child or teacher.

Classrooms are extensions of the natural world. One can think of the walls of the classroom as a permeable membrane. The natural world can permeate the walls from outside, while the children can bring themselves out into the world. A classroom can house many objects from the natural world. Dried birch

bark, shell collections, dried reeds, sprouts lined along shelves, and natural sunlight shining through the windows, all bring the outdoors inside. The classroom can also support children in their relationship with nature, in observing and responding to their environments. Each classroom is situated in a particular community, a geographical place with its own regional characteristics and culture. A classroom in a small town on the wild Northern California coast can and should look and feel different from a classroom in urban New England. The color of the earth, the feel of the plants, the quality of light are very different in, say, Phoenix than in Seattle.

A classroom can also provide a sense of territoriality or ownership, a place in which children can feel invested, where to some extent they feel like they own their classrooms. When schools and classrooms feel institutional, they often lack places where each child can contribute as an individual or where he or she can leave a lasting mark on the space. Children are capable of making important decisions about their space, how it looks, how objects and furniture are arranged, and what objects come into and leave the space. How should the reading area look? What should we hang on the walls of the bathroom? What makes a space relaxing, exciting? Children play an important role in answering these questions. They can also document and advocate on account of their space by using cameras, making maps, drawing, and leading tours through a space.

Private spaces, a sturdy box or a hideaway in an empty cabinet, can be places of retreat for children. A classroom where there is no place for children to withdraw can create stress for children and teachers alike. Children often enjoy imagining these spaces in small groups; together they make plans to gather and create the necessary materials. In a classroom in Boston, a group of children built a refuge by cutting a curtain to hang around a small table. They then placed a small basket of squishy toys inside. The children later added a stuffed pillow, a flameless candle, and framed art to hang on the wall below the table.

Providing places of retreat sends a tangible message that in the classroom the children are trusted. It is often the habit to store prized materials high on shelves far out of the reach of children. However, when materials are stored where all individuals can reach them, the children experience greater agency in the space. Making readily available materials such as permanent markers, real paintbrushes, woodworking tools, and a wide variety of jars for mixing paints communicates to the child and the community that the classroom is a place of trust and support. The space affirms the child as one who connects objects and ideas, who forms relationships.

A space can emphasize being, not just doing. It can care for the well-being of the people who inhabit it. By taking care, spaces support in a very concrete way the idea that life and our connections with the world around us can be fulfilling. This is perhaps the most important underlying element of a learning space for young children. Spaces allow for the individual by providing an area for people to sit together, to engage in dialogue in different ways and in all different kinds of seats, to use mirrors for looking and exploring, to spend time in forgotten nooks, to explore light and color, or just engage in the act of noticing something. These are all ways of being well in a space. In Reggio Emilia, the teachers often speak of the nonhierarchy of space, that in each space there is equal opportunity for exploration, nourishment, and relish. If a space reflects this idea, then the bathrooms, closets, and transitional spaces can come alive with joy. Even the ceilings are an opportunity for exploring.

Dimensions of Contrast

Anita Olds, a well-known advocate for high-quality learning spaces, spoke about space in terms of dimensions of contrast. She described these dimensions of contrast as illustrating children's most cherished spaces. Below are just a few aspects of the environment that can evoke such responses in children.

Light and Dark

Providing a wide variety of lighting is an affordable and beautiful way to create different moods in the classroom. Overhead fluorescent lighting can have a dull or homogenizing effect on the space. Lamps, twinkly lights, and sconces all introduce light in diverse ways. And by drawing on a chromatic range, such as incandescent, fluorescent, halogen, or vapor, one can experiment with the myriad qualities of light. An overhead projector placed on the ground or a low table, for example, is a powerful tool for children to experiment with light. Through the projector, children can also work with shadow and depth.

Something and Nothing

A classroom can provide a space for manipulating and exploring materials, hanging artwork from the walls and ceiling, establishing collections, and documenting the history of the work undertaken in the space. But there can also be spaces of emptiness, places free of objects, windows without curtains, shelves half empty, and walls that remain bare. These can be spaces of calm, of possibility, of rejuvenation.

Order/Mystery

A classroom space can provide structure and organization to the day. Neatly organized shelves, carefully labeled baskets, trays, and cubbies, all provide order in a busy, crowded environment. But a space can also cultivate a sense of wonder. Objects that we might see as belonging only to the adult world might serve as a mysterious provocation in a kindergarten classroom. Old objects and furniture that have a sense of history, timeworn magazines, unexpected fabrics, or artist monographs can imbue a space with a sense of otherworldliness. Mirrors and light can also draw out the mystery in a place.

Up/Down

A small group of children in a school in Reggio Emilia spent several weeks working on an aerial installation that hung from a metal grid attached to the ceiling. Standing on stepstools, the children navigated plastic tubing, wire, and plastics through the grid to create a suspending sculpture. This is a great example of how children can explore height, air, and what it means to be up in a particular space. Playing with the fact that space has both up and down allows for children to explore dimensionality, flight, and movement.

Conclusions: Space and Classroom Management

This discussion is meant merely to scratch the surface and to provide main ideas about classroom spaces, namely the following: Classroom spaces are not static or neutral; spaces are actively constructed and reconstructed by the individuals who inhabit them. This is true for both children and teachers. Spaces can also listen. They can be responsive to both the individual and to the group as a collective entity. If the classroom is approached in this way, then it is clear that a listening space is a safe yet rich place for children to be and learn. The physical space of the classroom can bring children and teachers into a relationship with one another. Relationships of dialogue, collaboration, and exploration emerge between individuals. These relationships can only exist if the space honors the well-being of each child and teacher, and the connections among them.

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See also Early Childhood Education and Classroom Management; Ecological Approaches; Organization of Classrooms: Space

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SPATIAL ACTIVITIES AND MANIPULATIVES FOR EARLY EDUCATION CLASSROOMS

Rearranging the furniture in a classroom to allow for circle time, building a wooden block structure from a diagram, rotating a puzzle piece right-side-up to fit it into a jigsaw puzzle, and using a hand-drawn treasure map of the early education classroom to discover hidden treasure, all require the use of spatial thinking. *Spatial thinking* encompasses a collection of skills essential to everyday life, including recognizing shapes and locations, mentally rotating shapes and objects, reconstructing patterns, reading maps and diagrams, and navigating one's environment. Spatial thinking is not a fixed ability, but rather a malleable ability that includes a set of skills that can be learned and improved by people of all ages. We now know from an abundance of research that children begin to develop spatial thinking skills before they even enter formal schooling at the age of 5 years. Furthermore, these spatial thinking skills are critical to the child's future success in science and mathematics courses as well as in the visual arts and later on in careers demanding spatial reasoning, such as engineering, architecture, contracting, and certain arts-related careers. However, unlike other early school readiness skills such as numeracy and reading, spatial thinking is not formally taught in the early education setting. Yet, recent research from the authors' own laboratory suggests that increased use of spatial activities in childhood predicts one's later spatial thinking skills.

Given the importance of spatial thinking to many everyday tasks and to success in schooling and later on in a good many careers, the aim of this entry is to provide early educators with a review of relevant supports to the development of spatial thinking, as well as examples of spatial activities that can be incorporated into existing educational curricula and classroom.

Supports for the Development of Spatial Thinking

Children vary dramatically in their spatial thinking ability; that is, there are wide individual differences in skill level. However, regardless of skill level, there are several central considerations for thinking about supports for spatial thinking and its development.

Gender Differences

We have known for several decades that adult males consistently outperform adult females on spatial tasks involving the mental rotation of two- and three-dimensional objects. Adult males are more likely to be correct than adult females when judging whether two objects rotated at varying degrees are the same object; adult males also work faster than adult females to make such a judgment, suggesting that they are using a different strategy to solve the problem. Developmental research with pre-K and elementary school children replicates these sex differences, with more recent research suggesting that these sex differences possibly originate in infancy.

Since this research is correlational, it does not establish a causal connection between gender and spatial thinking—and though there are consistent statistically significant correlations concerning gender and spatial thinking, there are differing interpretations of the educational significance of these correlations. What is clear is that with respect to spatial thinking in today's parenting, schooling, and socializing of children and youth, the developmental trajectory for boys and girls may, on average, be different for boys and girls. What this means for early childhood educators is that there may be unintended factors that give boys more opportunities to engage in spatial thinking and that this possibility should alert educators to at least provide equal opportunities and perhaps even additional supports for girls to engage in spatial thinking (e.g., no excluding girls from the block corner allowed). In sum, as early educators, we should be cognizant of this reported male advantage and provide all children, particularly little girls, with opportunities to develop their spatial thinking skills.

Spatial Language

The amount of spatial language children hear from their caregivers and the amount they produce themselves in the first 4 years of life is a robust predictor of their later spatial thinking ability at 4.5 years of age. These spatial thinking abilities include the ability to mentally rotate objects, to form analogies between two spatial relations, and to recreate spatial patterns using colored blocks. Spatial language includes words that describe the shapes of two- and three-dimensional objects (e.g., *circle, square, triangle, sphere, cylinder, pyramid*), the dimensions of objects (e.g., *big, little, tall, short, wide, narrow*), the spatial features and properties of objects (e.g., *curvy, edge, flat, border*), the locations and directions of objects (e.g., *under, over, above, below, left, right, north, south*), and the orientation of objects (e.g., *right-side-up, upside-down, rotated, flipped*). By increasing the amount of spatial language used in the classroom setting, early educators may be able to help children develop a more advanced spatial vocabulary and ultimately improve spatial thinking skills. In addition to hearing more spatial language, children should also be encouraged to produce these spatial words.

Engaging in Activities Calling for Spatial Thinking

Recent research findings highlight the importance of youth engaging in activities that have a spatial component. One study of over 570 ethnically diverse undergraduate students found that the sex difference in participants' mental rotation ability was explained by the number of spatial activities they had engaged in as youth. Critically, only those spatial activities that were judged as masculine/male sex type (e.g., model-building, carpentry, building electronic circuits) explained the sex difference in mental rotation skill. Not surprisingly, boys are more likely to engage in these types of spatial activities.

One way we can improve spatial thinking and potentially close the reported gaps between males and females in spatial thinking is by encouraging young children to engage in more activities with a spatial component, particularly those activities that are more traditionally considered masculine/male sex type. For early educators, this translates to providing and encouraging all children, but girls especially, with opportunities to play with blocks and puzzles.

Spatializing Early Education: Tips and Suggested Activities

Adding spatial activities that support spatial thinking into the early education classroom does not require special materials or program. Rather, using existing

materials and programs, it is possible to *spatialize* any early childhood classroom and program.

Use More Talk About the Spatial World in the Early Education Classroom

One of the easiest ways to *spatialize* existing early education programs is to increase the amount of talk about the spatial world in the classroom setting. Recall that the amount spatial language children hear and produce predicts their later spatial thinking ability. Thus, spatial language is a critical component in the development of children's spatial thinking and should be incorporated into everyday activities in a classroom. Spatial language is easy to integrate into an early childhood program. For example, during clean-up time, by using a sentence like, "Put that block on the top shelf between the triangle and rectangle blocks," rather than simply telling a child to put the block away, an educator is highlighting a spatial location (i.e., *top*), a spatial relation between two objects (i.e., *between*), and two different shapes (i.e., *rectangle, triangle*).

Educators do not need to go out of their way to locate books that specifically teach spatial thinking, but they can use any book that has illustrations or pictures. Many early education books illustrate spatial relations, contain objects and people of different sizes and shapes, and in different locations. Picture books provide the perfect opportunity to use spatial language; not only can educators use spatial words to describe the illustrations in a picture book, but they can also begin to encourage children to use these terms as well.

Children love games. Games such as *Simon Says* and *Follow the Leader* not only help young children develop discipline but also aid in their development of spatial awareness. Games like *Simon Says* can be tailored to incorporate more educator spatial language, including asking children to identify spatial locations (e.g., "*touch your right foot*," "*run to the center of the room*") and to perform spatial directions (e.g., "*jump over the broom*").

With young children, it is important to couple spatial language with gestures. When a gesture accompanies spatial language, children are more likely to comprehend what is being said, and ultimately, spatial thinking is promoted and developed. Gestures are easy to produce in the context of spatial language. For example, educators can simply move their hands together while saying "*these two pieces make a whole triangle shape*" when describing two half pieces fitting together to make a whole triangle shape.

Encourage More Play With Blocks and Puzzles

Wood and foam blocks, MegaBlocs™ and Legos™, along with jigsaw puzzles, are ideal for teaching spatial

thinking, and importantly almost every pre-K environment already has these materials in place. Children love these manipulatives, and their play with these materials utilizes their spatial thinking skills. In particular, block play and puzzle play both require children to mentally and physically transform and rotate pieces to fit into particular spatial locations. Block and puzzle play also increases the opportunity for talk about the spatial world. In fact, most spatial feature/property terms (e.g., *curvy, edge, flat, border*) are commonly produced during puzzle play. Block play also reinforces children's recognition, sorting, and labeling of three-dimensional shapes, as there are cubes, pyramids, cylinders, and rectangular prisms. By asking children to create a structure out of blocks that is the same as the educator's construction, children get the opportunity to practice their pattern-recognition and pattern-making skills, both critical spatial thinking skills.

Provide Multiple Examples of a Given Spatial Concept

Children are far more likely to grasp a spatial concept (e.g., defining features of a triangle) when they are provided with multiple examples of that concept. These examples should include both standard examples, often already provided by early education curricula, and irregular examples, not often considered in curricula materials. For example, when teaching children about the defining features of a triangle (i.e., they have three sides and three angles), educators should introduce both traditional equilateral triangles and isosceles triangles, along with irregular examples, such as the scalene triangle. Comparison between standard and irregular examples helps children see the defining features of the spatial concept (i.e., all triangles have three sides and three angles, but the lengths of the sides or degrees of the angles do not have to be equal).

Teach Children How to Use Maps

Maps are great spatial tools that encourage children to use and develop their spatial thinking. Maps take spatial thinking to the next level by requiring that children be able to both physically and mentally represent a space. Maps are also easy and fun to incorporate into the early education classroom. Educator-drawn maps can be used in an impromptu treasure hunt during which children are asked to find hidden objects in the classroom through the use of a map. This activity also provides the perfect opportunity to elicit spatial talk from children, as they will be using the map to describe the spatial relation between the hidden object and classroom landmarks. To further encourage the understanding of maps as a spatial tool, children can draw their own treasure maps after

hiding treasure in the classroom. This activity allows children to go from the concrete, physical location to the abstract, mental location on the map.

Conclusion

Spatial thinking is a robust predictor of future valued achievements and can even be a good predictor of future career choice. Evidence suggests that children who hear and produce more talk about the spatial world develop better spatial thinking, and that early engagement in spatial activities is a reliable predictor of future spatial thinking ability. Given these recent findings, early educators are wise to use more talk about the spatial world, to promote more play with puzzles and blocks among both boys and girls, to provide multiple examples of spatial concepts (both standard and irregular examples), and to teach children how to use maps to represent space. Spatial thinking is a malleable skill, and with proper supports, all children can develop their spatial thinking and, as a result, live more useful, meaningful lives.

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See also Early Childhood Education and Classroom Management; Play, Learning, and Classroom Management

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SPECIAL EDUCATION AND HISPANIC STUDENTS

Hispanics are the largest and fastest growing minority group in the United States. They are also the youngest. The changing demographics of this population have clear implications for schools. Many of these students have limited English proficiency, and many come from underprivileged backgrounds. As a result, many arrive at school with special needs, needs that are not always easy to define and detect. This entry focuses on these problems of defining and detecting as they relate especially to discriminating between needs relating to language and culture versus needs requiring the usual supports provided by the special education system.

Educational Gaps and Hispanic Students

Teacher qualifications, school factors, and low socioeconomic status may account for why Hispanic students who are linguistically and culturally diverse often experience isolation in the classroom, lower academic expectations, and overrepresentation in special education services. Often teachers are ill-equipped to meet the needs of Hispanic students and so refer these students to special education services despite their differing significantly from other students receiving special education services (e.g., students with serious learning disabilities). The lack of bilingual programs and English as a second language (ESL) supports provides few options for general education teachers to effectively understand the needs of students with emergent English language skills. Moreover, less qualified and novice teachers are often placed in high-risk schools that are known to serve more diverse populations.

On the other hand, school factors may also prevent Hispanic students with disabilities from receiving services. In elementary school settings, Hispanics are often underidentified because they may have access to supplementary programs (e.g., Title I, literacy supports, and individualized instruction). Because of these supports, teachers may be hesitant to refer Hispanic students for special education services. However, at the secondary level, there are fewer supports for Hispanic students, and the linguistic demands are significantly more difficult, which may result in lower academic achievement and increased referrals for special education services.

Neighborhoods that have high concentrations of poverty, crime, and social diversity also contribute to the gap in the education of Hispanic students. Crime and poverty are associated with dropping out of school, juvenile truancy, low family involvement in schooling, lower-quality resources and school facilities, less qualified teachers, and higher teacher turnover. Hispanic

students are disproportionately more likely to attend high-needs schools and have less access to high-quality classes and curricula. In addition, Hispanic families tend to have lower income levels and are less well educated, both of which are associated with lower student achievement.

These issues prevent Hispanic students from receiving a fair chance compared to their non-Hispanic peers. Furthermore, researchers have not adequately addressed issues of language and culture in the context of classroom instruction.

Hispanic Representation in Special Education

Hispanics are a diverse group of individuals from various places of origin, with different family educational histories and language proficiencies, from different socioeconomic backgrounds, with many reasons for immigrating, and with differing generational status in the United States. This diversity makes Hispanic students unique in schooling, which has often led to disproportionate representation in special education system.

Hispanic students are often identified as English language learners and may be further labeled as still acquiring English. Those who are still acquiring English are often referred for special services such as speech and language therapy or disability services under the label learning disabilities or even intellectual disabilities. Hispanic students are also more likely to attend schools with lower-quality teaching staff in economically and ethnically segregated settings. These educational environments may restrict the level of supports they receive in school and increase the chances of their being placed in less challenging classrooms than their non-Hispanic peers.

The specific, immediate causes of Hispanic students being treated differently and often unfairly are complex and can vary by state, local school districts, and individual schools. One area of concern is the referral and assessment process. Another area of concern is whether educators have the knowledge and skills necessary to accommodate the cultural and linguistic needs of Hispanic students.

Standardized tests used to identify students for special education services may present a challenge for Hispanic students due to their cultural and language background. A challenge often faced by schools serving Hispanic students is knowing how to accurately identify their level of English proficiency and knowing the supports that are necessary for these students to succeed. When a student is referred to special education, various psychological and educational measures are administered to determine whether the student is eligible for special education services. Hispanic students' real

learning potential may be masked by their inability to understand the language and/or cultural elements (i.e., based on the assumption of detailed knowledge of the dominant culture) presented in test items. Test bias and bias in administration may result in false positives or misdiagnosis of Hispanic students in special education.

Another potential cause for overrepresentation of Hispanic students in special education may stem from the lack of culturally responsive teaching materials, teaching methodologies, and student supports. Many teachers, administrators, and school personnel are not prepared to make accommodations for the cultural and linguistic needs of Hispanic students. Personnel who have not received preparation in appropriate instructional strategies for Hispanic students may be more likely to refer students to special education. Teachers, administrators, and related service personnel need to engage in practices that meet the academic and social needs of Hispanic students, including ESL supports, bilingual education, and culturally responsive accommodations in the classroom.

Challenges in Distinguishing Disability From Problems Associated With Language, Culture, and Poverty

One of the greatest challenges educators face when working with Hispanic students is distinguishing between academic difficulties caused by a learning disability and academic difficulties caused by the lack of English proficiency. Hispanic students who are acquiring English as a second language often struggle in both academic and social-behavioral performance. Acquiring a new language can be stressful for students, and some students may show problems in attending to tasks, interpreting verbal messages, organizing information, and developing social relationships with adults and peers. The only way to distinguish a learning or language disability from the normal stages of second-language acquisition is to assess students in both English and Spanish. If problems are apparent only in English, it is probably a language acquisition or cultural adjustment issue; if problems are present in both Spanish and English, it is most likely a language, learning, or emotional disability. It is essential that, whenever possible, students are evaluated in both Spanish and English. Unfortunately, many schools are unable to test children in their native language due to the lack of trained bilingual personnel.

It is also important to understand the impact that out-of-school factors (OSFs) have on Hispanic students. There is a greater likelihood that these students live in poverty, have parents with limited education, are underrepresented in early childhood programs, live in unsafe

neighborhoods, are exposed to environmental hazards (e.g., lead, mercury, pesticides), and lack health insurance. These OSFs can negatively impact a student's academic achievement and may result in a disability diagnosis. OSFs can be mediated by (1) ensuring young Hispanic children have access to high-quality early childhood education, (2) establishing strong family-school partnerships, and (3) providing programs that support after-school services for students.

The role parents play in the process of identifying students for special education services is critical. Families have a wealth of knowledge about their children and can help educational teams distinguish between a disability and the normal stages of learning a second language. Families can provide educators with important funds of knowledge and should be encouraged to support their children's education both at home and in school.

Solutions for Addressing Challenges for Hispanic Students

The solutions for addressing the challenges of serving Hispanic students in special education are multifaceted. The effects of language, culture, and poverty on learning and educational outcomes need to be addressed. First, preparation of preservice and inservice teachers on evidence-based practices and home-school partnerships is necessary. Personnel must receive professional development on issues of second-language acquisition, cultural competence, and culturally responsive teaching. The core of this work lies largely in the hands of preservice teacher educators and inservice administrators. Professional development and preparation in understanding students and families from diverse Hispanic backgrounds is paramount.

Second, student referral and evaluation teams should also have skills in conducting dynamic assessments of Hispanic students' academic and social-emotional performance. Educational staff involved in the prereferral and referral process must be skilled at differentiating language and/or cultural differences from true learning or social difficulties. A team of professionals that includes ESL teachers is necessary.

Third, education personnel should take advantage of the response-to-intervention (RTI) models of classroom instruction when working with Hispanic students. Tiered instruction that differentiates the learning needs of all students will assist in ensuring that high-quality evidence-based practices have been implemented in a variety of instructional formats (e.g., large-group, small-group, and peer-mediated instruction) before more intensive instruction is needed.

Finally, it is important that school personnel partner with Latino families to ensure that students are

successful at home and at school. Families who are involved in their child's education can make a significant difference in the outcomes in school and beyond. Strong partnerships with Hispanic families will often require schools to have access to Spanish interpreters and translators in order to reach out to families whose members may not speak English.

Conclusion

As the enrollment of Hispanic students continues to increase in today's schools, special and general education personnel will need to expand their skills in working with this population. Many Hispanic students come to school with societal disadvantages, but they also come with strengths. It is imperative that educators capitalize on these strengths and maintain high expectations for school success. When provided with high-quality teachers, programs, and resources, Hispanic students can excel. School personnel who believe that all children should be valued and held to high expectations for learning and development will make a difference in the education of all Hispanic students, including those with disabilities or at risk for disabilities.

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See also Culturally Pluralistic Classrooms; English Language Learners and Classroom Behavior; English Learners; Immigrant Children and Families; Linguistic Diversity and Classroom Management

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SPECIAL EDUCATION AND PEER SUPPORT STRATEGIES

Successful and effective classroom management for students with disabilities takes place in the context of the broader school environment(s) in which students are educated. These broader environments must be structured to promote both academic learning and social development of students, from early childhood through high school. By law, these environments must include opportunities for youth with disabilities to learn alongside their peers without disabilities. Peer support strategies are, therefore, most relevant for promoting good learning environments in inclusive classrooms. This entry presents effective peer support strategies that can work for students with mild, moderate, and significant disabilities to support both academic and social success.

Peer Support Strategies in Inclusive Settings

Effective classroom management strategies for students with disabilities in inclusive classrooms can be implemented and benefit an entire class of students. Among the most effective and well-researched classwide peer support strategies for promoting both academic learning and good social behavior are Classwide Peer Tutoring (CWPT), Peer-Assisted Learning Strategies (PALS), and the Good Behavior Game (GBG). In addition to the academic components that are central to the first two interventions, each of these interventions using peer supports can help teachers develop and maintain a positive class climate that can contribute to the success of all students and may be vital for students with disabilities to succeed in inclusive settings. Furthermore, over time, these peer support strategies have become more sophisticated, moving from a focus on review of basic facts with teacher-directed rewards to strategy instruction in academic skills and student self-management of social behavior.

Classwide Peer Tutoring

Charles Greenwood and colleagues at the Juniper Gardens Children's Project of the University of Kansas established the initial procedures for CWPT with a focus on basic facts and rewards. In CWPT, teachers carefully select pairs of students to work together on the basis of similar academic levels, then design practice and assessment activities in reading, math, and/or spelling, as well as content areas (e.g., biology) for pairs of

tutors to practice. Central to the effectiveness of CWPT is for peers to (1) work together in a reciprocal fashion with their partners, each taking a turn as tutor or tutee; (2) master procedures in error correction; and (3) earn individual and team points for working together. Pairs of peers are rotated weekly.

Through a series of more than 20 empirical studies, Greenwood and his colleagues systematically tested the procedures that make up CWPT. The results of those studies show that CWPT is effective for boosting the academic skills of students in reading, math, social studies, and science across settings as varied as the general classroom, resource room, and special education self-contained classroom. CWPT has been particularly effective in boosting the academic performance of students with and without disabilities at the elementary level, as well as for students learning English as a second language. Furthermore, students' participation in CWPT improves their overall engagement in learning and social behavior. Across studies of CWPT, students enjoyed working with peers and earning rewards to the extent that they searched closets looking for CWPT materials when these had been removed during a return-to-baseline phase of an experiment.

Peer-Assisted Learning Strategies

Douglas and Lynn Fuchs and colleagues at Vanderbilt University established PALS, building on the core components of CWPT. That is, both interventions require peers to (1) work together in a reciprocal fashion, with each taking a turn as tutor or tutee; (2) master procedures in error correction; and (3) earn individual and team points for working together. As is the case with CWPT, pairs of peers are rotated frequently.

Fuchs and colleagues have been particularly successful at disseminating PALS by offering in-person professional development sessions to teachers along with a scripted manual and student materials for both reading and math interventions. Furthermore, the PALS website provides a wealth of information to principals and teachers who seek to learn more about and implement PALS. Together, Fuchs and colleagues have published approximately 30 empirical studies on the effectiveness of PALS, with many of the studies conducted with large numbers of students in lower-performing urban schools. Indeed, it is a particular strength of both CWPT and PALS that researchers have evaluated their effectiveness in urban schools.

The Good Behavior Game

The focus of the GBG is on promoting students' social behavior. In order to implement the GBG, teachers

divide students into heterogeneous teams, establish goals for desired behavior, and observe the extent to which team members engage in desired behavior and refrain from undesired behavior. In a version of GBG tested by Shepard Kellam and colleagues, teachers rewarded teams for the absence of disruptive behavior. Regardless of whether students are rewarded for the presence of desired behavior or the absence of disruptive behavior, all teams have the opportunity to win, so long as team members meet preestablished goals for social behavior.

Both versions of the game have advantages for teachers and students. When the focus of the game is predominantly on desired behavior, students receive feedback and, therefore, have opportunities to learn how to improve their social behavior. When the focus of the game is on the absence of disruptive behavior, the game may be more manageable for classroom teachers, and the classroom environment becomes less aggressive and more conducive to learning.

In a series of randomized control trials of the GBG implemented by Kellam and colleagues in Baltimore, Maryland, the GBG had both immediate and long-term effects on the aggressive behavior of elementary-age students, resulting in significant reductions in aggression among highly aggressive youth. These reductions persisted from first through sixth grades. As was the case with CWPT and PALS, a strength of the GBG has been its implementation in urban schools, where teachers often must manage large, academically diverse classrooms in the context of fewer resources and greater bureaucracy.

Additional Peer Support Strategies for Classroom Management

Just as individual interventions can operate effectively in the context of classwide interventions, so can peer support strategies for students with significant intellectual and physical disabilities. Peer support strategies provide benefits for students with and without disabilities, particularly for improving social behavior and cultivating social experiences. In a recent book, Eric Carter, Lisa Cushing, and Craig Kennedy provide the research background and practical resources for teachers and paraprofessionals to implement peer supports, which consists of recruiting peers without disabilities to sit with students who have disabilities and provide academic and social monitoring, feedback, and assistance. The contributions of paraprofessionals in this model shift from working one-on-one with a student who has disabilities in a general education class to supporting the teacher with the entire class.

Peer support interventions have been effective in academic, elective, vocational, and related arts classes, in the context of service learning, in extracurricular

and community-based activities, in lunchrooms, during passing periods, and before and after school. Not only are the social benefits substantial for peers with significant disabilities, but Carter and colleagues have observed significant academic and social benefits for peers without disabilities, particularly those who were previously unmotivated and low-achieving. Clearly, this model of intervention provides broad contributions to overall classroom management by creating opportunities for peers with disabilities to experience meaningful social and academic experiences in inclusive settings.

Peer Support Strategies for Resource, Special Class, and Special School Settings

Students with significant learning and emotional/behavioral disabilities may need additional interventions and support beyond those offered in the context of CWPT, PALS, and GBG. For example, each of these classwide interventions may not be as effective for students with serious learning disabilities and emotional and behavioral disabilities.

Margo Mastropieri and colleagues have had success implementing peer tutoring with students who have significant learning disabilities and mild cognitive disabilities in the resource room. For example, students with whom they worked had significantly lower reading abilities than those who participated in PALS. By implementing core components of both CWPT and PALS, along with a self-monitoring checklist for peers and teachers, Mastropieri and colleagues were successful at improving students' reading comprehension. Moreover, participating students consistently reported enjoying their participation in peer tutoring, having it fuel their motivation for learning.

One major obstacle associated with implementing peer tutoring at the middle school level in the resource room is finding a number of good peer matches of comparable ability levels. Indeed, in restrictive school settings, a perennial problem is the availability of a large pool of peers, including fewer positive general education peers to serve as models of desired behavior. The frequent rotation of peers, which is an effective component of CWPT and PALS, becomes a challenge. Further, as settings become more restrictive, student needs are often more complex, with students having a combination of both learning disabilities and behavior problems.

Individual Strategies for Complementing Peer Support Strategies

A solution to both of these challenges is for teachers to provide additional, specifically tailored classwide and individual behavioral interventions. For example, Lisa

Bowman-Perrot and colleagues investigated how to make CWPT more effective with students who had emotional and behavioral disabilities and were educated in alternative schools. They employed a classwide self-management system (CWSM) along with CWPT and its reward system. The classwide self-management consisted of a focus on good citizenship behavior in the classroom. Peers awarded citizenship points to one another on the basis of how well they worked together and followed the peer tutoring procedures. Points were awarded for behavior ranging from honors to needs improvement. A strength of this intervention was its self-management style of delivery, whereby students, rather than teachers, were primarily responsible for observing and recording behavior and rewarding points.

The result of the combination of CWPT and CWSM was that students were more actively engaged and less off-task when they experienced a combination of both interventions. However, they did not make the substantial academic gains in the alternative school that had been associated with prior studies of CWPT. Bowman-Perrot and colleagues speculate that small class sizes in the alternative school provided a smaller pool of peers to provide tutoring. In addition, the academic levels of students in the school were so broad as to prevent higher-performing students from making great gains. Clearly, this is a challenge unique to special and alternative school settings, which can be addressed in creative ways, such as by engaging older youth who read at low levels to tutor young children, and by seeking academic experiences outside the alternative school, such as community college experiences for higher-achieving youth.

Point systems and level systems to support and promote student behavior in a systematic and structured way can be extremely effective in teaching students self-management of behavior and supporting their transition from restrictive settings, such as a special school and special class, to less restrictive, more inclusive settings. Such systems allow students to reduce disruptive, oppositional, and hyperactive behavior so as to prepare them to learn.

Individual behavior management strategies can be implemented in the context of effective classwide interventions and tailored to the needs of particular students. Examples of effective individual strategies are reward systems linked to specific target behaviors, such as behavior contracts and daily report cards. Many of these interventions can include a self-monitoring approach, whereby students rate the quality of their own behavior during a particular period or activity and then compare with a teacher's rating. Students can earn points not only for displaying desired behavior in particular settings but also for matching their own ratings to the teacher's rating. Individual systems such as this are highly flexible and can follow the student from class

to class, in the halls between classes and at recess, during free periods, and at lunchtime.

In a study by H. A. Ninness and colleagues in Texas, students learned to employ explicit strategies of self-control and self-management during highly provocative classroom situations and in unsupervised settings, such as moving from class to class and in the absence of a teacher. The researchers were successful, in part, because of the implementation of a relatively complex level system that was linked to the self-management intervention. As students progressed through this system, they earned progressively higher levels of privileges and rewards and required self-assessment less often. The intervention resulted in a dramatic reduction in disruptive behavior and an increase in self-management skills. Clearly, a major goal and ongoing challenge for future research in classroom management and special education is to boost both the academic and behavioral success of students with serious learning and behavioral disabilities through systems such as these.

Conclusion

Regardless of the characteristics of the students with disabilities or the particular intervention and classroom setting, it is vital for school professionals to hold high expectations for students' academic success and social behavior. In the context of these expectations, teachers can implement effective instructional and behavioral peer support strategies such as CWPT, PALS, and GBG at the classwide level. Effective classwide peer support strategies provide the structure that makes peer support interventions manageable and successful for students with significant intellectual and physical disabilities. Within effective classwide peer support interventions, teachers can provide effective individual interventions for students who need them. To help students with significant learning disabilities and behavior problems educated in resource rooms, special classes, and special schools, teachers might systematically employ cross-age peer tutoring and reach out to students in placements outside the alternative school for high-performing students. Individual students who participate in these interventions can continue to benefit from individual self-management of behavior and corresponding reward systems. Although each of the approaches described here can require of teachers a great deal of time and planning, the rewards are substantial in the form of academic and social success for students with a range of disabilities educated in a variety of settings, from the elementary grades through high school.

Elizabeth Talbott

See also Classwide Peer Tutoring; Good Behavior Game; Inclusive Classrooms; Peer Mediation

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SPECIAL EDUCATION LAWS

In 1975, PL 94-142 became the hallmark federal law governing the rights of children aged 3–21 years to receive special education and related services. This law developed into the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA). The law guarantees that all children have a right to a *free and appropriate education* tailored to meet their individual educational needs. According to the law, educational and related services (such as speech and language, physical therapies, and occupational therapies) must be provided in the *most appropriate, least restrictive environment*. It is the obligation of every educator to ensure that children are identified who may qualify for specialized education.

Parents have the right to request evaluations and provide evidence, if needed, through a *due process hearing* to make sure their children are receiving the services they need through the public schools. The following sections focus on identification of disabilities that compromise learning, determination of whether an individualized education plan (IEP) is needed, the preparation of an IEP including the role and rights of parents, and implementation of an IEP with accommodations and services appropriate to the student's specific needs.

Identifying a Child's Disability

The first step in the special education process is identification and evaluation of a child's disability or disabilities that are compromising a child's learning. A second-grade teacher observes that a child has difficulty with reading fluency and comprehension. A third-grade teacher notices that a child's written language is not commensurate with his or her peers'. A fourth-grade teacher notices that a child seems to process information so slowly as to impede his or her rate of progress. In these instances, the teacher should begin to collect data, anecdotally and from assessments, to look for patterns or specific areas of concern. The teacher should also consult with other staff, asking questions and seeking advice in an effort to better understand the child. If the teacher's concerns are validated and if the child's difficulties persist beyond a reasonable time period, the teacher is obliged under a section of the law known as *child find* to talk with the parents and recommend a special education evaluation. Parents are required to give written consent before the test evaluation can proceed.

Likewise, if parents are concerned about their child's progress or understanding of class material, they have the right to request that the public school conduct an evaluation. Typically, parents make this request in writing. Once the special education department receives the request, they have 30 school days to conduct a thorough evaluation and an additional 15 school days to meet with the parents to determine if the child is eligible for special education services under the IDEA.

The Eligibility Meeting

The eligibility meeting brings together the team of people involved in the evaluation process along with the parents, teachers, and members from the special education department of the school. The meeting is often run by an educational team leader who guides the discussion and, if eligibility is determined, writes the IEP.

These meetings seek to answer questions outlined in the IDEA. The first question is, "Does the child have a qualifying disability?" The Department of Elementary and Secondary Education specifies categories of disabilities.

Through the course of the evaluations, educators, psychologists, and parents determine if there is a disability based on the observations and test findings. The disability categories include Autism, Deaf-Blindness, Deafness, Developmental Delay, Emotional Disturbance, Hearing Impairment, Intellectual Disability, Orthopedic Impairment, Other Health Impairments, Speech or Language Impairment, Traumatic Brain Injury, Visual Impairment, and Specific Learning Disabilities. A disability may fall into more than one category, but the primary category is selected for the purposes of determining eligibility.

Once team members agree on the qualifying disability, they must ask whether the disability interferes with the child's ability to make effective progress. The IDEA states clearly that a child does not have to have poor grades or be failing in order to qualify for an IEP. The IDEA states that the child's disability must adversely affect the child's educational performance or impede the child's ability to access the curriculum.

The third question in determining eligibility is, "Does the child require specially designed instruction in order to make effective progress?" If the answer to all three questions is yes, the child is considered eligible for an IEP.

Preparing an IEP

The team begins the process of writing the document (IEP) that delineates educational goals and plans for services to meet these goals. The IEP is written for 1 year from the time of the meeting and must be reviewed annually. By law, students must be reevaluated no less than every 3 years (known as the triennial evaluation). However, if changes occur within a calendar year, the team can reconvene and write an amendment to the IEP to reflect any newly emerged or changing aspects of the child's profile.

In some instances, there is disagreement in the team meeting. The disagreement may be about a variety of issues, but most often it has to do with the results of the evaluation, recommendations for interventions, or eligibility determination. Parents hold many important rights in these circumstances. If parents disagree with the evaluation results or recommendations, they can seek further clarification of the child's educational needs, through an independent evaluation, performed by qualified personnel who are not affiliated with the school system.

At times, parents may agree with the findings of the evaluations but disagree with the outcome of the meeting. They might see evidence that their child should qualify for an IEP even if the school system disagrees. Or, the parents and school might agree on eligibility but not on the issues of where or how the child is to receive the specially designed instruction.

Usually, the first step is for parents to talk with the special education administrator of their school to see if

they can come to an understanding. If not, the parents have the right to reject the IEP (either the entire IEP plan or only parts of the plan). If the parents and school cannot come to an agreement, a special education mediator might become involved. This person serves the role of an impartial facilitator between the parents and the school. It is the mediator's job to try to help everyone come to an agreement as to what services would most benefit the student.

If mediation is unsuccessful, parents have the right to seek a due process hearing. Typically, parents would hire an education attorney and a variety of experts who could speak to the needs of their child. The hearing officer would make a determination about services or placement.

After the IEP

Special education law focuses on tailoring education to the individual learning needs of a student who has a qualifying disability. Schools must provide an education that is both free and appropriate. However, they must also provide an education in the most appropriate setting, which is also the *least restrictive environment*. This term refers to the placement of a child, including special education services, within the public school and/or an alternative placement. The goal is to educate a student with general education peers as much of the day as is appropriate to meet the student's learning needs.

Although the words appear straightforward, there is often disagreement about what the word *restrictive* means. People define the term differently, so it helps to make sure there is consensus among all the members of the team before discussing services.

In some instances, a student may have a qualifying disability but does not require specialized education. In those instances, a school may offer a 504 Plan (named for section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act). A 504 plan differs from an IEP as it is part of regular education, not special education. As such, it is typically administered by a school principal rather than by the district special education offices. A 504 Plan contains a list of accommodations to be provided by all regular education teachers. The objective of a 504 Plan is to level the educational playing field so that a student with a disability has the same access to the curriculum as students without disabilities. For example, a student with a hearing impairment might have an FM amplifier as part of a 504 Plan so that the student can have the same access to spoken words as other, nondisabled students. A student with ADHD might have a 504 Plan with accommodations that help facilitate organization or give the student extra time to complete work. Although the student might not need specially designed instruction, the student would benefit from accommodations in order to access material just as others do.

Conclusion

Special education laws are designed to improve the lives of students with disabilities. There is a process involving teachers, parents, students, and administrators who come together to determine how to best help a student make effective progress. The laws offer guidance and time frames within which the team operates. But ultimately, it is the people involved who, by working together, make a difference in the life of a child.

Melinda Macht-Greenberg

See also Behavior Support Plans; Council for Children With Behavioral Disorders; Deaf Students; Diagnostic and Statistical Manual (DSM); Disabilities and Classroom Management; Dyslexia: Individualizing Instruction; Individualized Education Programs; Learning Disabilities; Oppositional Defiant Disorder

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SPIRITUAL SUPPORTS FOR STUDENTS WITH DISABILITIES

Among the primary purposes of special education and transition services is to equip children and youth with disabilities for a good life after graduation (Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act of 2004). For the more than six million students with disabilities in the United States, this requires designing individualized instruction and supports so that students (and their families) acquire the skills, knowledge, experiences, and linkages needed to participate in workplaces, neighborhoods, and communities in personally valued ways. This sort of individualization is a hallmark of special education. Furthermore, in the field of transition services, there is a strong commitment to promoting inclusion, self-determination, and quality of life. Indeed, special education and transition services are unique in their pursuit of close alignment with the strengths, interests, preferences, needs, and post-school goals of students with disabilities. Put simply, part of what makes special education *special* is its focus on what matters most to individual students and their families.

For many students with disabilities and their families, spirituality and involvement in a community of

faith are among the aspects of life that matter most. For example, a study conducted by the National Organization on Disability found that almost exactly the same percentage of Americans with and without disabilities—more than 84%—considered their faith to be either *somewhat important* or *very important* to them. Consistent with a plethora of studies involving individuals without disabilities, having the opportunities and supports to express one's spirituality and participate in congregational life may be associated with greater well-being and improved quality of life among young people with disabilities and their families. Not surprisingly, an increasing number of position statements—crafted by disability organizations, religious denominations, and similar agencies—now affirm the importance of thoughtfully supporting this dimension of the lives of people with disabilities and their families.

Yet, recent research and prevailing practice suggests this dimension of the lives of people with disabilities and their families is overlooked, poorly supported, or actively ignored within both professional and faith community circles. For example, a more recent National Organization on Disability study highlighted a substantial gap in the extent to which people with and without significant disabilities attend a church, synagogue, or other place of worship (43% vs. 57%, respectively, attend at least once per month).

A study involving more than 400 parents of children with developmental disabilities revealed that more than half of parents kept their child from participating in a religious activity because support was not provided. Furthermore, more than one third changed their place of worship because their child was not welcome. Sadly, less than one fifth of congregations offer support to children with developmental disabilities within religious education programs, host support groups for parents, or provide respite opportunities.

What role might schools and professionals play in supporting the inclusion of students with disabilities in all aspects of their lives—educationally, vocationally, residentially, and spiritually? First, understanding the values and priorities parents hold for their children's present and future is central to providing culturally competent educational and transition services. Educators are called upon to partner effectively with families from economically, culturally, geographically, *and* religiously diverse backgrounds. Thoughtfully listening to families about what matters most can help practitioners better align the experiences, supports, and linkages they provide to students with the commitments and preferences each family holds. Widely recommended person-centered planning approaches offer a fitting context for exploring these issues with families.

Second, educators can provide parents with information about how to connect to community and

congregational supports that can help their child and family participate in worship, learning, service, and fellowship activities offered by local faith-based groups or to access other spiritual supports. Many families impacted by disability are unfamiliar with the array of community programs available to people impacted by disability and rely heavily on schools as a vehicle for this information.

Third, educators can focus on equipping students with the skills, attitudes, and opportunities that enable them to direct their own lives in personally valued ways. Providing instruction related to self-determination—such as teaching self-awareness, goal setting, decision making, and self-advocacy—can provide students with some of the tools they need to explore their own spirituality and/or seek out those supports that enable access to congregational activities. Absent such instruction, many students lack the experience needed to make important choices about their own lives.

Fourth, individualized educational program planning teams can prioritize skills that will have relevance in multiple areas of a student's life. For example, strengthening students' social and communication skills, functional and daily living skills, and mobility skills can all enhance their participation in the activities and relationships taking place in and through a faith community.

Finally, friendships and other peer relationships provide rich contexts within which young people often discover, explore, and deepen their spirituality. Many children and youth without disabilities affiliate with peers—in and outside of school—who share their beliefs, values, and/or religious affiliations. However, students with significant disabilities often have limited opportunities to participate in shared classes, clubs, and other community activities with peers in their schools. As a result, social interactions and friendships with other students are especially elusive for many students with disabilities. For example, a nationally representative study found that 44% of youth with autism, 30% of youth with multiple disabilities, and 20% of youth with physical disabilities are reported to have *never* gotten together with friends outside of school or organized activities in the past year. Educators can take steps to ensure students with disabilities have the opportunities and supports needed to participate in inclusive learning and leisure opportunities at their school through which new relationships might emerge.

Although the presence of a disability does not diminish the importance people place on spirituality and religious expression, it does appear to impact the opportunities young people have to express their spirituality and faith commitments—both individually and corporately. Educators and other professionals can help ensure people with disabilities and their families have

access to the resources, supports, and relationships they need in order for them to flourish in all dimensions of their lives, including spiritual dimensions.

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See also Autism and Inclusion in Classrooms; Inclusive Classrooms; Individualized Education Programs; Individuals with Disabilities Education Act

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STORY WRITING

Writing is a keystone skill for academic success across the grade span, and teachers' fostering writing skills is central to creating good learning environments. Despite the fact that writing is essential, less than 6% of

students with disabilities demonstrate proficient writing skills, and many without disabilities fall behind because of their poor writing. Because writing is a primary vehicle for demonstrating knowledge, students who are unable to express their ideas through writing display negative outcomes in both immediate academic and distal environments later in life. Story writing can serve to promote writing skills and to help even those with disabilities become sufficiently proficient in writing to thrive in school.

Story writing is one of the first genres of writing taught in schools. Story or narrative writing is writing characterized by the creation of characters, settings, plots, conflicts, actions, and emotions. Story writing allows students to use imagination and creativity to create stories that may also involve personal elements. Mastering story writing may be pivotal to mastering other genres of writing and later academic success.

Story Writing Instruction

In 2012, a panel of experts in collaboration with the Institute of Education Sciences and the What Works Clearinghouse put together a practice guide for improving elementary writing with several evidence-based recommendations. The practice guide explained that research has shown that increased opportunities to practice composition increases student's writing performance. One lesson from this practice guide is that teachers should explicitly teach the parts of a story, model how to write an effective story, and support students through guided practice activities as story writing skills develop. Doing so can be facilitated in the classroom through formal and informal activities.

One common method of initiating story writing involves giving students a story starter. As an example, the following story starter was given to a 14-year-old girl with an emotional disturbance, "Get out of there as fast as you can!" I yelled to my brother as . . ." The student finished the statement with the following narrative that, although brief, incorporated many essential story elements:

. . . the ceiling crumbled in smoldering embers. He dodged the plaster and plywood just in time. Through the gaping hole in the ceiling a tremendous scaly claw reached down snatching up my brother. "Where is it?" a thunderous voice growled. And before I had time to scream the claw lifted my brother from the house. I never saw him again.

Another recommendation for improving writing skills, including story writing, involves teaching students to use

the writing process for a variety of purposes. While story writing represents one of those purposes, students can also be taught to use story writing to compose personal narratives and other genres of stories such as fantasy, fairy tales, and science fiction (as the above story represents).

As previously mentioned, story writing is typically taught in the lower elementary grades. However, these other genres of story writing can be taught in later grades to help improve writing skills and facilitate reading comprehension.

Yet another recommendation for improving students' writing skills is to create a community of learners where students support each other and work collaboratively on their writing. Teachers can facilitate this by having students collaborate with them, through modeling and class story writing. Collaborations can also be facilitated by setting up writing workshops where students get feedback from one another on their writing. Noted writing researcher Steve Graham emphasizes that it is important for students to be given specific guidelines during collaborative activities. For example, once students have written a story, they can be placed in pairs to read their stories to one another. Each student can be given a checklist to determine if their peer is missing any of the main story elements previously taught. Another method is to ask students to identify two things they like about their partner's story and one thing they would change.

Self-Regulated Strategy Development: A Promising Approach

One approach that has been used to teach story writing is *self-regulated strategy development* (SRSD), a six-stage writing process designed to address deficits in writing as well as attitudes, beliefs, and motivation related to the writing process. SRSD instruction includes almost all of the recommended practices found to be evidence-based by the What Works Clearinghouse panel. SRSD consists of the following stages: (1) develop background knowledge, (2) discuss it, (3) model it, (4) memorize it, (5) support it, and (6) engage in independent practice. Each stage is taught to mastery and can be implemented individually, in a small group, or classwide. As part of SRSD, students learn a mnemonic that guides them through the writing process and develop self-regulatory skills such as goal setting, self-monitoring, self-instruction, and self-praise.

One SRSD mnemonic for teaching story writing is *WWW*, *What* = 2, *How* = 2, which stands for *Who* is the main character? *When* does the story happen? *Where* does the story happen? *What* does the main character do? *What* happens then? *How* does the story end? *How* does the main character feel? Another mnemonic used for teaching story writing is *C-SPACE*, which stands for

Characters, Setting, Purpose of what the main character tries to do, Action to achieve goal, Conclusion of action, Emotions of main character. These mnemonics help students remember to include all necessary elements in their stories and are taught using the six-stage outline above.

Story writing is an essential skill that has a long-term impact on student success in other genres of writing, as well as their greater academic success. Teachers play an important role in fostering these skills and should consider these recommendations and evidence-based practices when planning for writing instruction.

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See also Classwide Peer Tutoring; Cooperative Learning Groups; Curriculum and Classroom Management; Evidence-Based Classroom Management; Management of Student Grouping; Managing Groupwork; Writing and Classroom Management

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STRESS

Everyone knows what stress is and has some personal experience with its effects. This entry defines stress in its various forms and describes its physiological manifestations in the context of learning environments. Also described are the effects of stress on learning and the particular effects of stress on teachers. The entry concludes with a discussion of mechanisms for coping with stress.

Defining Stress

Though a variety of definitions exist for stress across multiple contexts and within a variety of fields, this

entry is devoted to psychological stress. *Psychological stress* refers to experiencing emotional discomfort accompanied by certain biochemical and behavioral changes. Stress is an inevitable part of life, and particularly within the context of a classroom, where challenges in the form of new curriculum, social dynamics, and assessments are a daily occurrence. Stress can be pervasive, and those events that bring on stress are known as *stressors*, or stimuli that generate stress.

There are several different types of stress. *Temporary* or *acute* stress is short-lived and can be beneficial in providing a person with motivation to, for example, complete a paper, write a lesson plan, or study for a test. On the other hand, *chronic* stress is long-term and more extreme in nature, and its effects are deleterious. This type of prolonged, consistent stress may come as a result of a difficult home environment, poverty, a learning disability, or some other source that is pervasive and unrelenting. There is no impending, expected relief from this type of stressor, as a person might experience after having passed a difficult test or completed a public-speaking engagement.

Another important differentiation in a classroom is the difference between *challenge* stress and *hindrance* stress. Similar to acute stress, challenge stress (also known as *eustress*) can motivate people to action and help hold their attention. It is the optimal level of stress that increases alertness and motivation.

Hindrance stress results from the inability of a person's available resources to fulfill the demands of the task at hand. It contributes to exhaustion and burn-out, as well as to failure and a lack of motivation. As the name implies, hindrance stress diminishes rather than enhances performance. There is a fine difference between challenge and hindrance stress, and the optimal state in a classroom is challenge stress. Challenge stress is associated with high motivation to learn, while hindrance stress is associated with lower motivation to learn and shutting down.

Physiological Manifestations of Stress

Feelings of stress create a physiological fight-or-flight response in the body. When a person is stressed, the sympathetic nervous system (which controls the fight-or-flight response) reacts. A stressful event puts the body in a threatened state, and adrenaline and cortisol hormones surge through the body. This reaction increases heart rate and breath as the lungs dilate, while reducing nonessential body functions, such as digestion and—especially important for a classroom context—higher-order cognition. This involuntary response helps humans react quickly to the threatening stressor, but it is not intended to be a prolonged response. Cortisol is

essentially a neurotoxin and is not meant to be present in increased amounts in the body for very long.

Why is stress so important to consider in an encyclopedia of classroom management? For both teachers and students, it is well documented that chronic stress leads to higher rates of sickness and infections and contributes to feelings of depression and unhappiness. Stress also negatively impacts mood, sleep, and anxiety. Overall, health consequences occur in the form of adverse effects on the immune, cardiovascular, and central nervous system as a result of chronic stress. High cortisol levels as a result of prolonged, chronic, or cumulative stress results in children who are constantly amped up, perhaps appearing as having behavior problems or with similar symptomology as a child with attention deficits, although their treatment plan should be entirely different.

Moreover, teachers can have a tremendous impact on the amount of stress their students experience in the classroom. They are responsible for ensuring challenge stress in their classroom rather than hindrance stress. It is also critical for teachers to be aware of the effects of chronic stress, as their students may come into their classrooms already suffering from chronic stress.

Effects of Stress on Learning: Students

For both students and staff, schools are performance-based environments, thereby ensuring the certain presence of stress for many students. Continuous adjustments throughout the day can be stressors, including changing schedules, changing teachers, taking exams, completing assignments, and exposure to new and challenging information. Beyond the triggers of the school day itself, an individual student may be experiencing stress outside of school (e.g., at home or child care), which can be carried forward into the classroom.

In a classroom, teachers are constantly balancing resources and demands, and there is an optimal balance between the two. The term *resources* refers to students' capabilities: prior knowledge, natural abilities, dispositional characteristics, and available external support. In contrast, *demands* encompass the level of risk a task demands, the degree of uncertainty, and the student's perceived amount of required effort. Balancing resources and demands is key to optimal instruction; teachers should strive for the crucial challenge mode that does not deplete the student's resources, which causes frustration, exhaustion, burnout, and a lack of motivation. When demands are too high and the student does not feel he or she has the resources to meet those demands, the body's stress response is initiated. During this stress response, many relevant cognitive processes are affected, which will impact a student's attempt to

learn in a classroom setting. These include working memory, initiation and termination of action, abstract and conceptual thinking, creativity, cognitive flexibility, response to novelty, and goal-directed behavior.

If the physiological stress response is activated too often, or remains activated for too long in developing brains, the chronic presence of cortisol can adversely affect the developing brain structures involved in cognition (memory, learning, etc.). Even in a more developed brain, studies have shown that factual memory (explicit memory) is impaired following high doses of synthetic cortisol. As further evidence of the difference between challenge and hindrance stress, moderate doses of cortisol are shown to enhance explicit memory.

How the children in the classroom perceive school is highly dependent upon their prior experiences with teachers, classrooms, and friends at school. Therefore, even on the first day of school in a teacher's classroom, a child may be stressed, initiating the physiological stress response. There is a memory-impairing effect on learning when the stress response is active. Teachers can help by recognizing the signs of stress in their students and ensuring that the students are well prepared for any demands a task may require. Children who have been in negative classroom environments, such as classrooms with fewer materials or teachers who are more stressed, show more externalizing (aggression, inattention), interpersonal, and internalizing (anxiety, depression) problems. Unfortunately, the factors that contribute to a negative school and class environment, such as lack of resources and teacher turnover, disproportionately exist in schools with lower socioeconomic conditions.

Effects of Stress on Learning: Teachers

Owing to continuous budget cuts, too few material resources, expanding class sizes, and removal of elective courses, teachers may also be experiencing added stress beyond their classroom duties. In the same way that employers in adult work environments can contribute to a more or less stressful work setting, teachers can also alter the experience of their students. Labeled stress contagion, teachers' anxiety or frustration with their work climate can spill over into their classroom, causing passive exposure to stress.

Common stressors for teachers include, but certainly are not limited to, lack of material resources, perception of insufficient respect from colleagues or value by administration, increased paperwork associated with implementation of public laws such as the No Child Left Behind law, less autonomy in the classroom, student disciplinary issues, and shifting curriculum (change to Common Core standards), among others.

Conclusion: Coping With Stress

Stress reduction techniques that are recommended for adults are also useful for students in the classroom setting. Some simple techniques include deep breathing, progressive relaxation (wherein the individual focuses on tensing and then relaxing a particular muscle group, moving throughout the body), and visualization. Teachers may wish to lead their students in a daily mindfulness exercise or encourage deep breathing before difficult tasks. Teachers should also strive to achieve the optimal challenge stress state in their classrooms, leading tasks that challenge the students but are still within their zone of proximal development. Stressful events and the effects of stress can also be mitigated by invisible forces at the school and in the classroom: a calm, caring environment, a positive school climate, support for teachers, supportive colleagues and administration, and collaboration among teachers and among students.

Although different sources of stress may require different coping mechanisms, it is important to identify the sources of stress so that they can be addressed and their impact lessened. Teachers may need to seek support from other professionals: a school psychologist, crisis counselor, therapist, or social worker. Despite the damage stress can do to a student, teachers should take comfort in knowing that there are many protective factors for students coping with stress: supportive caregivers, supportive community, supportive classroom environment, positive peer relationships, and even a cognitive understanding of stress and strategies to cope with it.

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See also Medication for Emotional and Behavioral Problems; Mindfulness Practices for Teachers; Mindfulness-Based Approaches to Classroom Management; Student Anxiety and Classroom Management

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STUDENT ANXIETY AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

The National Institutes of Health report that one in four 13- to 18-year-olds has had an anxiety disorder in his or her lifetime. This means that three or more students in the average classroom may be suffering with anxiety and the challenging behavior that can result, and overburdened teachers may be inadequately prepared to handle their complex needs, which, if left untreated, can have a serious negative impact on their learning and behavior in school. To provide help, there is a real need for educators to understand anxiety's effects on students' cognition, efficiency, and ability to perform consistently.

Further complicating the problem of understanding and treating anxiety is the fact that anxiety can smolder in the background, only surfacing when a student explodes out of fear or frustration. Furthermore, schools' traditional behavior plans are often ineffective at addressing anxiety-related behaviors because they do not acknowledge anxiety as the underlying cause. These plans often use rewards and consequences for appropriate behavior, an approach that is counterproductive for students with anxiety.

Instead, challenging behavior with anxiety as an underlying cause should be regarded as a symptom of a skill deficit, much in the same way that an inability to read well is a symptom of dyslexia. When specific skills related to self-regulation (e.g., self-calming and managing frustration), social skills (e.g., perspective taking and taking turns), self-monitoring (e.g., assessing one's emotions), executive functioning (e.g., flexibility and organization), and perspective taking are consciously and effectively taught to students with anxiety, their behavior will improve. Teaching these skills and implementing specific strategies, such as creating a reassuring

classroom environment, monitoring and mediating anxiety throughout the school day, and addressing hot spots when anxiety is likely to increase, leads to improved behavior and more efficient, enjoyable learning.

Impact of Anxiety on Learning

Students with underaddressed anxiety can fall behind academically because they are distracted and have reduced verbal working memory (a type of short-term memory that allows someone to retain information and not have to relearn tasks for language retention, like repeating a phone number in your head while dialing). Furthermore, when students are anxious, they think less efficiently, which greatly affects their ability to learn and which can lead to significant academic deficits. Also when anxious, they often have to exert more effort to perform well because they are attempting to manage their anxiety while executing a task.

Impact of Anxiety on Behavior

Some students with anxiety show consistent and recognizable physiological signs (e.g., flushed cheeks and tense muscles). Often, however, students with anxiety show behavioral cues as the first signs that they are anxious or that their anxiety level is increasing. Recognizing, understanding, and tuning in to these behavioral cues can be useful for teachers.

Some of these behavioral signs may appear similar to the behavior of other types of students with problems (e.g., those who have low frustration tolerance or are chronically explosive)—for example, yelling, kicking, crying, leaving the classroom, or being easily frustrated. The key is to recognize when anxiety is the underlying cause and not some other cause. Fortunately, there are behavioral symptom lists that help us do this. The following is a partial list of behavioral symptoms of anxiety:

- inflexibility
- irrational, overreactive, emotionally intense responses
- sudden changes in behavior
- inconsistent behavior
- avoidance (i.e., using behavior to avoid/escape situations)
- desire for control and predictability
- perfectionism

Why Does Anxiety Lead to Inconsistent Behavior?

Based on many variables, anxiety levels fluctuate throughout the day, which makes the student's behavior erratic.

Think of an unopened soda can. You cannot know if it has been shaken until you open it and the contents are released explosively. Similarly, it is difficult to see how anxious a student is at any given moment unless he or she has reached the point of exploding or shutting down.

This inconsistent presentation is unique to anxiety. Other disabilities, like a reading disability, are much more predictable. A student with dyslexia does not read a chapter flawlessly one day and then struggle over a sentence in the same book the next day. Teachers are not accustomed to thinking of disabilities as affecting students only some of the time, which makes anxiety a unique challenge.

In addition to behavior fluctuations, anxiety can also cause fluctuations in a student's academic performance owing to its effects on working memory, attention, and other abilities. Unfortunately, when teachers observe a student writing two beautiful paragraphs one day, then struggling to write a single sentence the next, they may come to the erroneous conclusion that the student is not performing up to his or her abilities because of laziness or lack of motivation.

Skill Development: The Key to Long-Term Behavioral Change

Students would behave well if they could. When a student with anxiety behaves poorly, it provides an opportunity to discover more about the student and to evaluate what is currently in place to support the student and whether the support is adequate. It allows us to think about the student in a deeper way (how she learns best, what skills need strengthening, when and where she is able to behave appropriately, and what other stressors may be present, such as family difficulty or health problems) and to reflect on her past successes as well as her challenges.

Also when a student with anxiety behaves poorly, it is often because the student has not developed necessary skills. These skills include self-regulation, social skills, flexible thinking, positive thinking, and executive function skills. Without these skills, students have great difficulty with many common classroom events, such as sharing, waiting, hearing no, or tolerating a novel activity. Teaching these skills every day to students with anxiety, with the help of tailored social-emotional curriculums, is as important as teaching reading, writing, and arithmetic.

Self-Regulation

Many students with anxiety are unable to identify their emotions or understand that emotions start small and can escalate. Once students do understand, they can

learn to catch themselves when they are frustrated and practice a self-regulation strategy (e.g., “I feel frustrated, so I’d better take three deep breaths”) to regulate themselves before becoming explosive or shutting down.

An emotional thermometer is a great tool for teachers to use. By labeling the child’s emotions throughout the day (“I notice you’re calm and happy right now”), it demonstrates the fluctuations that take place. Adding corresponding self-regulation strategies on the emotional thermometer is helpful for cueing the student: “I think you’re getting frustrated. What strategy are you going to use?”

Many of our students with anxiety do not know how to self-calm, so explicit instruction and practice in self-calming skills is important. A student with anxiety can benefit from practicing as often as twice a day, especially in the place where he may be taken if he becomes upset (e.g., the guidance office or a quiet corner of the classroom). This can foster automatic use of these skills when the student is in that space during an actual behavior incident.

Self-Monitoring

Self-monitoring is the ability to recognize and keep track of our own behavior. If you have ever tried to quit smoking or lose weight, you might have been told to keep a log of the number of cigarettes you smoke or the amount food you consume in a day. Tracking behavior, without any other interventions, can be powerful. Just being aware of how much you are smoking or eating can change your behavior. Self-monitoring and awareness are the first steps in learning to catch ourselves when acting inappropriately and eventually stopping the behavior altogether. Self-monitoring skills can be taught and are helpful in allowing students to maintain appropriate behavior.

Accommodations—Preventive Measures

In addition to teaching students the skills they need to behave appropriately, schools can take proactive action when a student’s anxiety level first begins to rise, set up the student’s environment for success, and put in place accommodations, which are changes that help a student work around his or her challenges.

The best way to bypass a potential outburst or shut down is to intervene early. When a teacher observes a sudden behavior change, this is an indicator that the student’s anxiety may be increasing. For instance, when a student who was calmly working starts to argue, the teacher has the opportunity for a check-in: “How’s it going?” “Need a drink of water?” “Anything bothering you?” This can stop the anxiety from overwhelming the

student and, most importantly, prevent the student from losing learning time because of off-task behavior.

Once a student’s anxiety is already escalated, our options for intervening effectively are limited. We will have greater success if we provide the student with tools to manage the frustration or anxiety beforehand. In addition to teaching the underdeveloped skills essential for long-term behavior change, it is essential to manage common environmental triggers or school hot spots, set up the classroom with a space for self-calming (e.g., a quiet corner with pillows), form a positive relationship with the student and frontload some interventions to set the tone for the school year. Ninety percent of every behavior plan should be dedicated to prevention.

Common hot spots that can be challenging for students with anxiety include

- writing
- unstructured times
- transitions
- social demands
- novel events
- unexpected changes in routines
- exposure to an academic subject the student shows weakness in

Keeping these challenging situations in mind can be helpful when generating a plan of accommodations and supports. Students will continue to require accommodations until they develop the skills to cope and can succeed without them.

Writing

Writing can increase a student’s anxiety because writing requires the use of their underdeveloped executive functioning skills, which can lead to performance anxiety over time. Teachers can help students with anxiety who try to avoid writing by using technology accommodations that remove paper-and-pencil demands and make writing easier to understand and organize.

Perfectionist tendencies can make spelling tough for students with anxiety. Providing a chart with commonly misspelled words or allowing the student to ask the teacher for the correct spelling or to use computer spell check may reduce this anxiety.

Students with anxiety about specific writing assignments can ultimately develop generalized anxiety toward all aspects of writing. When a student learns to self-monitor, he begins to recognize what he is good at and what he is struggling with, instead of making global negative comments about writing. For example, it is preferable to say, “I’m not a great speller, but I have a strategy” rather than “I hate writing” or “I’m a horrible writer.” One method is for students to keep a chart of

those aspects of writing assignments they find challenging, along with a list of strategies to use when they are stuck. (For example, when a student cannot expand on an idea, the chart tells him he can search images on the computer.) After a while, the chart may help the student realize he needs to use these strategies less than he had originally assumed and that he is not bad at *all* parts of writing, just a few. (“I’m a good writer, but I need strategies for spelling.”)

Unstructured Times

We know unstructured times, such as lunch and recess, may provoke anxiety because they require social skills (e.g., deciding where to sit or whom to play with), executive functioning skills (e.g., organizing getting lunch), and self-regulation skills (e.g., staying calm in a chaotic environment). Providing alternative lunch and/or recess settings can help a student with anxiety succeed and be more regulated during the afternoon. Teachers can facilitate a successful alternative lunchtime social interaction between the student and two peers in a small, quiet space and/or an alternative recess with a few peers in a separate location. This may allow the student to be more settled throughout the remainder of the day.

Rethinking Reinforcement

Traditional behavior plans using methods such as sticker charts, point systems, and level systems are based on rewards and consequences. For instance, “If you don’t interrupt in math class, you’ll earn five points toward your computer time” or “If you interrupt in math class, you’ll lose two minutes of recess.” Typically, the criteria for behavior are set and inflexible, based on the student’s abilities when she is calm and not taking into account her fluctuating level of anxiety or variable ability to behave and perform. This can lead to students feeling resentment at what they see as unrealistic demands. Even if she tries, the student may be unable to meet the criteria when she is anxious. In addition, these behavior plans usually do not emphasize teaching explicit skills or proactive anxiety management.

Shift in Emphasis

For students with anxiety, it may still be helpful to use rewards and reinforcements, such as receiving points or tokens. However, rather than being bestowed for good behavior, they should be given for practicing social or self-regulation skills or for using a strategy in a difficult, anxious moment. This reinforces the practice and application of the underdeveloped skills the student is working on.

Conclusion

Traditional behavior programs and plans often do not meet the needs of students with anxiety and may even exacerbate the problem—because they do not address the underlying anxiety. Understanding the role anxiety plays in a student’s behavior is crucial. An effective behavior plan needs to avoid reward/punishment-based consequences. Instead it should focus on teaching the student with anxiety to cope with anxiety and to use alternative responses to anxiety while strengthening underdeveloped skills. Including preventive strategies and accommodations as part of an overall anxiety management approach to behavior will help students to thrive.

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See also Behavior Disorders; Diagnostic and Statistical Manual (DSM); Medication for Emotional and Behavioral Problems; Self-Regulated Learning; Social and Emotional Learning; Stress

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STUDENT INTEREST, STIMULATING AND MAINTAINING

When a child is curious and interested in something, he willingly pays attention to it. Depending on age and experiences, this interest can range from simple objects to complex concepts. The greater a child’s interest in an idea, object, or concept, the more motivated the child is to communicate and learn more about it. Effective teachers develop strategies and use curricula to engage and maintain children’s interests. They use this sustained interest as a platform for building and supporting children’s learning and development. The main purpose of this entry is to describe strategies and curricular approaches that may stimulate and maintain children’s interest.

Considering Children's Development

Effective teachers are aware of the typical paths of child development and the challenges that occur in children's development at various locations along that path. This awareness allows them to provide learning experiences that embrace the developmental challenges that are typically interesting to children at the ages of the children in the class. For example, 18-month-old children are typically interested in dropping objects into a container and then dumping them out. Knowing this, teachers who has an 18-month-old in their class would then provide objects and containers for that purpose. They would maintain the child's interest by varying the type and quantity of objects and providing a variety of containers. Yet, this activity would likely be boring to typically developing 4-year-olds, who are developing symbolic thought. Effective teachers of 4-year-olds would recognize that their students would likely be interested in taking on roles during pretend play. They would provide props that her students might use to support their play.

Children are likely to show a lack of interest in lessons aimed at teaching them concepts or skills they have already mastered. Similarly, they are likely to quickly lose interest in learning experiences that are beyond their ability. Psychologist Lev Vygotsky described the importance of identifying and teaching within each child's *zone of proximal development*, the point at which a child is currently developing new concepts or skills with some supportive assistance of an adult. Ongoing formative assessment of individual children helps effective teachers to identify what each child is beginning to know and be able to do, so they can teach within that zone. Teachers can maintain a child's interest by providing the support or *scaffolding* necessary to help her successfully engage in the learning experience. For example, an adult might model writing each letter for a child who is learning to write his or her name.

Philosophical Background of Interest-Based Curricula

In his 1918 publication, *The Project Method*, William Kilpatrick, a leader in the progressive education movement, envisioned children's interest as the unit of study, and he explained that instruction should follow the child's interest. The Open Education Movement emerged in the 1960s in the United States as a result of the influence of the British Infant Schools and the Plowden Report, a large-scale review of primary education in England. Whereas the open education movement came from England, it was rooted in the philosophies of the Americans John Dewey and Kilpatrick. The open education movement and the project approach share an

emphasis on providing enough flexibility in the curriculum to follow the child's interest.

In 1989, Katz and Chard published the first edition of *Engaging Children's Minds: The Project Approach*. Lilian Katz and S. C. Chard consider the project approach a portion of the curriculum that capitalizes on what children learn through spontaneous play as well as systematic instruction. In their model, children's *interest in content leads to instruction*. Similar to Kilpatrick's project method, the project approach incorporates the children's ideas, questions, theories, predictions, and interests to determine the direction of the learning experience. As in Kilpatrick's model, the project proceeds through phases, although the Project Approach is composed of three rather than Kilpatrick's four phases. In phase 1 of a project, the topic is introduced, and children explore their own past experiences and current knowledge of the topic. Through this initial phase, they generate questions about the topic. In phase 2, the children actively investigate the topic, and in phase 3 the children summarize what has been learned, and a culminating event describing and displaying their learning is held. Phase 2 is typically the longest phase of a project, often lasting 4–6 weeks.

Using Inquiry-Based Curricula

Curriculum that engages children in first-hand investigation capitalizes on and sustains children's interests. The Project Approach is a multidimensional, interconnected approach to teaching based on the constructivist theory of how children learn. The addition of project work to the curriculum allows children to apply the concepts or skills they have been taught in a meaningful context.

The content, knowledge, dispositions, and skills emphasized are likely to vary from project to project within a given classroom. Likewise, there will be variation from classroom to classroom in response to the individual interests of the children and teachers involved. As teachers plan for project work, they anticipate their individual students' strengths, knowledge, and skills, what they wish to know or do, and how they can best accomplish their investigation. With this information, teachers are able to support long-term, child-led investigations that allow many opportunities for in-depth exploration, representation, and expression of new understandings through multiple types of media. Younger children might represent their experiences through the graphic arts, sculpture, or movement, while older children may also represent their growing understanding through writing and collection of data.

There are many opportunities for children who are at a variety of developmental skill levels to use their individual strengths to support the work of their peers

and to contribute to the successful completion of a project. Consequently, this inclusive approach can provide a context that supports peer communication, interaction, and increased engagement, thereby sustaining all children's continued interest in the investigation and often results in a reduction in challenging behaviors that may be associated with mixed skills groupings.

Identifying a Topic

A key to successful project work is the identification of a topic that will sustain children's continued interest in an ongoing investigation. While a child may be interested in a particular topic, her teacher might not propose it as a topic for a project if she does not consider it worthy of investigation. For example, a child might be interested in a favorite cartoon character, yet her teacher would not consider it a topic worth knowing more about. Therefore, selection of the topic is negotiated between the children and the teacher.

A viable topic for investigation is directly observable in the children's own environment, and most of the children in the class have prior experience with it. A topic will not sustain children's interests if children cannot conveniently investigate important aspects of the topic first-hand. For example, children may be interested in outer space but they cannot investigate it themselves, so it would not sustain long-term interest in investigation. Instead, a child can experience a viable topic through the senses, one that has features that can be measured, counted, weighed, labeled, drawn, imitated, or otherwise represented.

Availability of guest experts to interview and sites for field trips are also criteria for topic selection. Elementary-age children may be able to remember and remain interested in information they learned during a one-time field trip taken by the entire class. However, for younger children, it is more important that the field trip site is close enough to the school so the children can make repeated visits to satisfy their curiosity and generate more questions.

Topics that have potential for representation in a variety of media also support children's ongoing interest, since children have diverse preferences and abilities for representation. For example, knowledge gained during a project investigation might be represented through dramatic play, drawing, sculpture, block constructions, or graphic organizers such as webs or flow charts.

Sensitivity to the culture of the community and the children in the class also is a criterion for selection of a topic. Children are more likely to relax and express their interest in a topic that is relevant to their everyday experience and deemed culturally appropriate by their families.

Conclusion: A Challenge for Teachers

Older children can explain their interests, but this is difficult for many young children, especially for those who do not have prior experience with inquiry-based learning or who have not developed sufficient language skills. Teachers of young children can overcome this challenge by becoming skilled observers and watching during pretend play and by asking parents to share their knowledge of their child's interests. Teachers can gauge their students' potential interest in a topic by reading a book about the topic or by bringing in topic-related objects and monitoring their responses.

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See also Developmentally Appropriate Practice; Motivating Students; Progressive Education; Vygotsky, Lev

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STUDENTS WITH HEARING IMPAIRMENTS

Hearing plays an important part in a classroom environment and student learning, especially for those with hearing impairments. A hearing impairment can affect a student's ability to develop socially, emotionally, and/or academically. It is essential, therefore, that teachers do

what they can to include in their classroom management strategies accommodations for those students with hearing impairments. The entry focuses on defining what those accommodations might be.

Classroom Setup

Accommodating students with a hearing loss or deafness requires setting up a classroom to become an optimal hearing and listening environment. The classroom needs to be well lighted so that students can see the teacher and/or interpreter. Background noises need to be kept to a minimum so that students with hearing impairments can make maximal use of their assistive learning devices. Without isolating them, hearing-impaired students need to be seated out of the flow of traffic so as to help decrease extraneous noise and distractions. This can often be done by asking the students themselves where they think would be best with regard to seating and being able to listen and communicate.

Visual Cues

Teachers of students with hearing impairments need to provide as much information as possible in visual form. All routines, rules, and procedures need to be posted clearly and at an easy viewing/reading level. When teachers review information regarding classroom management, they need to refer to these visual cues. In addition, and in order to reinforce auditory information, teachers should have all verbal instruction written out for the students with hearing impairments—and always ensure that directions, assignments, and instructions are understood before students begin work.

When announcements are made over the intercom, someone needs to take notes to make sure the students with hearing impairments are informed and current on school activities. Students with hearing impairments should have access to notes taken by a student known to be a good note taker because it is very difficult to lip-read or watch an interpreter and take notes. Carbonless copy paper can be used to make duplicate notes, or the teacher can make a copy of another student's notes.

Delivery System

During direct instruction, it is important for teachers to face students with hearing impairments and to maintain a minimal distance between themselves and the students so as to facilitate lip-reading. It is ideal for a personal FM system to be installed in a classroom. An FM system is a wireless system designed to help someone with a hearing impairment better identify and understand speech in noisy situations and over distances of up to 50 feet. The teacher or speaker wears the transmitter, and

the student wears the receiver. Some FM systems work together with hearing aids, while others are designed for those with normal hearing. Students with a more severe hearing loss can often only understand speech if they can also lip-read at the same time. An FM system bridges the gap, bringing speech sounds directly into the student's ears and helps out when lip-reading is not possible. Teachers need to be trained in using the FM system as well as in troubleshooting when problems arise.

Teachers should also know how to help students with their hearing aids and any other devices they use. It is recommended that teachers check frequently to make sure the listening devices are working properly.

If there is no FM system in the room, and students are only using hearing aids, teachers need to speak naturally and not too loudly. When teachers are instructing students, they need to make sure not to exaggerate pronunciation, as this will work against a student's understanding. It is also important to make sure the speaker has the attention of the student with hearing impairments before speaking and never speaks with back turned when writing on the board.

Practicing Classroom Procedures

It is important that all students understand and practice classroom procedures, but it is especially important for students with hearing impairments. Teachers need to make sure there is a classroom procedure for fire drills and that students with hearing impairments understand what to do. For example, the words *Fire Drill FIRE—go out backdoor* can be written on the board or a friend/peer can be put in charge of letting the student with a hearing impairment know.

If there is a procedure or order for lining up to make a transition, teachers need to make sure students with hearing impairments know what they are supposed to do during the time for lining-up.

Teachers also need to make sure students with hearing impairments know what to do when they need to use the restroom or travel to another room/place in the school. Students with hearing impairments should also know dismissal procedures because dismissal is a very busy time for teachers.

These are just a few examples of what needs to be done with regard to classroom procedures. All procedures should be written out for students with hearing impairments.

Conclusion

Teachers of students with hearing impairments need to make sure they have open communication with the students and with their parents, so that they feel comfortable with sharing feedback of what is working or not working for them in the classroom. Teachers need to let

students with hearing impairments know what is expected of them, and they need to be encouraged to participate in class by answering questions, giving reports, and volunteering for activities. All students need to feel at home and safe in the classroom, and this is especially true for students with hearing impairments.

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See also American Sign Language; Assistive Technology; Deaf Students; Disabilities and Classroom Management; Inclusive Classrooms

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STYLES OF TEACHING

The term *styles of teaching* (also teaching styles) refers to a typology of teaching approaches defined by the degree to which a teacher demonstrates responsiveness and demandingness toward students. Depending on how responsive and demanding a teacher is, he or she may be described as having an authoritarian, permissive, authoritative, or uninvolved style of teaching. This entry describes these four primary styles of teaching and the student outcomes related to each.

Educators will benefit from understanding the different styles of teaching and their respective strengths and weaknesses, in part because style of teaching can have a significant impact on the learning and engagement of students and, additionally, because understanding the range of styles can help teachers adopt the style that best reflects their own teaching philosophy and teaching goals.

Parenting Styles

The styles of teaching presented in this entry are grounded in psychologist Diana Baumrind's research on parenting styles. Through her research she found that parenting styles could be categorized based on a parent's behavior along two different dimensions: responsiveness and demandingness. *Responsiveness* refers to how nurturing and caring the parent is toward the

child, whereas *demandingness* refers to how much control the parent has in the parent-child relationship.

Three primary parenting styles emerged from Baumrind's research on parental responsiveness and demandingness: authoritarian (low responsiveness, high demandingness), permissive (high responsiveness, low demandingness), and authoritative parenting (high responsiveness, high demandingness) (Figure 1). Baumrind went on to describe other more nuanced parenting styles, including disengaged or uninvolved (low responsiveness, low demandingness) and directive, democratic, or good enough parenting (average on one or both attributes).

Research on these parenting styles has generally concluded that authoritative parenting, which is high in both responsiveness and demandingness, is optimal for child development. A large collection of research has replicated Baumrind's findings, providing support for the argument that authoritative parenting styles lead to more positive child outcomes (e.g., social competence, academic achievement, fewer behavior problems, moral maturity) than authoritarian, permissive, and disengaged styles (regardless of ethnicity, socioeconomic status, and family structure).

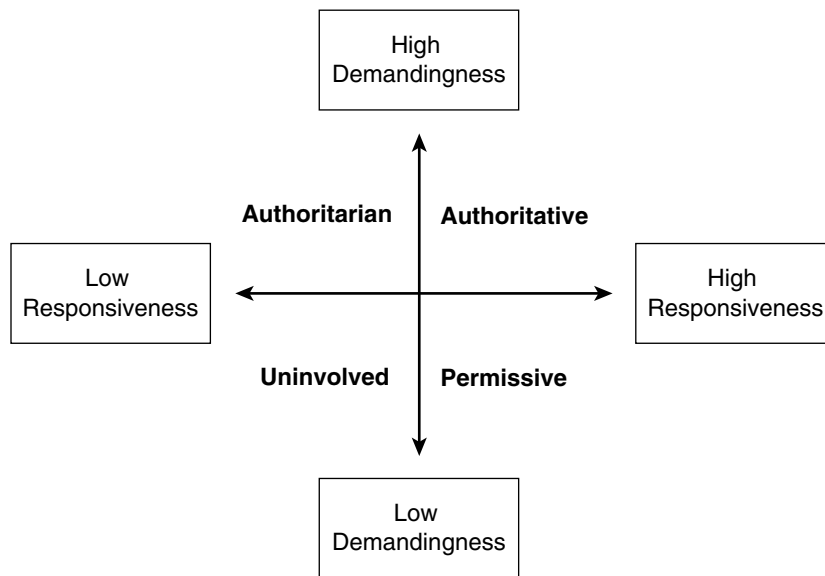
Teaching Styles

A number of researchers have begun extending Baumrind's parenting styles to the teacher-student relationship. Within the teacher-student context, teacher demandingness and responsiveness continue to be viewed as critical dimensions in teaching style. Teacher demandingness refers to the degree to which a teacher demands appropriate behavior, including holding high expectations as well as monitoring and enforcing clear and consistent rules. The demandingness construct within the teaching context has also been referred to as control, structure, regulation, high expectations, maturity demands, and high academic press.

Teacher responsiveness refers to the degree to which a teacher responds with care to the needs (socioemotionally, cognitively, physically) of students. Responsiveness has also been called warmth, support, caring, connection, and nurturance. The styles of teaching are defined by the relative degree of these two traits within a teacher's approach to interacting with students.

Authoritarian Styles of Teaching

Authoritarian teaching styles are characterized by high levels of teacher demandingness and low levels of teacher responsiveness. An authoritarian teaching style places high demands on students and is quick to use punishment when students misbehave. In addition, teachers who adopt this style often do not respond with care and support to student needs. Authoritarian

Figure 1 Parenting Styles, as Originally Described by Diana Baumrind (1971)

teachers may be perceived as overly harsh, unfair, and strict.

Many teachers who use an authoritarian style of teaching are primarily concerned with managing student behavior through maintaining social control and compliance, which is usually achieved through the use of punishment. Whereas other styles of teaching may also use punishment, authoritarian teachers are characterized as using punishment to the exclusion of other forms of managing student behavior and doing so without care and support for student needs.

Permissive Styles of Teaching

In contrast, low levels of teacher demandingness and high levels of teacher responsiveness characterize permissive teaching styles. These teachers are often very responsive to student needs and show care and support, but do not enforce rules or demand appropriate behavior. These teachers may have poorly managed classrooms and difficulty actively engaging students in learning. Permissive styles of teaching may be a particular problem for new teachers, who are concerned with students liking them, but have difficulty managing the structure of the classroom.

Authoritative Styles of Teaching

Combining the positive aspects of both authoritarian and permissive teaching styles, authoritative teaching styles are characterized by high levels of both

demandingness and responsiveness. Teachers who adopt an authoritative teaching style respond to their students' needs, showing warmth, care, and respect, but are not pushovers, as they also hold high expectations for their students and hold them accountable for their actions. This balance of both high responsiveness and high demandingness emphasizes proactive discipline and problem solving over punitive discipline and exclusion or permissiveness and lack of control. Authoritative teachers use punishment in a fair way and understand its limitations.

From this perspective, authoritative styles of teaching are not necessarily democratic; that is, there are different styles of authoritative approaches that may be more or less focused on sharing decision making and authority with students. An example of this is George Noblit's work, which emphasized the effectiveness of a teaching style that maintained teacher authority and decision-making power, but was also caring toward students.

Disengaged Styles of Teaching

Some researchers have also identified a disengaged or indifferent style of teaching, characterized by low levels of both demandingness and responsiveness. Disengaged teachers are simply uninvolved with their students. Teachers who adopt this style of teaching may be overwhelmed or have become disillusioned about teaching. Research on this teaching style is limited, but some studies suggest that it may lead to the worst outcomes for students, particularly in terms of students' school engagement.

Outcomes Related to Different Styles of Teaching

In order to understand what style of teaching is most effective, it is important to understand the student outcomes that have been related to different teaching styles. One of the most consistent findings is that authoritative styles of teaching, which balance caring and control, are related to better outcomes for students. For example, in 2008, Joan M. T. Walker conducted a study comparing student outcomes of teachers with authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive teaching styles. The teachers and most students were white and non-Hispanic. Walker found that students with the highest academic and social skills were those in the authoritative teacher's classroom. The students who were most disengaged and had limited beliefs in their ability were in the authoritarian classroom. The students with the smallest academic gains were in the permissive classroom. This research literature is still developing, and findings differ somewhat from study to study and by type of outcome.

Academic Outcomes

For the most part, authoritative teaching is related to greater academic achievement than authoritarian and permissive styles. However, there are mixed results regarding how teaching style impacts gains in achievement over time, with some studies finding authoritative and others authoritarian as most associated with positive gains. High expectations from teachers are a positive predictor of students' goals and interest in school, whereas a lack of responsiveness is related to poor academic outcomes. In addition, an important aspect of academic success is student engagement. Research studies suggest that authoritative schools are the most engaging, with indifferent schools being the least engaging. Authoritarian schools are the most likely of all teaching styles to have high rates of student dropout.

Given the current state of evidence, a combination of both demandingness and responsiveness appears most supportive of academic achievement, particularly for youth from communities of low socioeconomic status. However, continuing to uncover the match between teaching style and academic outcomes for diverse student populations is important.

Social-Emotional and Behavioral Outcomes

Teachers who have clear expectations and fairly enforce rules and consequences have students with better behavior and fewer discipline problems; students who experience a supportive relationship with an adult at school are more likely to internalize the school's

values. Both of these findings suggest that an authoritative approach, where both structure and support are emphasized, may result in positive student behavior. Research studies suggest that a teacher's warmth and control are associated with school satisfaction, academic self-concept, and classroom adjustment for both black and white students and for boys as well as girls. Students in classrooms with an authoritative approach are more socially competent, and those in schools that adopt an authoritative style are safer (i.e., have less bullying and victimization), are less likely to have issues with cigarette and marijuana use, and have lower levels of delinquency.

One area of student development that may be influenced by teaching style is self-discipline. George Bear has done a great deal of work on the subject of student self-discipline. He argues that the combination of responsiveness and demandingness present in authoritative styles of teaching encourages two important aspects of self-discipline: student autonomy and compliance. Teachers who are overly permissive may not have control over their classroom, failing to teach students to take responsibility for their actions. Teachers who are overly demanding may have students who comply only to avoid punishment, failing to internalize the teacher's values regarding behavior, and thus not manifesting self-discipline when the teacher is not around. Both these styles of teaching may, therefore, compromise the development of student self-discipline.

African American students are suspended and punished more than their white peers, so it is particularly important to determine good teaching styles for those at risk for negative results such as suspension and punishment. Research on styles of teaching suggests that teachers showing care and teachers having high expectations are important predictors of African American students' likelihood to trust the authority of teachers and, as a result, thrive in schools. In addition, schools scoring low on measures of authoritative schooling have the highest rates of suspensions for black and white students and the largest racial discipline gaps. If the discipline gap is to be lessened, then an authoritative style of teaching that takes both caring and high expectations into account may be beneficial.

Tips for Adopting an Authoritative Teaching Style

Taken together, these findings suggest that teachers should not feel polarized between being tough or being supportive toward students, as it is possible and desirable for a teacher to be both. For teachers who are interested in adopting an authoritative teaching style, the following tips may be helpful. George Bear, a

prominent scholar in the area of school discipline and authoritative teaching, developed many of these suggestions.

- Develop positive, supportive relationships with students.
- Be fair and judicious.
- Be consistent.
- Combine punishment with positive discipline approaches; use positive techniques more frequently than punishment.
- Highlight student strengths and progress.
- Encourage students to take responsibility for their own actions and to repair any harm they caused.
- Balance high expectations for student success with patience for misbehavior.
- Model and provide opportunities for students to practice moral problem solving, emotional regulation, and responsible behavior.
- Seek support from peers, administrators, support personnel, and parents.

Conclusion

Research suggests that the styles of parenting first described by Diana Baumrind, namely authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive styles, are also useful categories for understanding styles of teaching. These styles of teaching are defined by the degree of responsiveness and demandingness exhibited by the teacher. In general, research supports the use of an authoritative teaching style because it is associated with numerous positive outcomes for students. Others argue that there are both good and bad types of authoritarian approaches; continued research is needed on the styles of teaching, as well as substyles within each of the three styles. Ultimately, teachers will need to determine which teaching style they wish to implement, based on their philosophies of teaching and classroom management.

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See also Authority and Classrooms; Expectations: Teachers' Expectations of Students; Relationship-Based Approaches to Classroom Management; Teacher-Student Relationships; Warm Demanders; Warmth and Classroom Management

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SUSPENSION AND EXPULSION

Suspension and expulsion from school are disciplinary responses that exclude students from school upon violation of the school's discipline policy. When students are suspended, they are removed from school for a predetermined period, often ranging from 1 to 5 days. Expulsion is a longer-term sanction that typically results in exclusion from school for at least one full calendar year.

Suspension and expulsion, as exclusionary strategies, have been in existence since the inception of American education. They came into broader favor with the advent of compulsory education. The types of offending school behaviors leading to suspension and expulsion are outlined in the written school discipline policy, commonly known as the *discipline code of conduct*. The discipline code of conduct, mandated by the No Child Left Behind Act, is shared with students, parents, school personnel, and the larger community. Most schools require students and their parent(s) or guardian(s) to acknowledge that they have received and understood the discipline code of conduct through a formal signature.

Application of Suspension and Expulsion

Suspension is the most common discipline response used in schools, whereas expulsion is used more sparingly. In a recent comprehensive national report on the use of suspension in middle and high schools, Dan Losen and Tia Elena Martinez documented that in 2009 over 2 million children were suspended, mostly for minor nonviolent offenses, such as dress code violations and truancy from school. The public perception may be that suspension and expulsion are reserved for the most

serious offenses, yet this does not appear to be the case. As Russell J. Skiba and colleagues point out in their extensive work, most suspensions are for behaviors that are nonviolent in nature.

Many argue that the widespread adoption of zero tolerance policies has contributed to the overuse of suspension and expulsion for relatively benign events. Stated briefly, zero tolerance policies require automatic suspension and expulsion for weapons or drug violations in school, yet have been expanded in practice to incorporate many other lesser behaviors. Many argue that zero tolerance policies have been taken to an extreme and implemented in a draconian manner. A 2000 report by the UCLA Advancement and Civil Rights Project, titled "Opportunities Suspended," chronicled the unilateral application of suspension and expulsion. For example, case studies documented stories of students being suspended from school under the auspices of zero tolerance for bringing a toy gun to school or a plastic knife to cut lunch items. More recent reports by the Office of Civil Rights Remedies have continued to document the influence of zero tolerance procedures and the overuse of suspension and the unintended consequence of funneling students into the juvenile justice system.

Who Tends to Be Suspended?

Suspension and expulsion are particularly overused with certain ethnic groups. A long-standing literature documents the disproportionate application of suspension with African American males, beginning with a 1975 Children's Defense Fund report and followed by consistent findings over the last 5 decades. Recent work by Skiba and colleagues continues to show that ethnic minority youth do not engage in more serious infractions that warrant school exclusionary actions, nor are the findings explained solely by socioeconomic differences across groups. On the contrary, students of color, particularly African American males, tend to be suspended for subjective offenses, such as class disruption or disrespect. Recent work by Daniel Losen and Tia Elena Martinez documents that racial disparities in suspension and expulsion are widening, particularly for adolescents. There are also disparities by gender and disability status, particularly for students of color. African American males with disabilities in high schools are the most likely group to be suspended and excluded from school.

Due Process Procedures Related to Suspension and Expulsion

When students are determined to have violated the discipline code of conduct and when suspension and

expulsion are being considered as options, there are a number of due process procedures that should be followed. Most discipline infractions are recorded through what is known as an office discipline referral (ODR), which is written documentation of a behavioral infraction completed by the school staff member(s) that observed the infraction. The ODR contains information about the incident of concern and usually follows the student from the initial incident until a decision is made by the dean's office as to what, if anything, will be done. The dean assigned to the ODR oversees the disposition of the issue and the assignment of any school consequence. If suspension is an option for a particular incident, then due process procedures are instituted, which involve notification of the parent or guardian and an opportunity for the student to give his or her perspective on the issue. If expulsion is an option, then a formal hearing is held whereby the student and the parent or guardian are afforded specific due process rights that involve a hearing before a school board.

In situations of students receiving special education services or those known to have special education needs, additional due process rights are afforded under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA). When the days of suspension for a student protected by IDEA go beyond 10 cumulative days, it is considered a change of placement, and a manifest determination hearing must occur to determine if the student's individualized education plan and related/supplementary services are appropriate and whether the behavior that led to the suspension was related to the disability. If the IEP is not considered appropriate, then the student's needs must be addressed with a revised plan, including a functional analysis of behavior and behavior intervention plan, and the student cannot be suspended beyond the 10 days. If the team determines that the IEP is adequate, yet the behavior leading to the suspension is related to the disability, then it is also decided that the student cannot be suspended for more than 10 school days. Exceptions to the rule are when there are weapons or drug offenses and when the student in question causes serious bodily harm. For more detailed information about the rights of individuals with disabilities related to behavioral infractions, visit the [WrightsLaw](#) website.

Efficacy of Suspension and Expulsion and Unintended Consequences

Despite the prevalence of suspension/expulsion and it being used as a first line of defense as a discipline strategy, there is very little evidence that suspension is effective in deterring unwanted behavior and promoting desired behavior. Instead, there is evidence to suggest that suspension and expulsion tends to be used

for subsequent commissions of the same or similar behaviors—and exacerbates the very behaviors these interventions are intended to reduce.

In addition, the use of suspension and expulsion is associated with numerous deleterious outcomes, such as entry to the juvenile justice system, sometimes described as the school-to-prison pipeline. Researchers and policy makers have documented the similarities between exclusionary discipline data and prison data in terms of the disproportionate representation of ethnic minority students in both data sources. The school-to-prison pipeline has been attributed to unsupervised community time resulting in school suspension, which, in turn, leads to the attention of the police, delinquent behavior, and subsequent arrests. Still others argue that school behaviors, once handled in the school environment, have now escalated to the level of police involvement. Therefore, school infractions are more likely to be seen as criminal behavior and juvenile justice issues rather than as issues to be handled at school. Zero tolerance policies, described above, have also been implicated as contributing to the criminalization of behavior that was once seen as a relatively benign offense (see the Advancement Project website at www.advancementproject.org/content/home).

Other research has documented the deleterious impact of suspension in other areas. Students with academic problems are among those most likely to be suspended. Being removed from school only exacerbates their academic deficits, as instruction time is lost. In addition, students who are suspended are not only likely to miss school due to the suspension but are also at heightened risk of dropping out of school altogether. Further, students themselves report feeling alienated and disconnected from school as a result of suspension and often have difficulty understanding why they were suspended in the first place. Based on the qualitative work of Francis Vavrus and Kim Marie Cole, students have a limited understanding of why they receive suspensions, often perceiving that teachers simply want to exclude them from school, a perception that leaves students feeling disconnected from school.

Proposed Alternatives

As noted earlier, suspension and expulsion continue to be widely used discipline strategies in schools despite the lack of positive evidence to support their use and despite their often leading to unintended negative outcomes, such as school dropout and entry into the juvenile justice system. Given these results, researchers and policy makers have called for alternatives to suspension, alternatives that keep students coming to school while their behavioral issues are addressed. In a special series

on alternatives to suspension, Jill Sharkey and Pamela Fenning recommended that school practitioners and researchers concentrate efforts on designing and implementing alternatives to suspension, given the long-standing recommendations against using suspension, particularly for behaviors that are nonviolent in nature.

Alternatives to suspension that have been empirically validated, however, are limited. Yet, there are emerging efforts that have promise in preventing and addressing the types of behaviors that have historically led to suspension. Three school approaches, in particular, show promise in reducing office discipline referrals (ODRs) and student removal through suspension and expulsions: (1) schoolwide positive behavior support (SWPBS), (2) restorative justice, and (3) supporting effective classroom behavioral practices.

Schoolwide Positive Behavior Support

Researchers George Sugai and Rob Horner are the pioneering scholars associated with SWPBS. They defined SWPBS as a prevention-oriented multitiered system of support. Tier one begins with direct teaching and acknowledgment of predetermined expectations for all students on a system level (universal approach). Tiers two and three follow with supplemental groups and individual supports for students who continue to experience behavioral challenges despite being exposed to evidence-based universal systems of behavioral support. Using SWPBS, data are used to guide decision making about which tier of support to deliver along a continuum and to evaluate whether the behavioral supports are effective, followed by adjustments when necessary.

Promising outcomes associated with the implementation of SWPBS in schools include reductions in ODRs and improved school climate. The philosophy behind SWPBS is to prevent behavioral problems before they occur rather than to wait until problems happen and then respond through punishment and exclusion (e.g., suspension).

Restorative Justice

Restorative justice (RJ) is an approach that has gained momentum in recent years. With origins in the criminal justice system, the focus of RJ is on restoring victim's rights and on restitution rather than on punishing the perpetrator. RJ is conceptualized on the premise of restoring relationships to a harmonious state through social connectedness rather than an institution serving as a punisher. Programs that rely on RJ in educational settings utilize peacemaking circles, peer juries, and victim/offender mediation to allow for a process whereby healing occurs and social relationships are preserved.

While the theory behind RJ has exceptional promise, studies evaluating the impact of RJ on exclusionary discipline are in preliminary stages. International studies in Scotland and U.S. studies in Minnesota have shown promise in terms of reduced suspensions in schools where RJ has been implemented. Further work will need to more fully examine the impact of RJ on exclusionary discipline practices using more rigorous scientific methodology.

Supporting Effective Classroom Behavioral Practices

Given that most incidents of removal through suspension begin with a referral from the classroom, educational researchers and practitioners are putting energy into assisting teachers with classroom management through building positive student–teacher relationships and trust rather than interactions based on control and authority. Given the decades-long disproportionality in suspensions among students of color, particularly African American males, especially for subjective offenses such as classroom disrespect, it seems logical that a focus on training educators to understand the cultural nuances of students in their classroom would be very important. Prominent researchers such as Gloria Ladson-Billings and Carol Weinstein have focused their attention of helping educators to create classroom structures that are inclusive and inviting for all. Others are beginning to examine ways in which SWPBS can be integrated with culturally responsive practices that are more likely to be successful in addressing disproportionality in discipline than SWPBS alone.

Conclusion

The field of education is at a crossroads in finding ways to consider alternatives to suspension. Despite years of documenting the challenges associated with school suspension, particularly the limited efficacy for all students and the disproportionate impact on students of color, suspension remains the most widely used discipline method in schools. The next several years will likely reveal the impact of proposing, delivering, and evaluating alternatives to suspension, particularly their impact on suspension in schools. However, their promise has not yet been realized in substantially addressing the issues of suspension, in general, and ethnic disproportionality in exclusionary discipline, in particular.

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See also Discipline Codes of Conduct; Individuals with Disabilities Education Act; No Child Left Behind Act; School Discipline; Schoolwide Positive Behavior Supports

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SYSTEMATIC APPROACHES TO PROBLEM BEHAVIOR

Not every approach to classroom management is explicitly systematic. Some approaches rely heavily on reacting to problems as they occur—with on-the-spot clinical judgments made to determine what to say and do. Other approaches are systematic in that they involve a plan, complete with procedures and steps to follow before and after behavior problems arise that is based upon the ecology of the classroom and the school. The purpose here is to describe what a systematic approach entails by describing current and important systematic approaches to classroom management of problem behaviors, as well as to describe the systematic method of inquiry known as functional behavioral assessment (FBA).

Two Systematic Approaches to Classroom Management

Schoolwide positive behavioral interventions and supports (SWPBIS) and the social and emotional learning (SEL) system represent two current systematic approaches to classroom management. What these two systematic approaches have in common is the belief that it is better to identify contextual features that maintain students' problem behaviors than rely on reactionary discipline applied to individual students. Both approaches rely on teaching positive replacement skills to students, and both avoid negative consequences for problem behaviors. Both approaches are applied schoolwide and also in individual classrooms.

The SWPBIS is based on a multitiered risk model of prevention and intervention, whereas the SEL focuses on shaping new social skills.

Schoolwide Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports

The SWPBIS provides a continuum of interventions across three hierarchical tiers of increasingly intensive treatments that may involve more external support personnel with specialized skills. The classroom represents the first tier. About 85% of interventions for minor problems will be managed in that setting by the teacher. The school represents the second tier. About 10% of interventions for persistently disruptive behaviors may require backup support from specialized personnel such as the counselor, social worker, school psychologist, crisis team, parents, school administration, and, on occasion, special education staff. The community represents the third tier. About 5% of interventions for offensive and aggressive behaviors will require support from agencies such as law enforcement, division of child and family services, medical referral by parents, and alternative education programs.

SWPBIS is positive in that it avoids a reactionary, punitive approach that overrelies on suspension or expulsion. SWPBIS focuses on positive skills development and positive change methods. SWPBIS also focuses on the development of a positive social climate in the classroom and school; it emphasizes prevention over intervention. To set up a SWPBIS system, there must be administrative support, commitment from staff, self-assessment of the current schoolwide and classroom management policies, continuous assessment of effectiveness, and an implementation plan.

Within each classroom, each teacher must commit to a positive approach to classroom management that involves teaching new skills that are incompatible with problem behaviors. Each teacher must have three to five classroom rules and procedures stated in a positive manner. For example, "Please raise your hand and wait to be called on" rather than "No shouting out." Then the positive rule is repeated by the entire class, demonstrated by the teacher, and then practiced with social reinforcement applied throughout the day.

These rules are often established by the entire class in classroom meetings with the teacher as facilitator. Goals for improvement are set and reinforcement is applied when individual and group goals have been met. If the first intervention is not effective, there are backup interventions to apply. Teachers need to be supported in the beginning of this approach to ensure fidelity and consistency of interventions. They should be made aware that during the acquisition phase some problem behaviors may actually escalate rather than decrease in frequency, intensity, or duration due to the student's problem behavior history and testing the teacher. Teachers should cultivate the habit of remaining emotionally neutral during behavior management: neither smiling nor showing anger.

Behavior management always starts with a reminder of the positive rule followed by social reinforcement for compliance, retraining of a new skill if compliance does not occur, or compliance management if the student chooses to continue the problem behavior. If the problem behavior escalates, the teacher follows the behavior intervention plan and moves to tier two for support. Students soon learn the SWPBIS management plan and eventually tend to want to comply, especially if the teacher and the school are simultaneously working on improving the classroom and school social climate. The principles taught to students are that learning and teaching are what the classroom and school are about; aggression and problem behavior are disruptive and unsafe.

Social and Emotional Learning

SEL complements SWPBIS in that it focuses on prevention of problems behaviors by teaching skills related to SEL. The teacher actively works on teaching and creating a climate of respect, responsibility, and cooperation. The teacher instructs, models, and practices various social skills during instruction with the class, including how to make a friend, how to be assertive and not angry, how to cooperate, how to share, how to take turns, how to ask for help, how to self-manage feelings of stress and frustration, how to resolve a conflict, how to report bullying, and how to ask for a time away when one's attention span has met its limit. The teacher is flexible and provides accommodations and adaptations for individual differences. Teachers, parents, children, and administration are encouraged to work as a supportive team. The result is that teaching time is maximized and a more positive learning community is established. These two systems work in tandem.

Both approaches are research-based, rely on parent involvement, and are culturally sensitive. The three E's represent the hallmark of these two systematic approaches. All interventions must be *Efficient*, *Effective*, and *Ethical*.

Functional Behavioral Assessment

FBA is the systematic inquiry process by which problem behaviors, replacement behaviors, and social skill needs are identified. FBA is an essential first step in both SWPBIS and SEL approaches. All behavior has a purpose or a function. That purpose can be positive or negative. When an inappropriate behavior is being used by a student to get what the student wants or needs, then the function is negative, and the behavior itself is considered a problem behavior.

FBA requires the teacher or another professional to observe the problem behavior in the context of the

entire classroom or wherever else it is occurring in the school, for example, on the playground, in the cafeteria, in the hallway. First, the observer must operationally define the target behavior(s) and establish goals for intervention or what the teacher wants in terms of a replacement behavior. Second, baseline estimates of the parameters of the behavior must be taken including frequency, intensity, and duration and a determination must be made whether the behavior is disruptive to the classroom or whether more tolerance among the teacher and the students should be established. Consensus decision making with other professional staff occurs at this point. Third, the observer needs to determine the range of the behaviors of concern and look for relationships and triggers. For example, in which class does the problem behavior occur? What is being studied? Does time of day influence the problem behavior? Are other students contributing to this problem behavior by their triggering actions such as bullying in the prior class or their reactions, such as laughter when the problem behavior occurs? Fourth, how does the teacher respond prior to SWPBIS intervention? Is the teacher punitive? Does the teacher get angry? Does the teacher have a positive rule to replace the problem behavior? Has the teacher done any prevention?

The observer should also observe in a classroom wherein this problem behavior does not seem to exist. This activity is called *contrast analysis*. What are the differences between the two classroom contexts? By determining the differences, the observer may be able to determine the function of the problem behavior or why the student misbehaves in one class and not in the other. In addition to behavioral observations, the observer should conduct a student record review for background information and interview past and present teachers, staff, and parents. The fifth step is to conduct a pattern analysis of who, what, when, where, how, and why the problem behavior is occurring and what is the misguided function of the problem behavior. In the sixth step, a summary statement and a hypothesis are formed about what antecedent triggers, context variables, and maintaining consequences are controlling the problem behavior. Seventh, the function of the behavior is determined. Some students engage in misbehavior for the following reasons: peer attention, adult attention, escape or avoidance of a task or a social situation, sensory stimulation, obtain a tangible reward, obtain an opportunity to continue an activity or state a preferred activity.

Once the function of the problem behavior has been determined, hypothesis-based intervention can commence in which curricular, instructional, whole-group, and physical environment management, as well as accommodations and adaptations are considered. At this point, the teacher needs to be clear about what replacement behavior is sought and how it will be taught using

positive and supportive techniques. Finally, positive consequences for the student reaching new positive goals to replace the problem behavior must be established.

FBA-based interventions can take place in any of four ways:

1. Teaching and reinforcing replacement behaviors (e.g., teaching a strategy to ask for help appropriately rather than swearing and shouting out in frustration).
2. Changing old consequences (e.g., rather than send the child to time-out or suspension, the student is taught a new skill on the spot such as how to ask for help in a socially appropriate manner).
3. Changing antecedents and triggers (e.g., teaching relaxation techniques and providing supportive assistance prior to the disruption).
4. Changing related setting events (e.g., using the SEL approach to ensure that physical, intellectual, emotional, and social needs of the student are met and that the instructional methodology is appropriate for the student).

Case Example

The student is an 8-year-old second grader who has just been asked to complete a math facts worksheet. He has a history of math anxiety. His single-parent mom reports that she experienced math anxiety in school too and is not surprised that her son takes after her. The student evidences temper tantrums whenever the teacher announces some math activity. This child has been previously diagnosed with Asperger syndrome. He has a high activity level, is distractible, has a low sensory threshold, and has difficulty in delaying gratification.

Results of FBA showed that the student's temper tantrums are triggered mostly in math class and that the function of his temper tantrums is teacher attention. He evidences his temper tantrum by swearing, stopping work, crying, and saying he wants to go home.

A SWPBIS intervention was planned that involved prevention rather than intervention. Through observation, a behavioral chain of antecedent events was identified. Once a math activity is announced, the student rocks in his chair, swears, quits work, and cries.

Temper tantrums were prevented by identifying the physical, cognitive, and behavioral signs of the

oncoming tantrum, on-the-spot counseling and support, teaching the child how to signal the teacher when he feels anxiety coming on, followed by starting over and practicing the new skills with the assistance of the teacher. The student's mother was assisted in teaching math resiliency to her son.

Conclusion

By adopting schoolwide systematic approaches such as SWPBIS and SEL, schools may better prevent and manage problem behavior and increase positive behaviors. By adopting a systematic approach to inquiry, also known as FBA, schools are in a better position to understand the functions and causes of problem behavior and what teachable skills might be the most suitable replacements. That is what the research evidence suggests. There may be some who can rely on nonsystematic approaches and methods, some whose clinical and teaching skills and talents equipped them with the means to address problem behaviors on the spot in helpful ways. The advantages of systematic approaches, however, are that they better ensure that everyone involved in educating students will be more supportive to students and more able to teach new prosocial skills to them, with the result that more positive learning communities are created.

Robert G. Harrington

See also Functional Behavioral Assessment; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; Social and Emotional Learning

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T

TARGET BEHAVIORS

Sound classroom management involves creating a classroom environment that supports student learning and growth. To do so, not only must school staff use proactive approaches, they must also use reactive approaches applying *targeted* interventions. Here, the focus will be on the initial process of developing an effective targeted intervention, namely, the process of selecting a *target behavior*—the behavior to be changed.

The process of selecting and defining a target behavior is one of the most important components in developing an effective, targeted intervention. Although this process may seem straightforward, in reality it often is not—because the process itself requires careful attention to a number of separate phases, namely, *selecting*, *defining*, and *measuring* target behaviors to then make possible the development of an effective intervention plan, one leading to *changing the target behavior*. Here, the discussion will be about each of these phases that collectively make up the process of developing a targeted intervention.

Selecting a Target Behavior

The process of selecting a target behavior begins with some general problem statement such as “Mary’s disruptive behavior is interfering with her ability to learn, and is also distracting other students.” The problem statement serves as only a starting point in identifying the target behavior, because additional information is needed in order to have an understanding that leads to formulating an intervention. In the example of Mary, in particular, we need to know what Mary does, specifically, that is disruptive. By describing what the target behavior looks like (also known as behavioral topography), the target behavior can be made more specific. In

Mary’s case, the problem statement can be refined to say that “Mary frequently talks out of turn and often socializes with her peers instead of completing small-group work.” This more refined problem statement provides a better representation of Mary’s disruptive behavior.

When selecting a target behavior, three main questions should be asked:

1. Is the behavior observable, measurable, and amenable to change?
2. How will changing this behavior improve conditions for this individual?
3. If multiple behaviors are identified, which behavior is most important?

The first two questions are particularly important. First, the target behavior must be observable, measurable, and amenable to change. In the example of Mary, two target behaviors were described: talking out of turn and socializing with peers during small group work. Both behaviors are observable, and both could be counted (measured) to determine the number of times they occur each day or at some other interval. Finally, these behaviors are also amenable to change.

At times, problem statements may identify pseudo-behaviors that do not meet the requirements embedded in the first question. Common examples include statements about attitude (“She has a bad attitude”), motivation (“She lacks motivation”), or self-esteem (“She has low self-esteem”). Although these terms cannot be considered target behaviors because they cannot be directly observed or measured, we can observe and measure their behavioral manifestations (e.g., negative tone, work completion, self-deprecating remarks) and target them for change.

Problem statements and selecting target behaviors also require making clear the significance of changing the targeted behavior. Doing so helps to determine which target behaviors, when changed, will have the greatest positive impact on a student's life. Returning to the example of Mary, we can assume that helping Mary to refrain from talking out of turn and socializing during group work will help her to be a better student and succeed in school.

A final consideration when selecting among two or more possible target behaviors involves prioritizing the target behaviors. Prioritizing can occur by considering frequency (how often a target behavior happens), duration (how long it happens), and severity (how problematic it is for the student or for others). Furthermore, prioritizing can be helped by better understanding the conditions surrounding the target behavior and by employing a functional behavioral assessment to determine possible causes or functions of the behavior.

When selecting among several possible target behaviors, the general rule is to select the smallest number that can have the greatest impact for positive change. In the prior example, it may be the case that small group work occurs so infrequently that the main priority should be on reducing the number of times Mary talks out of turn.

Defining the Target Behavior

Once a target behavior is selected, a clear, objective, and specific definition of the behavior must be developed so as to create an *operational definition* (Table 1). An operational definition assists in communicating among professionals and assists in making accurate measurements. Drawing from the earlier example, describing Mary's behavior as disruptive does little to facilitate communication or understanding because *disruptive* has different meanings for different people. In contrast, specifying that Mary talks without adult permission during teacher-led instruction or independent seatwork operationally defines the problem behaviors needing to be changed—so that all those involved in helping Mary can agree on what needs changing. Furthermore, the operational definitions are neither too broad nor too narrow.

Another essential component of operationalizing the target behavior involves identifying examples and

nonexamples. This is particularly important in developing a data collection plan, making it possible to reliably measure the target behavior. Returning to the Mary example, talking out of turn might include answering a question directed at another student or talking when the teacher or another student is speaking. It would not include answering a question directed at Mary or the whole class, or talking during free time.

Measuring the Target Behavior

Once a target behavior is selected and operationally defined, the next phase is to develop or select a method to measure the target behavior. Doing so allows for frequent and repeated measurements of a target behavior in order to facilitate decision making about supports and possible interventions.

In selecting a method to assess student behavior, there are several dimensions of behavior that may be of interest. The dimension(s) of interest should be matched to the target behavior of interest. In the case of Mary, frequency (i.e., how frequently she talks out of turn) would likely be the primary dimension of interest.

Once the dimensions are identified, the data collection method can be selected. Common methods include systematic direct observations (SDOs) and direct behavior ratings (DBRs). Using SDOs, the target student is observed during a specified period of interest. The observer can record events, such as the number of times the target behavior occurred, or use time sampling procedures that capture information related to frequency and duration.

Using DBRs provides another method to monitor progress of student behavior. Ranging from behavior report cards and behavioral point sheets to more standardized forms such as DBR-SIS (Direct Behavior Rating—Single Item Scales), DBR refers to any assessment method that combines the benefits of a rating scale with a direct observation of behavior. Using DBR, a teacher may rate the proportion of time a student was academically engaged during independent reading. Conversely, the teacher could rate whether or not a student met key behavioral objectives. The flexibility of DBR as an assessment method is advantageous as it can be adapted to a variety of contexts. Consideration

Table 1 Operational Definitions

| <i>Dimension</i> | <i>Definition</i> | <i>Example</i> |
|------------------|--|--|
| Frequency | How often the behavior occurs | Number of call-outs |
| Duration | How long the behavior lasts | Length of time the student was on-task |
| Latency | The time between stimulus and response | Time until student complied with a directive |
| Magnitude | The intensity of the behavior | Talking back quietly versus yelling |

should be given to select the assessment method that will yield reliable data while also considering time and resources available.

A pivotal step in the measurement and data collection process is to collect *baseline data*. Collecting baseline data is important because it provides preliminary information about typical levels of the target behavior (and therefore about levels prior to an intervention). As a general rule, approximately five data points should be obtained if the data are relatively stable. Once baseline levels of behavior are collected, appropriate (reasonably high yet achievable) goals can be established.

Changing the Target Behavior

Several guiding principles should be used when selecting an intervention to change the target behavior. First, the intervention should employ the least restrictive alternative. Specifically, positive and minimally invasive interventions should be implemented before attempting more intrusive interventions. Second, the intervention should be assessment- and data-driven, as opposed to driven by trial and error. Third, the intervention should ideally incorporate teaching replacement behaviors, as opposed to simply suppressing undesirable behaviors. Fourth, the intervention should involve selecting effective reinforcers, that is, consequences that will help maintain and increase desired behavior (e.g., in Mary's case, talking when called upon at group meetings). Additionally, an intervention should be feasible. Interventions can be ineffective when factors such as time, resources, or some other variable impede the ability for the interventionist to implement them in a consistent manner. Finally, there remains one important consideration: behavior change takes time, and in some cases behavior even intensifies before improving. Thus, it is important to be patient and give an intervention sufficient time before changing or modifying it.

Conclusion

The process of selecting, defining, measuring, and changing a target behavior requires careful thought and consideration. However, doing so makes possible the design and implementation of effective interventions, interventions that will promote student success and create positive learning environments.

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See also Applied Behavior Analysis; Behavioral Approaches, Foundations of; Functional Analysis; Functional Behavioral Assessment; Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports; Reinforcement; Token Economies

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TEACHER EDUCATION AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Classroom management has consistently been identified as a critical pedagogical skill. Teachers who are effective managers have classrooms that function more smoothly, have fewer disruptions, and produce students who perform at higher academic levels. Positive student achievement also tends to accompany effective classroom management. In some studies, effective classroom management has been found to impact student achievement even more than factors such as intelligence scores and socioeconomic status. However, teachers must be adequately prepared in the area of classroom management if they are to have a positive effect on their students. This entry focuses on teacher education and its current role in preparing teachers to manage classrooms effectively.

Preservice Teacher Education

Most beginning teachers identify classroom management as a primary concern while, at the same time, they often report that their university training did not adequately prepare them for the challenges of classroom teaching. This finding has persisted over the past 60 years and has been reported by both general education and special education teachers.

Teachers may report that they are not adequately prepared because they actually receive little training in classroom management. Few teacher preparation programs include classroom management as a designated course. Even in the top U.S. schools of education, only a minority of these institutions list classroom management as a required course. Indeed, classroom management content in teacher preparation programs is usually found embedded within other coursework. Consequently, the number of hours spent covering classroom management is less than optimal. The completion of further classroom management training tends

to increase the number of strategies available for dealing with student misbehaviors, and which new teachers are confident about using in the classroom. In addition, classroom management seems to be strengthened when preservice teachers participate in fieldwork experiences and internships that target the development of classroom management skills.

The majority of new teachers in the United States receive training through higher education–based preparation programs within universities. Examinations of preparation programs suggest that teachers who complete traditional programs are typically more skilled in classroom management than are their peers who complete shorter, alternative training programs. Traditional preservice programs include general studies coursework, subject-specific coursework related to the teaching area, as well as pedagogical coursework that may include classroom management content. Coursework is usually followed by a student teaching experience in the final year or semester of the program.

The content of special education programs typically differs from the content of general education programs. General and special education preservice teachers typically take the same courses during their first 2 years. However, as the programs progress, general education preservice training typically focuses on content and group instruction, while special education training tends to focus on modifications of the general education curriculum and individual instruction.

Vernon Jones provides specific suggestions for how to incorporate quality classroom management training into teacher preparation programs. He states that courses should include basic classroom management knowledge and problem-solving opportunities and suggests that classes be capped at 25 students to allow for greater interaction between the teacher educator and the preservice teachers. Jones further suggests that experienced teachers assist in teaching classroom management courses so that students can learn from teachers with current experience in classroom management.

With respect to fieldwork associated with classroom management content, Jones recommends that it be of high quality and sufficient duration. Further, there should be congruence between the university coursework and the field experiences, and that cooperating teachers be selected who are exemplars of the effective classroom management strategies taught in class. Finally, Jones states that preservice teachers should receive frequent and ongoing feedback regarding how to create learning environments that promote positive student behavior. Few empirical studies, however, have tested the best way in which training programs might prepare teachers in the area of classroom management.

Professional Development for Inservice Teachers

The necessity for training and professional development in classroom management skills does not end with the completion of a preservice teacher preparation program. Classroom teachers in the field continue to need to master management skills. Numerous workshops and professional development models are available for school districts to use in training their teachers in effective classroom management skills. Programs such as Assertive Discipline, The Incredible Years Teacher Classroom Management Program, Conscious Discipline, Classroom Organization and Management Program, Conflict Resolution Education in Teacher Education, and Teacher Effectiveness Training are frequently used in schools. These programs are designed to train teachers in the field on the use of proactive and effective classroom management strategies.

Some professional development workshops are offered as a 1- or 2-day session during the summer or the academic school year. However, research consistently indicates that professional development is more effective when provided in an ongoing fashion over time rather than through one offering. Teachers are more likely to try out and continue to practice the skills learned through training when the professional development is ongoing.

Schoolwide positive behavior support (SWPBS) teacher preparation is typically provided as ongoing training for school staff. SWPBS emphasizes a schoolwide philosophy that supports students' positive behaviors instead of punishing students' negative behaviors. The approach is proactive rather than reactive. In the classroom, teachers develop and utilize procedures and expectations so that students know the behaviors that are acceptable and appropriate. Professional development training as part of SWPBS is frequently required for all teachers on a campus, impacting the school philosophy as a whole and, in turn, the classroom management practices of teachers within their individual classrooms.

Teacher induction programs allow novice teachers the opportunity to receive mentoring from a peer teacher who has classroom experience and with effectively managing a class. The mentor teacher can be available for advice, support, and ideas to assist the novice teacher with instruction and management.

Further, coaches are included at many schools as a part of professional development. Coaches observe teachers providing instruction and managing their classrooms, then work with the teachers to improve practice and better their skills in order to effectively meet the needs of their students.

Teachers also obtain continued professional development in classroom management at conferences such as the annual conventions of the Council for Exceptional Children and the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Through attending these conferences, teachers are able to self-select topics and issues that are of interest and relevant to their work and needs.

Teachers are also able to access information, tips, and strategies for classroom management online, such as through blogs and webinars. For example, the Council for Exceptional Children (CEC) provides a Reality 101 blog where teachers in special or gifted education share experiences and advice throughout the year. This same organization provides a plethora of live and recorded webinars on a variety of education topics, including those related to management. Currently, CEC provides recorded webinars for topics such as bullying, school-wide and classroom positive behavior supports, functional behavioral assessments, response to intervention, and peer supports.

Although not common, graduate coursework in classroom management is another way in which teachers can continue to grow professionally in their management skills. A few universities offer graduate coursework in classroom management, some of which is provided online. For example, the University of Wisconsin offers a 2-hour graduate course titled “Effective Classroom Management,” and Portland State University offers a 3-hour graduate course titled “Classroom Management.” Occasionally, too, classroom management is offered as a topic within other graduate-level coursework for educators. A number of textbooks are available for classroom management coursework, mostly written for the beginning teacher.

Conclusion

The need for education and training in classroom management is undeniable. Teachers benefit from coursework in management and field experiences during their preservice preparation programs. They continue to hone their management skills through professional development opportunities throughout their teaching career. Training in classroom management has been repeatedly identified by professional teaching associations as both a continual and a critical professional development need. Preparation in classroom management is seen as essential by teachers and continues to be valued by them long after their university training has been completed.

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See also Educational Reform and Teacher Effectiveness; Inservice Teacher Education; Teachers-in-Training

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TEACHER KNOWLEDGE, BELIEFS, ATTITUDES

The knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes teachers hold about themselves, the students they teach, and the world around them are important in understanding how teachers cope, adapt, instruct, and manage classrooms. In particular, teachers’ beliefs influence their perceptions and judgments and subsequently drive what they *do* in the classroom. Further, beliefs and attitudes are a crucial component in processes of change.

Numerous factors influence the development of a teacher’s knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes. Personal influences (e.g., life experiences, beliefs about self and others), schooling (e.g., experience observing and participating in classrooms, well-established beliefs about teaching), and formal knowledge (e.g., content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge) are all avenues through which teachers acquire and develop their knowledge and perceptions of teaching, schools, and students. There is some evidence suggesting that, of these, formal knowledge is the least influential. Hence, teachers primarily use personal influences and prior schooling in forming their knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes.

This may be problematic when there are mismatches between the experiences of a teacher and those of the students he or she is teaching. For example, negative cultural assumptions about urban life can lead educators, especially those with little urban experience, to hold a deficit view of students whose race, ethnicity, or socioeconomic status may be different from their own.

Hence, teachers' knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes are a vital component in understanding teacher–student relationships and related student outcomes.

Controversy exists over whether or not knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes are conceptually different. One perspective is that beliefs and knowledge should be subsumed under the same construct because knowledge can be subjective and, thus, can be indistinguishable from beliefs. An alternative approach conceptualizes knowledge as factual or verifiable, attitudes as affective (representative of emotional states), and beliefs as subjective and cognitive (related to processing information about the surrounding environment). To fully explore these constructs, each is discussed separately.

Knowledge

Knowledge includes all that an individual knows or believes to be true and that is verifiable or requires a truth condition, one truth condition being when a community of individuals has deemed a proposition true. As can be seen by this example of a truth condition, knowledge, like beliefs, is subjective (which is not to say that knowledge is arbitrary).

Knowledge teachers have and acquire can be conceptualized in many ways. In one approach, knowledge can be thought of as practical or embodied. Practical knowledge represents how a teacher understands the school, classroom, and other related environments; knowledge, then, is contextual, situational, and cognitive. Embodied knowledge captures the ways in which individuals interact within their environment.

Others have different conceptualizations of teacher knowledge. For example, Lee Shulman, a prominent educational scholar, has proposed a knowledge base for teaching organized into (1) content knowledge (e.g., amount of knowledge, organization of knowledge), (2) general pedagogical knowledge (e.g., knowledge about classroom practices that transcend content knowledge), (3) curriculum knowledge (e.g., knowledge about educational programs and related instructional materials), (4) pedagogical content knowledge (e.g., most appropriate ways to illustrate ideas, strategies to overcome common misconceptions within a particular subject area), (5) knowledge of learners and their characteristics, (6) knowledge of educational contexts (e.g., organization of schools), and (7) knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values. All of these types of teacher knowledge inform the ways in which teachers educate students.

Beliefs

Beliefs are psychologically based understandings that are *felt* to be true, even in the absence of evidence-based verification. Individuals can hold incompatible beliefs

that are not always logical. Beliefs tend to form early, and some beliefs may be harder to change than others. In particular, earlier formed beliefs are less susceptible to change than those more recently acquired. All beliefs are instrumental in behavior and organizing knowledge and information.

Teachers hold beliefs about themselves and their ability to teach, and teach well. For example, all teachers hold a belief in their ability to plan, implement, and execute a specific teaching task in a particular context, also known as teacher efficacy. Teacher efficacy develops out of a teacher's assessment of both the task and the context (e.g., difficulty level) and his or her ability to accomplish the task successfully.

Teacher efficacy also includes beliefs around decision making, school climate, and working with parents. A teacher's sense of efficacy is generally stable and difficult to change, although it may drop when a teacher is placed in a new or unfamiliar context or setting.

At more indirect levels, teachers hold beliefs about the standards, reform, and accountability and assessment systems in which they function. Teachers also hold beliefs related to cultural norms and values that shape their understanding and meaning of schools, children, diversity, and education.

Attitudes

Attitudes form through experience, drive individual behaviors, and contain an affective component (e.g., positive, negative). Teachers hold attitudes toward all aspects related to their role as a teacher (e.g., students, content area, instructional components, colleagues, workplace, and the educational system). These attitudes, in turn, manifest in teachers' practices.

Teachers' attitudes, knowledge, and beliefs can affect the practices they use in the classroom and the ways in which they interact with their students. This is particularly important in the context of classroom management, which encompasses not only discipline concerns but also student learning and social interaction: in short, all the activities a teacher must oversee in a classroom.

Regardless of the conceptual differences between knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes, teachers approach the classroom with ideas that represent simultaneously what is known and what is believed to be true. Further, affective research is less represented in the more recent shift toward cognitive-oriented approaches. Thus, for the purpose of the section that follows, knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes are subsumed under one larger overarching concept.

Beliefs About Teaching and Learning

Beliefs about teaching and learning affect how teachers structure tasks in their classroom; teachers with

different beliefs tend to provide different types of activities and support different patterns of classroom interaction. For example, someone who sees teaching as transmission of knowledge from one person to another may rely heavily on direct instruction. In contrast, a teacher who believes that open-ended exploration is crucial to learning may use discovery activities where students learn through trial and error.

These beliefs about teaching and learning can be closely related to teachers' beliefs about the nature of their subject matter: what the subject is about, or what it means to know the subject or to be able to do it well. A social studies teacher who sees history as the acquisition of facts will likely structure a class differently from a teacher who views it as a process of using historical evidence to draw conclusions.

Beliefs About Classroom Management

Beyond more global beliefs related to teaching and learning, teachers hold specific beliefs related to classroom management—beliefs about discipline and student behavior and control. These beliefs have been represented on a spectrum from custodial to humanistic. In a custodial perspective, teachers hold beliefs that emphasize control as management and the need to maintain order. Teachers are the authorities; students are expected to obey. Teachers who hold beliefs that represent a humanistic perspective endorse student self-control within a cooperative, democratic learning community. Therefore, teachers' beliefs about classroom control are represented in their practices.

These belief systems include conceptions about the role of the teacher. Is it a teacher's responsibility to act as a socializer and develop relationships with students? Or is a teacher's role strictly limited to instruction in the classroom? Is it a teacher's job to support an underperforming student, or is remediation someone else's responsibility?

Teachers' answers to these questions can affect their discipline practices, instructional decisions, and even referrals for special services. Teachers who believe they can lead students to success despite challenges are more likely to have an understanding of their own efficacy. This may lead teachers to be more likely to make instructional adjustments to improve student outcomes. Teachers' efforts to establish relationships with students have a positive effect on students' attitude and achievement, even helping them to negotiate conflict and self-regulate negative emotions.

Beliefs About Student Behavior

At the heart of classroom management is student behavior. Teachers hold beliefs about what is appropriate or

inappropriate classroom behavior. These beliefs may be contextual, based on the age of the students or the format of the lesson (e.g., small group learning). These beliefs about student behavior can affect teachers' responses when issues of discipline arise. For example, if teachers believe the source of inappropriate behavior is academic (e.g., a student misbehaving because he or she did not understand the material), they tend to respond with compassion. However, when teachers believe students are intentionally being disruptive, they are more likely to respond with punishment or rejection.

Beliefs about the nature of intelligence and student behavior are intertwined, as teachers often confound the two and are more likely to characterize a student who engages in socially acceptable classroom behavior (e.g., working quietly, paying attention) as also having high intellectual ability. In fact, various student features, including the effort children appear to put into their work, their personal characteristics, and even their appearance, can influence teachers' judgments of them and, therefore, their behavior toward them. This underscores the need for teachers to be aware of the ways their attitudes can affect classroom management.

Processes of Change

There is growing interest in a teacher's ability or inclination to change his or her beliefs. Preservice teachers tend to exit teacher preparation programs adhering to the same beliefs they held when they entered, leading experts to rate formal knowledge as a less powerful influence than personal experience on teacher knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes. This may be because the programs do not encourage students to identify and confront their beliefs.

Often, a preservice teacher's initial beliefs are solidified during student teaching, but then change over time during inservice teaching. For example, student teachers tend to have a control-oriented belief system, but some researchers have found that they become more democratic and child-centered with more experience.

Because of their experience, inservice teachers have a better understanding of the connection between their beliefs and their teaching practices and are more likely to undergo changes to those beliefs. Teachers learn from their classroom experience, creating a base of practical knowledge. When beliefs and practices are tested in classroom situations, inservice teachers' practical knowledge gives them the ability and the motivation to reexamine and revise those beliefs and practices, if necessary. Therefore, successful inservice professional development takes a constructivist approach and focuses on beliefs *and* practices by facilitating conversation, having teachers experiment with new beliefs and practices and encouraging reflection.

Conclusion

Whereas previous research characterized classroom practices as the result of teachers' knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes, current thinking recognizes the interactive relationship among knowledge, beliefs, attitudes and their associated practices. Beliefs may drive practices, but reflection about one's practice can lead to changes in beliefs; thus, beliefs and practice influence one another and develop together. Because teachers' beliefs can sometimes be contradictory, an important aspect of professional development is making implicit belief systems explicit and helping teachers reflect on their own practice so as to question their own knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes.

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See also Attribution Theory; Beginning Teachers and Classroom Management; Inservice Teacher Education; Reflective Practice; Teacher-Student Relationships

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TEACHER SELF-AWARENESS

Teaching is a constant act of perceiving, and the individual teacher is the instrument through which perception occurs. Teachers' awareness of how their perceptions are affecting their decisions and their actions is infinitely important. Teacher self-awareness, then, is about how the teacher perceives what is happening in the classroom, especially as it involves interactions with and among students, the assumptions inherent within those perceptions, and then the processes by which the teacher makes decisions regarding how to act.

Teaching as a Perceptual Process

To illustrate how the perceptual process operates, consider the following example. Referring to a student in class, a teacher remarks to a friend, "Joe is a good student." For the friend hearing this statement, certain images of what Joe is like will come to mind. These images will be dependent on the unique perceptual lens of the friend. That is because the individual hearing the statement, "Joe is a good student," will automatically make a variety of associations related to the individual's preconceived ideas of what *good* entails when applied to student behavior and identity. In other words, the individual forms thoughts and beliefs about who Joe is and how he behaves based on the associations that occur mostly involuntarily in the individual's brain. These associations comprise the individual's perceptions. Perceptions are shaped by one's prior experiences, culture, beliefs, values, and cognitive schemata, which operate synergistically.

Deconstructing the associations one makes when one hears "Joe is a good student" demonstrates how this perceptual process operates. First, any phrase, idea, or construct will be viewed through a lens of one's unique past experiences. In this example, the individual will likely revert to his or her own prior experiences as a student and what was observed as being rewarded or penalized. If the individual is a teacher, his or her experiences as a teacher would also relate to the perception of what *good* entails. For example, an individual who consistently observed that his classmates who garnered the favor of the teacher were those students who only responded when the teacher called on them would likely associate Joe's being good with Joe being quiet.

Second, these experiences are shaped, in part, by one's culture and the beliefs one has about appropriate behaviors and dispositions for students. For example, in some cultures there is a belief that teachers possess expertise that they must impart to the students; students should remain mostly quiet in order to take full advantage of the teacher's expertise. Questioning a teacher is viewed as disrespectful because it is understood to imply questioning the *authority* of the teacher. In contrast, there are other cultures that value student assertiveness and believe that students will learn more by asking questions. In U.S. classrooms, Joe would be perceived as being good if he asked content-related questions and was actively engaged in the learning activities occurring in the classroom.

Third, beliefs and cultural influences shape and are shaped by one's values. In a culture that places great value on individualism, accountability, and self-reliance, the actions of a student perceived as good will likely differ from the actions of a student perceived as good in a culture that places great value on collectivism, collaboration, and unity. If Joe is competitive, he would be perceived as a good student by somebody whose values

align with the former culture, whereas he would likely not be perceived as a good student by somebody whose values align with the latter culture.

Gender and cultural backgrounds also affect the perceptual process by influencing one's beliefs and values. For example, if the individual believes that boys obtain education for a different reason than girls do, then the statement "Joe is a good student" takes on a whole new meaning when it is changed to "Josephine is a good student." Depending on the perceptual lens of the individual and their experience with diverse populations, there may also be a shift if the individual hears "José is a good student" or "Jölanda is a good student."

Finally, one's cognitive schemata will affect the perceptual process. For example, a first-grade child will hear the phrase "Joe is a good student" and may have a more limited set of associations regarding what that phrase means than an adult. Similarly, an adult with an advanced degree in education who has studied learning theories will understand the phrase very differently than an adult of the same age without a sophisticated knowledge of learning theories.

Depending on the prior experiences, culture, beliefs, values, and cognitive schemata of the individual, the phrase "Joe is a good student" could be perceived to mean the student is well-mannered and quiet, or engaged with the material and actively asking questions about it, or high achieving with good grades in everything, or helpful to other students who are struggling to stay on task or to learn the material, or obedient to authority figures, or any of a number of other qualities. The individual may focus more on Joe's behaviors, or cognitive capacities, or his inclinations toward approaching school-related tasks.

The point is, after hearing only five words—"Joe is a good student"—the associations and images the individual makes about who Joe is, and how Joe likely behaves in class and approaches his schooling, will be fraught with assumptions, many of which will likely be inaccurate. This exercise can be replicated with other simple phrases: "She is smart," "He has a good job," "The student succeeds in class." The complications increase exponentially when a teacher must interpret the complexities of classroom situations that involve numerous students with whom the teacher interacts individually as well as in groups.

There are many opportunities for even the most seasoned teacher to misinterpret a situation or a communication exchange based on inaccurate assumptions. Therefore, it is essential that teachers become aware of their own unique perceptual lens. They must develop an awareness of their assumptions, or potential assumptions. Otherwise, they risk making decisions that create an adverse learning environment and could be detrimental to their students, despite good intentions and proficient knowledge of pedagogical techniques.

Developing Self-Awareness

Although self-awareness may seem analogous to teacher reflections, it is actually a broader concept. *Reflection* often refers to teachers' decision-making processes regarding specific teaching techniques. This is a linear, rational approach, with the focus on the external behaviors, namely the teacher's pedagogical approaches. However, teachers must be aware of what drives those pedagogical approaches, as well as the desired ends they hope to engender. A teacher's values, beliefs, cultural identity, and cognitive schemata formulate the underlying processes that shape the teacher's perceptual lens. Unlike a teacher who engages in reflection of his or her instructional decisions, a teacher with self-awareness has developed an understanding of the nature of this perceptual lens, not just the actions that result from the functioning of the lens. The teacher with self-awareness also considers the value of the desired ends, rather than just reflecting on whether the instructional decisions made those ends attainable.

Researchers exploring the *self* of the teacher are also concerned with how the teacher interprets instructional practices and not just the implementation of those practices. These researchers believe the private theories or subjective educational theories of the teacher are just as important as accepted theories teacher candidates study in textbooks. This is why many teacher candidates write teaching philosophy statements or some kinds of articulation of their values or beliefs about teaching. Interestingly enough, though, many teacher candidates struggle to translate their stated values into their pedagogical practice. This is frequently referred to as a problem of enactment.

Teacher candidates often become well versed in the rhetoric of effective teaching practices and will thoughtfully articulate sophisticated value systems and moral intentions. Yet teacher candidates often lack a systematic structure for examining how those values translate into their specific teaching practices, especially the decisions they make within the classroom on a day-to-day basis. In fact, there is evidence that teacher candidates engage in teaching practices that often contradict their own teaching philosophies. Sometimes they develop an awareness of this disconnect when they see video playback of themselves teaching, but frequently the disconnect remains unexamined. For example, video playback may help a teacher see that although he values equity of learning opportunities, his lessons demonstrate that he is only calling on students seated near the front. He is managing the classroom in a manner that is incongruent with his values. Teacher candidates need opportunities to become aware of their values related to teaching, as well as the desired ends they are trying to achieve. Having multiple opportunities to revisit their

philosophies as well as to consider how their values and beliefs are manifesting (or not manifesting) during any teaching experience and whether they are achieving the desired ends can build their self-awareness.

Because cultural identity is instrumental in shaping one's values and beliefs, multicultural educators also offer insight into how teachers can develop self-awareness. Because the U.S. teaching force of predominantly white, middle-class females increasingly differs from the student population, in which minority groups constitute a growing proportion, teachers must be able to examine their own cultural assumptions in order to establish positive learning environments for all students. What may be considered normal to the teacher may be incomprehensible to the student and vice versa. Prominent multicultural educator Lisa Delpit offers a similar example: A teacher intending to direct a student to share with another student might say, "Will you please share your book with Joe?" The teacher believes she has stated clearly what she wants the student to do: share the book with Joe. However, since the teacher used a question, the student may perceive this statement as a request rather than a directive, indicating that the student has a choice. Therefore, the student may assume it is acceptable to choose not to share. Since the teacher assumes she gave a polite directive, the teacher may then assume that the student acted disobediently and may be inclined to punish the student. A domino effect of unintended consequences may result for both the teacher and the student, all based on inaccurate assumptions.

Conclusion

Effective classroom management depends on the actions and interactions influenced by the teacher. Beyond proficient knowledge and pedagogy, effective classroom managers understand how their unique prior experiences, culture, values, beliefs, and cognitive schemata affect the way they perceive what occurs inside their classroom. This self-awareness positions them to make decisions to best meet the needs and cultivate the flourishing of all students.

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See also Culturally Responsive Classrooms; Mindfulness Practices for Teachers; Reflective Practice; Reframing; Teacher Knowledge, Beliefs, Attitudes

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TEACHER SELF-EFFICACY

In addition to knowledge and skills, teachers need to be confident and believe in their abilities to exercise effective classroom management: to manage disruptive behaviors, implement instruction that engages students, and do all the many things that make for a good classroom learning environment. Teachers' confidence and belief in their abilities has to do with what is generally referred to as *self-efficacy*. Although self-efficacy is central to carrying out almost any complex task, it is especially important to classroom management not only because of its complex nature but also because of the emotional challenges in managing classrooms with diverse groups of students. Effective classroom management requires constant analysis of student behavior, constant monitoring of incentives and discipline choices, and constant instructional decisions—all while attending to the emotional needs of students, including the need to have a nurturing, positive teacher. The focus of this entry is on understanding self-efficacy and its impact on classroom management.

Self-Efficacy Defined

The concept of self-efficacy was most influenced by Albert Bandura (1925–) who defined self-efficacy as a person's belief in his or her capabilities to complete a task. Other researchers began to apply this concept to specific content areas such as math and to specific roles such as classroom management. Hence classroom management self-efficacy is teachers' belief in their personal capabilities to plan and implement strategies that maintain classroom order and that promote the development of a successful learning environment.

BOX 1 Examples of Classroom Management Efficacy Items

- I know what routines are needed in my room to keep activities (i.e., centers, discussions) running smoothly.
- I know what kinds of rewards to use to keep students engaged in the classroom activities.
- I find it easy to make my expectation clear to my students.
- If a student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I know some techniques to redirect him or her quickly.

Source: Adapted from Emmer and Hickman (1991).

To help understand teachers' classroom management efficacy, researchers developed statements that allowed teachers to rate how strongly or weakly they felt about their classroom management skills. Examples of these are shown in Box 1. The statements were accompanied by a scale (e.g., ranging from *I strongly agree* to *I strongly disagree*) on which teachers rate themselves.

To help demonstrate how classroom management self-efficacy is defined, as well as understand its impact, consider this example. Ms. Smith is a third-grade teacher of a class with mixed ability levels. When asked questions like those in Box 1, Ms. Smith ranked herself low by disagreeing with the statements. Ms. Smith would be classified as having low classroom management efficacy. These feelings will influence the choices she makes and ultimately her decision to continue in the profession—as discussed in the following section.

Influence on Classroom Management Choices

Self-efficacy influences several aspects of teachers' decision-making processes. In regard to classroom management, self-efficacy influences the goals teachers set for themselves and their motivation to persist in the face of challenge. Ms. Smith may set goals to obtain more control of the classroom, but when facing disruptive students, she may not persist with useful strategies to accomplish her goal. Due to her low self-efficacy, Ms. Smith may abandon her strategies and revert to more authoritarian means of control that, in turn, may undermine her ability to manage her classroom effectively. Also, due to her low self-efficacy, Ms. Smith is less likely to be inclined to try new strategies because of the uncertainty this would create.

On the other hand, if another teacher, Ms. Brown, rated herself as having high classroom management self-efficacy, when she implements a strategy and is faced with unexpected challenges, she is more likely to persevere with the strategy or reevaluate the situation for another solution. Ms. Brown, owing to her feelings

about her management abilities, will not attribute setbacks to be the result of her lack of skill, but instead as a need to try something new. Furthermore, teachers like Ms. Brown are more likely to implement classroom management strategies that allow for more student autonomy and collaboration with other students. For many teachers, allowing for student autonomy and collaboration with other students creates vulnerability arising from distribution of authority; thus, teachers must have confidence in their management skills if they are to provide students the freedom to work on their own and collaborate with other students.

Influence on Attrition

Classroom management is one of the most challenging aspects of teaching and most influential to teachers' overall satisfaction. Teachers with low self-efficacy are most likely to leave the teaching profession. Their feelings about their ability to manage the classroom account for much of their discontentment. As described above, low self-efficacy around classroom management creates a negative cycle that impacts choices. For example, Ms. Smith may experience disruptive student behavior, reinforcing her negative beliefs about her management skills, and therefore she withdraws. As a result, student disruptions increase, further discouraging Ms. Smith and reducing her self-efficacy in this domain of practice. If this continues, Ms. Smith will lack the motivation or belief that she can handle her class, leading her to consider changing professions.

How to Impact Classroom Management Self-Efficacy

Albert Bandura's work presents four main influences on efficacy: mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological and affective states. These are the areas in which teachers can experience success and increase their classroom management

self-efficacy. This increase will then impact their choices and decrease likelihood for burnout and attrition. With the guidance of a mentor, colleague, or instructional coach, Ms. Smith can select a classroom management strategy, such as providing positive feedback to students. She can first observe her mentor implement this strategy and then practice it herself. Her mentor can provide feedback and support to help Ms. Smith overcome frustrations and give praise for effectiveness. Through occurrences like this, Ms. Smith can learn by observing her mentor and by having mastery experiences as she successfully implements new strategies.

The support of a trusted person is necessary to provide the verbal persuasion, and this takes a form when Ms. Smith's mentor provides praise and points out specific positive attributes of Ms. Smith's practice. Furthermore, by conferencing with a mentor or by journaling, Ms. Smith can come to understand the emotional and physiological responses she experiences as a result of her frustration with her classroom management. Conferencing and journaling allow her to make sense of her reactions so they do not consume her. As Ms. Smith begins to experience more success with strategies, her level of efficacy with regard to classroom management will begin to increase and she will take note of the change in her affective and physiological state.

Conclusion

Classroom management is a multifaceted responsibility that challenges most teachers and leads to teachers experiencing both successes and failures. These experiences, in turn, lead teachers to develop beliefs about their abilities—beliefs that define teachers' self-efficacy with respect to classroom management. Teachers' self-efficacy has an impact on their instructional decisions and career satisfaction. With awareness and knowledge of their self-efficacy and what determines self-efficacy, teachers can work with mentors and each other to get the support they need to improve their effectiveness as classroom managers and, in the process, develop the self-efficacy needed to meet all the many challenges that go along with classroom management.

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See also Beginning Teachers and Classroom Management; Exemplary Teachers; New Teachers in Diverse Classrooms; Teacher Education and Classroom Management; Teacher Knowledge, Beliefs, Attitudes; Teacher Self-Awareness

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TEACHER TEAMING AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

In many schools, teacher professional development on issues and strategies related to classroom management is still carried out as a series of isolated experiences in which individual teachers are trained on some new approach, technology, or skill. And while individual teachers may improve their classroom management practice through coursework, workshops, or action research, those improvements are autonomous, uncoordinated, and inequitable unless there is a means for teachers to share their learning with peers. Moreover, most teachers working in isolation have few (if any) opportunities to critically examine their work with people who share the same students, content, and assessments. Not surprisingly, then, an abundance of recent research shows that in order to be effective, professional development related to classroom management must take place through teacher teaming that is ongoing, focused on student outcomes, collaborative, and built into the context of the school day.

Unlike stand-alone, event-oriented learning activities in which individual teachers may participate (e.g., optional after-school study groups, graduate courses, sporadic inservice days), job-embedded teacher teaming implies processes for adult learning that are integrated into the workday and that enable and expect teachers to work together to assess and find solutions to classroom management issues related to evidence about student behavior and learning in a continuous cycle of improvement.

Drawing from the knowledge and experience of their peers, teacher team members will discuss, evaluate, and modify expectations, instructional routines, materials, and assessments so that all students within a school have more equal access to the best possible classroom experiences. High-quality teacher teaming engages educators in the most critical questions of the profession by asking them to take a disciplined look at their own—and each other's—classroom management practices

and the effects of those practices on student behavior, engagement, and achievement.

Five Essential Elements of Effective Teacher Teaming

Effective teacher teaming happens by design, not chance. In schools where teacher teaming results in the creation, development, and continuous improvement of classroom management systems and practices at the school and classroom level, at least five key interdependent elements are at work. Specifically, effective teacher teaming requires appropriate team membership, sufficient time to work together, a clear and sustained focus, disciplined cycles of inquiry, and the capacity to diffuse new knowledge about classroom management throughout the learning community. The five elements of effective teacher teaming work together to enable the consistent delivery of best practices in classroom management throughout a school community.

Team Membership

Teacher teams need to be purposefully assembled to include colleagues who share the same content area, the same students, and/or the same curriculum. When team membership is left to chance, teacher collaboration usually stalls at the level of collegial banter or pie-in-the-sky discussions about big theoretical issues (what has been referred to in jest as co-blaboration). High-quality teacher teaming is organized such that every teacher is on at least one team of three to six members in which everyone on the team shares the same problems and questions of practice related to classroom management. Teacher teams are most often organized vertically (by shared content area and/or students through a combination of grade levels), horizontally (by shared subject area and/or students across grade levels), or topically (by a particular issue or innovation in need of study and action).

Sufficient Time to Work Together

If teacher teams are to enact and improve systems of classroom management that enhance student learning, a significant amount of time must be allocated for teacher teaming. Currently, the intensity level of professional development for U.S. teachers on the topic of student discipline and classroom management is quite low; a third spend less than 8 hours per year, and only 2% spend 33 or more hours on the topic of classroom management. Although there is no rule that dictates how much time teams need to become productive, recent research indicates that any professional development

endeavor in which teachers are engaged for an average of less than 8 hours *per month* will likely have little or no impact on instructional practice and student learning. In many European and Asian countries, teachers spend an average of 20 hours per week working in teams to improve instruction. Unlike the United States, where less than 10% of a teacher's workweek is typically available for teaming, high-achieving countries allow teachers to spend nearly 40% of their time outside of the classroom, planning and learning together and developing high-quality curriculum and instruction.

Social psychologists have shown that the more frequently people interact, the closer they become and the more they trust each other. School personnel who seek to use teacher teaming as the primary means for enacting effective classroom management systems should strive to enable teacher teams to meet at least weekly, during the school day, for at least 2 hours. Without sufficient time, even the best teams will not be able to engage in serious and sustained inquiry about classroom management, nor will they build the kinds of relationships that foster the trust and open communication that instructional improvement requires.

Clear and Sustained Focus on Instructional Practice and Student Learning

A clear and sustained focus on issues related to the core of schooling—namely what and how students are being taught, and what and how students are learning—is the sine qua non of teacher teaming. Without a focus on the core of the learning environment (content, tasks, instruction), teams fall prey to “collaboration lite” and spend their time discussing topics (e.g., textbook orders, who is chaperoning the dance, effectiveness of administrators) that are unlikely to result in meaningful improvement of classroom management practice or bring about desired student social, emotional, behavioral, and academic outcomes.

The focus of effective teacher teams is to identify and focus on problems of practice related to instruction and student learning that can be immediately subject to examination and improvement. Why are some of our students not participating in class? Not taking responsibility for turning in work? Why are some not getting along with one another? These are the kinds of specific questions that teachers can use to identify and solve problems of classroom management practice and that can become a team's focus until enough progress has been made to move on to something new.

Disciplined Cycles of Inquiry

Even in schools where collaboration is encouraged, it is often misunderstood to mean collegiality or group

camaraderie rather than a structured cycle of focused inquiry that results in team learning and instructional improvement. Once a focus for team inquiry has been determined, teacher teams need a way to structure their work to ensure improvement in classroom management practice. Writ large, this means that they must engage in a continuous cycle of dialogue, decision making, action, and evaluation.

They will engage in dialogue and discuss what they know about student social, emotional, behavioral, and/or academic learning and how their classroom management practices are impeding or promoting student learning in these areas; make decisions about what to keep, stop, or modify about their classroom management practices; carry out—with fidelity—the decisions they have made; and assess the effects of those actions on subsequent student outcomes. Then the cycle repeats, again and again, over and over as the group examines and addresses real-time problems and questions of practice.

Teachers need training in the kinds of processes that best facilitate productive teamwork. The ability to participate in dialogue, make decisions, take action, and evaluate those actions—to engage in a cycle of team inquiry—is a complex undertaking that requires a great deal of skill, which is not often taught in the course of teacher preparation programs. In any group, there will be people who dominate, who hibernate, who appease, who instigate—such is the nature of the collaborative process. However, the particulars of individual personalities can be mitigated by the use of protocols that structure fruitful discussions and cycles of inquiry. (For an excellent list of teacher team dialogue protocols, visit the website of the National School Reform Faculty.)

Diffusion of Classroom Management Knowledge and Innovation

For teacher teaming to have maximum impact on the quality of classroom management and student outcomes across a school community, it is critical that teacher teams are connected, or overlap in membership, with one another in strategic ways so that innovations in classroom management spread throughout a school. Through high-quality teaming, specific improvements will be made to classroom management practice that bring about positive outcomes for students—socially, emotionally, behaviorally, and academically. How will those classroom management advances become part of the larger teaching culture? How will practices that bring about learning for a segment of students be replicated across the school so that all students have access to high-quality instruction?

Effective systems of teacher teaming will entail the enactment of structures that enable information to

flow between teacher teams and across the entire faculty. School administrators are increasingly using social network analysis to map how well their most valuable intellectual resources—teachers and teacher teams—are connected to each other and to school leaders. Schools that examine their teacher teaming structures and overlaps in membership between groups are able to adjust teacher team configurations in ways that promote widespread and equitable flow of information and innovation in classroom management.

When teacher teaming is organized for diffusion, the expertise of a school's best practitioners of classroom management is not left to languish in isolation, but blooms throughout the learning community, increasing the likelihood that all students are receiving high-quality instruction.

Importance of Teacher Teaming

High-quality teacher teaming has been shown to have significant positive effects on the quality of teachers' knowledge and skills and to result in changes to classroom practice—the primary factors attributed to improvements in student learning. Dramatic decreases in dropout rates and increases in student achievement have been realized in low-income-neighborhood urban schools where strong collaborative relationships exist between teachers that support targeted instructional improvement. Teacher involvement in high-quality job-embedded teacher teaming has been found to account for as much variance in math and science achievement as student background. Further, sustained high-quality teacher teaming increases teacher job satisfaction of educators.

Conclusion

Effective teacher teaming—that is, teacher teaming that results in the creation, development, and continuous improvement of classroom management systems and practices at the school and classroom level—requires that at least five structural components are in place. Teachers will be members of teams of about three to six people who share the same students and/or content; they will have sufficient time to work together both in terms of frequency (at least once per week) and duration (minimum of 2 hours per week, at least 8 hours per month); they will focus their time on specific issues related to instructional practice and student learning, and engage in an ongoing disciplined cycles of dialogue, decision making, action, and evaluation. Furthermore, teams will be organized so as to enable the diffusion, or spread, of new knowledge and effective classroom management practice throughout the learning community.

Fully developed systems of teacher teaming facilitate continuous, substantive, targeted improvements in classroom management practice, student engagement, and student performance. By no means is this a small task. For some schools, some structural elements of teacher teaming may already exist, ready to be leveraged into powerful mechanisms of instructional change. For others, norms of isolation and independence may be so culturally and structurally pervasive that organizing a system of effective teacher teaming will be nothing short of a sea change.

Too often, schools operate under the assumption that professional development in classroom management comes from the outside in or can be accomplished in one-shot presentations by highly paid speakers, off-site workshops, and half-day department meetings. But the paradigm is shifting; it is increasingly recognized that real professional learning is predicated on systems of effective teacher teaming and does not result from an isolated event or sporadic activities. Classroom management practice improves when teachers work in teams to closely examine each other's practice, encourage each other to learn and to grow, challenge and expect each other to improve student learning, and imbue each other with renewed energy about the power of great teaching.

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See also *Teacher Education and Classroom Management; Teaching as Researching*

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TEACHER-PARENT PARTNERSHIPS

The beginning of a new school year is a crucial time for laying the foundation for a fully functional year of learning and classroom management. Laying this foundation entails more than simply attending to the school and classroom. It means also attending to students' homes and to establishing good partnerships with students' parents. This entry defines the essentials for establishing and maintaining those good partnerships that make possible ongoing and fruitful consultations with families.

Parental Involvement and Establishing Partnerships With Parents

The Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), originally passed in 1965 and reauthorized by the Congress every 5 years since its enactment, defines parental involvement as the participation of parents in “regular, two-way, and meaningful communication” around students' academic learning and school activities. According to ESEA, parental involvement is central to a student succeeding in school, and communication is key for ensuring parental involvement.

However, communication is not all there is to ensuring parental involvement. To effectively implement the ESEA parental involvement provision, teachers must also attend to several general demands for ensuring parental involvement and developing partnerships with families, particularly the demands to communicate effectively, show respect, show empathy, and develop trust.

Communicating Effectively

As stated in ESEA, teachers must engage in substantive communication with parents. This means communicating about the classroom management system, what is expected of students, and what is expected of or hoped for from parents. To communicate about all three, many schools have a parent information session at the beginning of the school year. However, these sessions can be both impersonal and not attended by all.

For there to be better communication that begins an ongoing partnership between teachers and parents, there needs to be more personal communication with parents at the beginning of the year. Examples of more personal communication include sending personal messages to both parents and students. This can be done through email or postcards. Also some teachers have had great success using home visits and providing a social gathering for families before school starts. If parents are able to recognize that teachers are available to communicate with them during these good times,

they are more likely to respond positively when times get more difficult.

The beginning of the year is not the only time for communicating to build strong relationships. Ongoing communication is needed throughout the year—through newsletters and at parent-teacher conferences.

There will be times when individual communication needs to occur if a student is not meeting behavior expectations. At such times, there are a number of principles for teachers to consider. First, teachers need to show that they care about the student. If parents know that a teacher sincerely cares about their child, they will be much more willing to communicate with the teacher and work toward a common goal. At these meetings, when describing their concerns, teachers must clearly state the facts and give specific examples, not make judgments related to the student's intentions or motivation (or lack thereof).

The last communication principle involves listening to parents. Known as the language of acceptance, listening allows teachers to get a glimpse into a student's life outside of school. It also promotes a better relationship with parents.

Showing Respect

Teachers might have different values and priorities than those of the parents of students in their classroom, but such differences need not mean disrespecting by not attending to the parents' values and priorities. On the contrary, respecting parents includes teachers attending to parents' priorities, values, and resources so as to ensure that teachers' support strategies address the needs of both the student and the family.

Differences between teacher and parent values and priorities often occur when teachers and parents come from different cultures. Many family perspectives related to school stem from cultural beliefs, and interactions with teachers are no exception. It may not be possible to fully understand each family's cultural beliefs, but communication can increase that understanding. And even if conflicts do arise, showing understanding will demonstrate the necessary level of care to be able to problem-solve appropriately. To demonstrate respect, teachers also need to treat students and families with dignity. This includes treating them as honored, worthy, and esteemed. To accomplish this, teachers need to involve parents in decision making, especially in regard to developing behavioral interventions.

Showing Empathy

Too often, teachers will blame parents for their children's inappropriate behavior and use student behavior

to develop a negative attitude toward parents. However, rather than blame, teachers need to feel and express empathy for parents. It is not possible for teachers to know all of the struggles and hardships a parent might be experiencing, and so strong and consistent communication is vital. To demonstrate empathy, teachers should lend positive support to parents and give specific examples of strengths and successes that the family has had with its child. Also, teachers need to thank parents for support with behavior management techniques as well as share with parents their (teachers') expectations and decisions with respect to behavior management. Doing so demonstrates care for parents, enough to inform them of management techniques being used with their child.

Developing Trust

Effective partnerships between parents and teachers require the development of trust. Parents are able to trust teachers when they believe the teachers are acting in the best interest of their child. To promote such trust, teachers need to demonstrate to parents that they are reliable and make sound decisions. Teachers are able to do this when they walk the talk, or match their actions to their words. When teachers are reliable, parents know they can depend on teachers, whether the issue is big or small.

Developing trust involves following through with what a teacher tells parents. Developing trust also involves responding to emails, returning phone calls, and contacting other professionals in a timely manner. Teachers may need a system to keep track of all that needs to be done, but however it may be accomplished, keeping track and following through is essential for developing and maintaining trust. Parents recognize that teachers are busy professionals, but from their point of view, their child comes first, and honoring that commitment to their child is a large part of building the trust necessary for there to be an effective partnership.

Positive Behavior Support

The traditional behavior management approach views students as the problem. Positive behavior support (PBS) shifts the focus from fixing the individual with his or her problem to changing systems and settings and developing skills. By shifting to adopt this more positive focus and view, PBS emphasizes the intrinsic value and integrity of the child, regardless of what that child may have done or failed to do. The PBS approach maximizes expectations of students and affirms their strengths while simultaneously it responds to students' needs and the needs of their families.

Many schools have shifted to a schoolwide PBS system, with families becoming essential partners in

implementing and maximizing PBS. Families are used in helping to develop, teach, and monitor schoolwide behavioral expectations and strategies. Families are also important collaborators in following through with the school's expectations and strategies for when students are at home. When consistent expectations and strategies are adopted in home and community settings as well as in the school setting, it is more likely that they will be effective.

PBS may also lead to positive outcomes for individual families and their children. A decrease in a wide range of problem behaviors in children can be addressed through PBS. Partnerships with parents have led to children's improved participation in home and community activities and have enhanced family quality of life. In addition, the positive outcomes of family implementation of PBS endure over time.

Considerations for Special Needs

The need for parental involvement and partnerships between teachers and parents is never more clear than in the case of children with special needs. The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) defines required special education services and for whom. Parental involvement is a cornerstone of IDEA, since the law mandates that parents will be part of the team that makes eligibility, placement, and service decisions. IDEA specifies what teachers must do, but it is the individual professionals who use their own discretion in how they involve families.

More and more students are coming to school with significant emotional and behavioral needs, and it is the school's responsibility to learn strategies to best meet these students' needs. Meeting the needs of their families is an additional obligation for the school—as is evident in the following case example:

Angie has two children with unusually demanding emotional needs. Since the children were adopted at a young age, Angie's family has had many supports, including the support of a case manager, support groups, individual therapy, and family therapy. Both children have been provided extra supports through their Individualized Education Plans. Even with all these services, Angie states that she still needs support from the school, through the school communicating with her about what is happening with and for her children. She wants to be informed at the same level and intensity that would take place if her children did not have identified special needs.

She also wants teachers to understand her children. Her current concern is that her children's

teachers do not have time to build a relationship, especially since the children are now in middle school and high school. "Just a few minutes every day can make a huge difference," she says. She also says she wants teachers to make her, her family, and her children feel important. "Give more praise; give them [the students] what they are asking for."

Conclusion

Every year brings a new group of students into our schools. Each group has different talents and needs. Each year, teachers consider how to build that classroom community and set strong expectations from the first day of school. And each year, teachers have to build strong relationships with parents. The job of teachers is, then, not easy, and so teachers need to have a specific plan for building classroom communities and relationships with parents because they will not happen automatically and without thought and effort. When teachers put in the necessary thought and effort for developing classroom communities and good parent relationships, it positively impacts students, which is, after all, what teaching is all about.

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See also Home-School Connections; Parent-School Collaboration

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TEACHERS AND FAMILIES OF CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL NEEDS

In many classrooms, both public and private, teachers encounter students with special needs. This entry

describes the legal bases for the teacher–family relationship within a special education context, suggests strategies to promote positive relationships and family engagement, and also explains how family and social diversity pertain to the teacher–family relationship.

Legal bases of teacher–family relationships are defined both by federal law and respective state laws. Under these laws, public schools have federal and state mandates to provide free and appropriate public education through Individualized Educational Programs (IEPs) that define the educational goals and the means for achieving goals for children with special needs. Families of children with special needs have legal rights to participate in the development of IEPs and in their children’s education. Therefore, the relationship between teachers and families of children with special needs takes place within the context of legal provisions describing both the scope of special education and parental involvement in it. When federal and state laws differ, federal law provides the minimum acceptable standard and supersedes state law in cases where that standard is not met.

Legally mandated parental involvement in the education of their children with special needs has a long history that started with landmark court decisions in the 1970s and continues with more recent legislation, such as the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) of 1997 and its amendments. Among other legal rights, under current law, parents have a right to provide and access information, participate in special education team meetings, receive data-based progress reports from teachers and specialists, use due process to resolve disagreements with school districts, and approve or decline accommodations and services, including placement and academic supports.

To sum up, the legal framework defines many procedural aspects of the teacher–parent relationship in the context of special education. These include obtaining consent for certain interventions, provision of progress reports that are understandable to parents and directly relevant to the IEP goals and benchmarks, participation in and contribution to special education team meetings, participation in development of IEP in collaboration with parents, and, when needed, participation in a conflict resolution and due process procedures.

Fostering Family Engagement and Partnerships

Aside from being mandated legally, families’ engagement in their children’s education helps children learn and behave better. The laws refer to parent engagement. Due to a recent emphasis on family as a broader system, this discussion uses instead the term *family engagement*.

Family engagement is a part of the family-centered approach, which is an evidence-based practice recommended by the U.S. Department of Education for working with families. Positive relationships between teachers and families are a part of the groundwork necessary to promote family engagement and constructive family–school partnerships. In turn, poor family–teacher relationships lead to difficulties in educating and providing services to children. Therefore, cultivating collaborative relationships with families of children with special needs is an important task facing teachers. The positive impact of this relationship needs to be kept in mind in any situation where a teacher interacts with a family of a child with special needs.

Teachers might encounter families of children with special needs in the same situations as families of their typically developing peers; for example, during drop-off and pick-up at school, parent–teacher conferences, and schoolwide events. Additionally, a teacher might encounter families of children with special needs during annual IEP review meetings and at additional team meetings initiated by parents or school professionals (usually referred to as the “team”). Depending on the issues at hand, the atmosphere of these meetings can range from casual and friendly to tense and confrontational. Building relationships with all families, including those whose relationship with the special education system is problematic and adversarial, requires a sustained effort by everyone involved.

To help make this effort a success, researchers at the Beach Center on Disability at the University of Kansas suggest six key components of family–professional partnerships. These include professional competence, communication, respect, commitment, equality, and trust. Family–professional partnerships that include these six components are crucial for implementing inclusion and successfully educating children with special needs.

Competent teachers use evidence-based educational practices, set high standards for all students, and individualize their approach based on students’ individual needs. All parents want to see their children learn to their full potential and appreciate teachers’ efforts in that regard. Teachers who communicate successfully listen well, are honest, friendly, clear, and provide information that each specific family is interested in, in a way that is accessible to the family. This involves listening to how parents perceive their child’s and their own strengths and needs and what kinds of information, if any, they would find helpful. Respect involves practicing a nonjudgmental approach, as well as honoring each family’s specific values and recognizing its strengths. For example, parents and the school team can disagree about the child’s potential for learning, or the priorities for intervention. A productive dialogue is only possible

when the family's position is sincerely respected and considered. Families' positions, no matter how alien to the team, have many roots and reasons, which also need to be understood and respected.

A committed teacher works whole-heartedly, often going beyond work obligations to understand and act on each student's story and profile, as well as on each family's needs, dreams, fears, priorities, and plans for its child. Practicing equality means teachers and other professionals practice a family-centered approach, sharing decision-making power with families, providing families with options, and considering them equal partners in a school team. For example, as the team considers therapy options for a student, it is important to solicit and incorporate the family's view of the specific therapeutic approach—does the family see it as helpful, does the family agree with its philosophy, is the family going to support it at home? If not, other available options may need to be considered.

When the teacher and other school professionals act in the ways described here, they will likely be able to establish trusting relationships with families. Within the context of that relationship, both sides will be confident in each other's good intentions, reliability, and sound judgment, as well as ability to maintain confidentiality and keep the child safe.

Disengaged Families

Although research shows that most families of children with special needs are involved in their education, there are some families who are perceived by their school teams as disengaged from the special education process. Teachers find it close to impossible to build relationships with these families, who are often described as hard to reach.

There are indeed some families who cannot support their children's educational process for a host of reasons, such as unavailability of time and resources. Karen Mapp and Soo Hong found that a large number of the families that disengage do so because they cannot relate to the special education system's programs, practices, and policies. Many of these families are poor, nonwhite, non-English speakers, and/or immigrants. Teachers need to look for, elicit, and emphasize strengths in these families. Teachers and other professionals who tend to place unjustifiably heavy expectations on families of children with special needs need to support such families' chosen level of engagement and recognize that it can change over time.

Cultural and Social Diversity

As is clear from this discussion, teachers will encounter a tremendous amount of cultural and social diversity among families of children with special needs. Milton

Seligman and Rosalyn Darling suggest that teachers need to have as broad a picture as possible about each family in order to interact successfully with them.

Some of the factors to consider include a family's neighborhood and community characteristics, economic situation, structure, subculture and values, attitudes toward the causes and nature of disability, reaction to having a child with special needs, expectations for the child, quality of previous experiences with service delivery systems, and ideas about intervention. For example, some families might use their child's diagnosis, which is used to establish eligibility for services, as a way to explain all of their child's difficulties. Other families might refuse to accept the diagnosis. Furthermore, in some subcultures, disability is viewed as a devastating tragedy, while in other cultures, individuals with disabilities are considered to possess special gifts. Some families pursue as many interventions as possible, while others decline most, if not all, of the services provided for their children. Culturally and socially diverse families often practice approaches to child-rearing and intervention that are different from those endorsed by professionals, who mostly belong to the middle or upper class.

Conclusion

As described in the section on building family-professional partnerships, it is important for teachers to consider themselves as equal partners with each family and focus on building understanding and trust as a basis for a successful relationship. Although it is not always possible for professionals and families to see eye to eye, it is possible to agree to disagree respectfully.

It is also possible and important to recognize issues around which agreement is particularly difficult to reach and agree on procedural steps to work out the disagreement in the best interest of a student. While working out disagreements, professionals need to empathize and work to preserve the overall good relationship with family, as well as put the disagreement in the context of everything the family and professionals have been able to agree on and accomplish together.

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See also Disabilities and Classroom Management; Home-School Connections; Inclusive Classrooms; Parent-School Collaboration; Special Education Laws

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TEACHERS' LANGUAGE TO MOTIVATE EFFORT

It seems common sense to praise students and praise them often, on the grounds that praise will help them feel confident and motivate them in the school environment. But in fact, research suggests that praising students often and for anything big or small can actually have the opposite effect. It can make students less likely to take on challenges for fear of not doing well and emphasize that being smart or having aptitude is what is important, rather than the effort put into an assignment. When and how we use praise is the key to motivating students in the classroom.

Students assign ways to explain their successes or failures, and according to attribution theory, people who are successful typically credit their success or failure to internal factors that are in their control—such as effort and ability (e.g., “I really didn’t study that much for this test and that is why I didn’t do well”). Unsuccessful people tend to credit their success or failure to external factors that are out of their control—such as task difficulty and luck. (“I guess I got lucky on that test!”) In short, how students view and how teachers reinforce their successes and failures can have an impact on students’ effort in doing the work necessary to succeed in school.

Carol Dweck has researched one aspect of attribution theory. Dweck has identified two mindsets in people. A student with a fixed mindset believes that intelligence and ability are innate and come in a fixed amount. “You’ve got what you’ve got.” A student with

a growth mindset believes that you can and are always growing and learning more.

These come into play in school especially during challenging times. A fixed mindset may make external excuses (“I wasn’t born with the math genes,” “The teacher wasn’t good/didn’t like me,” etc.). A fixed mindset student feels smart when he or she does something well or fast—and not smart when he or she does not do well or is slow. On the other hand, a growth mindset views both success and failure as feedback and part of growing (“I haven’t learned enough yet to know how to do that” or “This low grade means I need to keep working at it or trying harder”). A growth mindset person feels smart when working hard at trying to figure something out.

Approaching praise for students with a growth mindset can have positive effects in the classroom. We can praise students for skills that emphasize growth—using strategies, practice, studying, and perseverance. One way to do this is to praise the student’s *effort*. (“You really did well on that test! I noticed you reread the chapter, made flashcards, and asked someone to quiz you. All that work paid off!”) The praise is then for something he or she *did* (which can change), not something he or she *is* (which is permanent). Growth mindset people tend to take more risks and challenges because making a mistake is not something to be feared.

Praising students for their intelligence or abilities can have negative effects. Praising their intelligence or abilities can attribute their success to who they are (“You are so smart.” “You’re going to be the next Bach!”). If they are smart now, what will they be when they do not do well? Fixed mindset students shy away from challenges and risks because they fear losing their identity of being smart or intelligent.

In a study titled “The Danger of Praise,” Carol Dweck and her colleagues studied hundreds of students. When given IQ test questions, most of the students did well. One group was praised for their ability: “Wow, you did really well. You are really smart at these.” The second group was praised for the effort they made: “Wow, you got nine correct. You must have worked really hard on these questions.”

The students were then given a choice to do more challenging tasks. The students who were praised for their ability were more reluctant to take on more challenging tasks. Since they thought that looking smart was important and since smart was now how they were identified, doing poorly on a harder test would threaten their perception of themselves and the perception others had of their being smart. They also said it was not fun anymore after completing the challenging problems. Their performance decreased and dipped below their starting point. Finally, when given the option to describe

Table 1 Examples of External and Internal Attribution Praise

| <i>Common Fixed Mindset or External Attribution Praise</i> | <i>Growth Mindset or Internal Attribution Praise</i> |
|---|--|
| “You finally drew a portrait the way it should be done!” | “I really like the way you divided the face into regions and added a background to your portrait.” |
| “I never thought you would be able to play that song!” | “That was your best one yet! I can tell you practiced reading each note carefully.” |
| “You’re so good at math!” | “I can see that you used many strategies to solve these problems. Good work.” |
| Before a test: “Good luck!” “This test is easy.” “You can do this. You’re all smart.” | “I know how much you have learned and so do you. I’m proud that you kept on trying during this whole unit. Continue to try your best.” |
| “You did that so fast!” “You didn’t get any wrong!” | “I’m sorry for not giving you a challenge.” “Next time I will give you something you can learn from.” |
| “You’re so organized.” | “You have your folders on one side and your books on another. That’s being organized!” |

the problems and their score, 40% lied and said they did better than they actually did.

In contrast, almost all in the group who were praised for their effort chose the harder tasks and many of them said that they were fun to do. Additionally, their performance increased. In their book *The Skillful Teacher: Building Your Teaching Skills*, Jon Saphier and Robert Gower sum up the obvious lesson here: to increase student effort when giving praise:

Specific: Praise exactly what is noteworthy about what the student did. “Jane, I’m impressed at how many active verbs you used in this piece of writing.”

Contingent: Praise for a successful performance, *not* randomly or for encouragement.

Genuine: Praise in a way that shows you mean what you say. Do *not* use praise simply to reinforce a behavior.

Congruent: Praise in a way in which your tone and body language match your words. Saying “I can see how hard you worked on these math problems” while looking away and with an unengaged tone is not congruent.

Appropriate: Praise so as to match your words and style to a particular student in a specific context.

Some examples of external and internal attribution praise are given in Table 1.

In conclusion, it is important to bear in mind that we want our students to accept failure and mistakes as feedback rather than as a judgment of who they are. We want them to take risks and challenges. To help make this happen, teachers can modify their praise for students by acknowledging students’ effort and actions. This kind of praise will help motivate students toward trying new things, accepting new challenges, and taking risks no matter what the outcome may be.

Jennifer Delorme Crowley

See also Attribution Theory; Interpersonal Attribution Theory and Classroom Management; Motivating Students; Motivation, Intrinsic and Extrinsic; Praise and Encouragement

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TEACHERS-IN-TRAINING

This entry focuses on the classroom management concerns and preparation of teachers-in-training. Teachers-in-training or preservice teachers refers to university students in teacher certification programs who are planning to teach preschool, elementary, or secondary students after graduation. In surveys of new teachers, classroom management is listed as a primary concern. Failure to manage classrooms is also listed as one of the main reasons so many teachers leave the field shortly after beginning their teaching career. Clearly, then, preparing teachers-in-training to manage classrooms is a critical and current need. This entry examines the classroom management concerns of teachers-in-training and beginning teachers, methods currently used to prepare teachers-in-training to teach in classrooms, and methods needed to alleviate concerns and better prepare teachers-in-training to manage classrooms well.

Effective instructional strategies and good classroom curriculum design are built on the foundation of effective classroom management, because learning is difficult, if not impossible, in a disorderly environment with disengaged students. Therefore, the importance of classroom management cannot be overestimated. When the classroom environment is distracting, even the most interested student can lose focus and learning can become fragmented.

Furthermore, classroom management is complex and includes a great variety of components and methods, including not just methods for reacting to unwanted behavior but also methods for actively engaging students and creating classroom communities that prevent unwanted behavior from happening in the first place. Effective classroom management demands consideration for developing positive relationships, designing interesting lessons, finding ways of including those from different cultures and those with disabilities, anything and everything for developing classrooms into positive learning communities for all. Thus, it is not surprising that teachers-in-training are concerned about their abilities and readiness for taking on the job of managing classrooms effectively.

Concerns of Teachers-in-Training

On surveys, teachers-in-training list classroom management and discipline as among their top concerns as they complete their university programs, a phenomenon that dates back to the mid-1980s when surveying teachers-in-training became common. Other concerns listed include working with students with disabilities, dealing with students' parents, and collaborating with other

teachers; however, in most surveys, classroom management is listed at or near the top.

Furthermore, the concern does not disappear once student teachers graduate and become new classroom teachers. Because some new teachers are unable to manage classrooms effectively, they often leave the field. In fact, burnout linked to problems in managing classrooms is the second most common reason, behind low salary, given for teachers leaving the profession.

The problem of failure to manage classrooms effectively is most salient for teachers working with low-income and at-risk student populations. Schools that serve these populations have higher teacher attrition rates and more first-year teachers, so the problem of managing classrooms effectively needs to be addressed before a new teacher walks into the classroom. With half of the nation's teachers leaving the profession within 5 years, finding ways to retain classroom teachers will save time and money and ensure a form of stability in schools that supports student learning and development.

Current Preparation Practices

Although it is essential to find ways to prepare teachers-in-training for the rigors of classroom management—as reflected in the National Academy of Education devoting a whole chapter to classroom management in its recent reports—teachers-in-training are not getting extensive training and experience in classroom management. So that teachers-in-training will gain the knowledge and tools for teaching content areas, foundational and methods courses in traditional teacher education programs focus on theory and content areas (such as math and reading). Then, for a semester or two, teachers-in-training teach in local schools, each paired with a mentor teacher, and each typically only gradually taking on increased responsibility for managing the classroom—leaving little or no time for the experience of managing a classroom on one's own.

This brief summary of how traditional teacher training programs are organized and run is meant to indicate how these programs fall short in preparing teachers-in-training to take on the demands of managing classrooms. Sitting in a university classroom with other well-behaved adults does not allow for observation and experience maintaining order in classrooms for children. And even though classroom management may be part of an education course's syllabus, it is very rarely a major topic or even a class by itself. Instead, classroom management may be presented as a concept and may be defined and explained verbally. But like teaching surgery to medical students, teaching classroom management requires practical application under the guidance of mentors. The topic *may* be presented in a few

classes, but rarely as an ongoing, comprehensive aspect of teaching. The realities of being alone working with 20–30 children in a limited space are far removed from the university classroom. No wonder, then, that many teachers-in-training believe that their university experience has failed to adequately prepare them for classroom management.

More recent trends in teacher licensing programs indicate that programs are now taking teachers-in-training into preschool, elementary, and secondary classrooms earlier in their university program, sometimes from the time they are admitted to the program, thus giving them up to 2 years of field experience in classrooms. This field experience ranges from passive observations of classroom teachers and their students to the student teaching experiences described above.

However beneficial this added field experience may be for preparing teachers-in-training to manage classrooms, it may not be enough. When teachers-in-training get field experience in preschool, elementary, and secondary classrooms, they usually are under the watchful eye of the mentor teacher—something that is not missed by the students being taught. Consider the following all too common example:

The student teacher, with hand out toward a student, says, “Give me the toy now.” The student holds the toy to his chest and looks around at his classmates. Another student loudly whispers, “Don’t give it to her. She’s not the teacher.”

In other words, student teaching is not the same as being the teacher in charge—and the bridge from one to the other can be quite difficult to build.

Also, and with regard to the limitations of student teaching, experience as a student teacher is often more about the delivery of content than it is about the maintenance of classroom processes. In addition, the mentor teacher’s management methods may be subtle and differ from the methods emphasized in the university program courses, making it difficult to learn classroom management from the mentor teacher.

From Jacob Kounin’s research in the late 1950s and from the subsequent research of a great many others, proactive management is now known to be far more effective than reactive management; however, what being proactive entails is not always clear to the beginner, and making it clear is difficult for the mentor. For example, knowing that trouble is brewing before it *becomes* trouble takes practice and experience. Seasoned teachers often grow eyes in the back of their heads, meaning they acquire the ability to monitor and, in Kounin’s words, be withit—this allows them to scoop up a passing note (or

cell phone being used to text) without pausing during a lesson (thus not interrupting the flow of the lesson). However, getting teachers-in-training anywhere near that level of expertise falls beyond the scope of most teacher education programs. At the very least, programs can better prepare teachers-in-training for the process of developing such abilities as monitoring, being withit, and maintaining flow. Doing so would go a long way toward helping them manage their concerns and understand what they need to do to continue to develop as teachers.

Field experience does alleviate classroom management concerns somewhat for these teachers-in-training. Having survived a student teaching assignment can boost confidence and make students in training more familiar and comfortable with the day-to-day management of classrooms. However, the confidence is apt to be limited to those schools and classrooms similar to the ones where the teacher-in-training did his or her student teaching. And since most teacher training programs have teachers-in-training in one or two different classrooms only, few teachers-in-training gain experience and the related comfort with multiple student populations. In fact, when asked about readiness to take on classroom management with diverse student populations, including students with special needs, English language learners, and students from high-poverty neighborhoods, teachers-in-training report comfort only with those populations with whom they have had experience.

Interestingly, having experience as a student teacher does change how teachers-in-training define classroom management. S. Michael Putman found that after only a university program’s courses, teachers-in-training were apt to promote and adopt methods that are student-centered, that is, methods where the focus is on helping students learn correct behaviors. After field experiences and student teaching, teachers-in-training were more apt to promote and adopt methods that were teacher-centered, where the focus is on maintaining the flow of classroom processes and where attention to learning is primary. Once again, the theories and methods taught in the traditional university course may not translate well to practice.

Concluding Remarks

Despite it being a top concern among teachers-in-training and new teachers, classroom management is not featured in current teacher preparation programs. Research strongly suggests that teachers-in-training who come out of programs that, early on, provide field experiences for student teaching with mentor teachers have greater confidence in facing the challenges of managing classrooms. The message seems to be that the benefits to offering field experience early on more than

offset the costs of taking time away from university classroom and foundational learning.

Since classroom management relies heavily on personality characteristics and a teacher's developing his or her own style, helping teachers-in-training identify their own style of management might also boost confidence and, as a result, better prepare them to make the transition to teaching on their own. Put another way, identity as a teacher requires experience acting as a teacher, and without at least a somewhat secure and positive identity, no teacher-in-training will be prepared to teach.

Another aspect of classroom management largely ignored in current training programs is that of working with parents. Students whose parents are involved in their education and who communicate with students' teachers are less likely to have behavioral problems. Few teacher preparation programs focus on the ways in which good teachers successfully work with parents. Even field experience leaves much of work with parents to the mentor teacher. Including opportunities for teachers-in-training to discuss and practice working with parents can translate into their being better prepared to take on classroom management.

In sum, a mix of traditional training in foundational theories coupled with extensive field experiences early on and with diverse populations of learners will help teachers-in-training gain the confidence and beginning skills needed to take on classrooms of their own and to manage classrooms well enough so that children learn and the new teachers feel confident and motivated about their future as teachers.

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See also Beginning Teachers and Classroom Management; Inservice Teacher Education; Teacher Education and Classroom Management; Teacher Self-Efficacy

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TEACHER–STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS

If you ask teachers what they enjoy the most about teaching, you will probably hear things like they love working with the kids, they enjoy seeing a sense of accomplishment and the smiles on students' faces when things finally click, they feel as though they are fueling students' passion to learn, and they enjoy helping students accomplish what once seemed impossible. The common theme among all of these responses is that they are centered on the students in the classroom, and, more specifically, they describe how much teachers enjoy the relationships they build with their students. This is all to the good, since positive relationships with students do more than provide an enjoyable work environment for teachers. They also allow classroom and behavior management systems to operate more smoothly; they foster the development of student social and emotional skills and create an environment conducive to academic learning. Therefore, developing and managing student–teacher relationships is crucial to the establishment of a classroom where the focus is on learning rather than on behavior management.

As with every relationship, the teacher–student relationship can be complicated and can require give-and-take from each of the parties involved. Each student will bring a variety of experiences and expectations that can impact how each relates and responds to teachers. Characteristics of each individual child, his or her family, the community, the school, and the culture interact to lay the groundwork for student–teacher relationships. In order to make the most of relationships with students, the teacher must be able to coordinate each student's needs in a manner that will inform his or her instructional methods and classroom organization. Some teachers find that adopting an authoritarian or

authoritative style of instructing and managing their classroom is the best way to build healthy student–teacher relationships. Others may instead form more individualized connections with students and use a systems approach to forming relationships with their students. As discussed in the following sections, each style and approach can lead to the development of successful student–teacher relationships when implemented in the proper context and with care.

What Makes a Relationship Successful?

Successful student–teacher relationships can be characterized as those in which the student feels cared for by the teacher and connected with the classroom activities. Building these relationships requires the teacher to create appropriate academic and behavioral expectations for students and then effectively communicate these expectations. How expectations are communicated can be the difference between positive teacher–student relationships and those relationships that leave both the teacher and the student feeling frustrated. In particular, it matters whether a teacher adopts an authoritarian or authoritative teaching style.

The concepts of authoritarian and authoritative styles come from psychologist Diana Baumrind’s studies on parenting styles. Baumrind found that parents typically adopt one of four styles when parenting: authoritative, authoritarian, permissive, and indulgent. Each of these parenting styles is classified by the level of control the parent exhibits over the child as well as the level of involvement the parent has with the child.

These parenting styles have been extended into classrooms and have been used to describe how teachers manage their classrooms with respect to control and involvement. The two most common styles used in the context of the classroom are the authoritative and the authoritarian styles. Both styles require that the teacher have a high level of control through the presentation of student expectations and boundaries. The difference lies in the level of involvement. The delivery of the expectations and the perceived motivation to comply tend to be very different in an authoritative versus an authoritarian classroom. In an authoritative classroom, a teacher provides his or her students with an explanation for why the given expectations have been put forth, with the assumption that students will comply once they understand why they are being asked to meet the expectation. In an authoritarian classroom, the students are motivated to comply with the teacher because the teacher is seen as the one in charge. Students can feel cared for and connected in both types of classrooms, but the dynamic of the student–teacher relationship is different. While adopting one of these styles may be beneficial for

some or most of the students in the classroom, many situations require that a teacher be able to use a style somewhere in between in order to make all of his or her students feel cared for and connected to the classroom.

Authoritative Classrooms

Authoritative classrooms are often described as environments where students and teachers work together to generate meaningful learning. Teachers express high expectations for their students and make a concerted effort to convey care and concern for the well-being of their students. Authoritative teachers not only clearly communicate their academic and behavioral expectations to students but also provide them with a rationale for why the expectations have been set forth.

What is unique about the authoritative approach is that high demands or levels of control are coupled with a high level of involvement with the students, resulting in a sense of independence for students. In an authoritative classroom, communication between the student and the teacher is a regular occurrence. Students listen to the teacher and are encouraged to share their own points of view. Even though the teacher is the one who sets the rules and boundaries in the classroom, such teachers tend to be seen as more flexible. Because open communication between the students and the teacher is encouraged, teachers can sometimes bend the rules a bit when appropriate.

Some students may perceive this kind of flexibility as inconsistent, and critics of this approach might argue that it makes the environment less predictable for students. Supporters of an authoritative management approach say that instead of seeing flexibility as inconsistent, students view exceptions as teachers caring. The opportunity to express themselves and to be heard by the teacher also provides students with a sense of care and importance. Students feel very connected to the classroom since their input is highly valued by the teacher.

An authoritative instructional or management style works best for teachers who value student opinions and see themselves as more of a mediator instead of the one in charge. Research has shown this type of teaching leads to academic progress for most students and allows them to develop a sense of independence and self-reliance. Some students in an authoritative classroom may get confused or frustrated by a perceived lack of consistency, so that although this style of teaching has many benefits, there truly is not a one-size-fits-all style.

Authoritarian Classrooms

Since the nineteenth century in America, the use of an authoritarian style when teaching has been discouraged.

Educators of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, especially those embracing progressive educational philosophies, were apt to see authoritarian student–teacher relationships as unbalanced and punitive toward students. Authoritarian teachers were described as having a high level of control over their students and a low level of involvement. Teachers were thought of as controlling, power-wielding dictators of the classroom, and students were often thought to be compliant out of fear.

This negative view of an authoritarian classroom reduces the student–teacher relationship to that of laborer–punisher. Teachers communicate their expectations as demands, and students are expected to comply *because I said so*. This traditional view of authoritarianism attaches a negative connotation to power or being in charge and makes it appear as though expressing care in an authoritarian way is impossible.

However, sociologist of education George Noblit and others have studied very successful authoritarian classrooms where care and connectedness were an essential part of the environment. In Noblit’s research, an authoritarian approach was a more effective way to generate academic growth and manage the classroom for some students and teachers. What Noblit found through his research in one particular classroom was that the teacher was seen as the leader, while the students still played a very active role in the classroom activities. An emphasis was placed on developing a strong sense of community and group identity within the classroom. All students were expected to participate in group activities such as reciting letter sounds as well as individual activities like answering questions aloud or solving problems at the board.

On the outside it looked as though the teacher had little involvement with the students, but the teacher, in fact, was encouraging involvement among the students themselves instead of just between her and the students. The students in this classroom looked to their teacher to guide and protect them. They were as eager to please the teacher as she was eager to recognize and reward their accomplishments. Caring from this teacher was expressed through preparedness, consistent academic and behavioral expectations, and nonverbally through eye contact and smiles. Even though the teacher held the power in the classroom, it was a warm environment where students thrived because of the care she took to make sure every student felt like a valuable part of the classroom.

The authoritarian style of instruction and communication works best for teachers who see themselves as the leader of the classroom. It is not that they fear being walked over by their students, but rather they recognize that their class needs a stable and consistent leader. When done with care, adopting an authoritarian

style can be effective for developing positive relationships with students and managing a classroom. Teachers who are able to build authoritarian relationships with their students understand that, like the conductor of an orchestra, they provide the students with structure and support, but that participation of the students, together, in concert is necessary for an environment where students feel cared for and connected and, therefore, able to experience success and build a sense of competence.

Relationships in Diverse Classrooms

Diversity in classrooms continues to increase, meaning the individual characteristics, families, community, and cultural backgrounds students bring with them to the classroom are becoming more heterogeneous, thus making building student–teacher relationships much more complicated.

Some teachers may find that adopting an authoritative teaching style and an authoritarian teaching style allows them to meet the needs of their students in a diverse classroom. For example, a teacher might initially communicate expectations in a direct, authoritarian manner to the whole class and then provide an explanation to individual students who respond to a more authoritative style as he or she circulates through the classroom to help students understand why they are being asked to perform a particular task.

If using strategies from both authoritative and authoritarian teaching styles does not work, a more comprehensive and individualized approach to building student–teacher relationships may be the systems approach as described by Robert Pianta. Central to the systems approach is the idea that the student and the teacher each bring many characteristics to the relationship that affect the interactions they have with one another and the type of relationship they ultimately form. Characteristics of the child, such as gender, race, socioeconomic status, academic achievement, behavioral issues, and relationships with parents and previous teachers, all impact relationships with teachers. In short, any single teacher–child relationship is a function of a dynamic and complex larger system.

Each component or variable in a system plays a role in how much conflict a student is likely to have with a teacher. In general terms, boys, students with behavioral problems, those with low socioeconomic backgrounds, students who have difficulty academically, and those who have had challenging relationships with their parents or previous teachers all tend to have lower-quality relationships with teachers, relationships characterized by high levels of conflict and low levels of closeness.

Teacher characteristics, such as the beliefs they hold regarding relationships and teaching, also affect

student–teacher relationships. Teachers who feel confident in their abilities and performance in the classroom tend to form more positive relationships with students as do those who hold high expectations for their students and center their instruction around their students' needs.

The systems approach also focuses on how teachers respond to their students. When a teacher responds to a student in a more negative manner, the response strains the student–teacher relationship. Students who repeatedly receive negative responses from their teachers are less likely to develop strong, positive relationships with teachers and are more likely to exhibit behavioral and academic problems. Therefore, it is important for teachers to recognize the students in their classrooms who may be at risk for forming poor teacher–student relationships and then create opportunities for positive teacher–student interactions. Over time, these positive interactions will lead to a more desirable relationship for the teacher and the student. The student is more likely to be engaged in classroom activities, less likely to exhibit behavioral problems, and more likely to show greater academic gains.

The systems approach to developing student–teacher relationships provides an alternative to authoritative and authoritarian styles. It is especially useful in diverse classrooms because it is so individualized and allows teachers to accommodate the many differences among students. Teachers adopting the systems approach recognize that students may be starting from many different places so that the specific kinds of interactions the teacher will have with a student will ultimately determine the strength of the teacher–student relationship. This approach for building relationships allows teachers the flexibility to meet individual student needs while ultimately ending up with strong, functioning relationships with each student. In this way, teachers are able to show students that they are cared for and that their participation and connectedness within the classroom can bring about more positive interactions.

Conclusion

Experiencing positive interactions with students is one of the most enjoyable and memorable aspects of teaching. Recognizing the importance of teacher–student relationships and finding ways to connect with each student so that each feels cared for and connected to the teacher and the classroom is essential to a well-managed classroom. Whether these relationships are established using an authoritative, authoritarian, or systems approach, students in classrooms where the teacher is able to build successful, positive teacher–student relationships spend more time engaged in instructional

activities and make more academic progress. Good teacher–student relationships also allow students to continue to develop socially and emotionally in a warm and caring environment. Creating individual relationships with students may seem challenging, particularly in a diverse classroom, but if successfully done, it is well worth the effort for both the students and the teacher.

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See also Assessment of Teacher–Student Relationships; Authority and Classrooms; Ethics, Power, and Classroom Management; History of Classroom Management; Interpersonal Systems and Problem Behavior; Reframing; Relationship-Based Approaches to Classroom Management; Teacher–Student Relationships and Behaviorally At-Risk Students; Teaching as Researching; Trust, Building; Urban Schools; Warm Demanders

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TEACHER–STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS AND BEHAVIORALLY AT-RISK STUDENTS

While teacher–student relationships are important for all students and imperative for effective behavior management, high-quality positive teacher–student relationships are especially important for students with chronically elevated levels of problem behaviors. This is true for students with predominantly internalizing behaviors (e.g., anxiety, depression, shyness) as well as for those with predominantly externalizing behaviors (e.g., aggression, disruption, defiance).

For these students, the presence of one caring adult is potentially the most powerful protective factor. Furthermore, for at-risk students, the one caring person need not be from their immediate family. That person can be a teacher or some person outside the school and in the community. This entry discusses broad strategies for improving teacher–student relationships for

behaviorally at-risk students and provides an example of a relationship-building intervention that targets improving relationships with students who have pervasive behavior problems.

Students who exhibit recurring high levels of problem behavior are at a significantly higher risk of experiencing academic, emotional, and social adjustment difficulties. Their developmental problems commonly manifest themselves in early childhood and have enduring negative effects well into adulthood. Furthermore, their behavior problems constitute a major concern for teachers and other professionals, since, if left without needed supports, their ongoing behavior problems can lead to their needing special education services and to their developing an emotional and behavioral disorder.

The evidence suggests that enhancing teacher–student relationships among students with pervasive behavior problems may produce rapid behavioral changes that obviate the need for special education services and prevent the development of a diagnosed disorder. In addition, for at-risk students, developing a good teacher–student relationship can also promote long-term normative behavioral, emotional, and social development. For this to happen, a teacher may need to make a commitment to developing a relationship for a prolonged period of time. For example, at-risk youth may need to have a stable, consistent relationship with a teacher for a year or more in order to experience protective benefits.

Problem behaviors strain the teacher–student relationship, exacerbating the considerable risks that these at-risk students already face. It is no wonder, then, that students with ongoing behavioral problems typically experience fewer positive teacher–student interactions than those not at risk. Moreover, their interactions with teachers are more likely to be around the coercive behavior management strategies that teachers often rely on. These coercive management strategies are, then, part of a vicious cycle (student misbehavior begets coercive management strategies begets cold teacher–student relationships begets student misbehavior) that inhibits teachers’ capacity to provide warm, positive learning environments for these at-risk students. Fortunately, teachers have considerable influence over the quality of their relationships with students, and so it is within teachers’ control to avoid coercive management strategies and instead use positive strategies that promote high-quality relationships with behaviorally at-risk students.

Teacher–student relationships are widely viewed as being characterized by closeness and conflict. High-quality relationships are those with high levels of closeness and low levels of conflict. Alternatively, low-quality relationships are those with low levels of closeness and high levels of conflict.

Broad Strategies for Building Positive Teacher–Student Relationships

There aren’t many scientifically validated teacher strategies for building high-quality relationships with at-risk students with problem behaviors. However, there are broad strategies that have been found to be efficacious in building relationships in various therapeutic interpersonal dyads with at-risk youth. What follows is a brief discussion of three in particular: *attunement*, *managing reactions to problem behaviors*, and *positive teacher–family relationships*.

Attunement

Teachers’ attunement to their students can foster closeness with at-risk students. Attunement refers to a connection that goes beyond empathy and promotes exploration, insight, and authenticity in a relationship. More specifically, attunement refers to building a positive relationship by identifying and showing understanding (verbally and nonverbally) of student needs, interests, and concerns. High teacher attunement to students is central to building high-quality relationships, with high attunement being characterized by consistently and creatively attending to verbal *and* nonverbal cues from students regarding their feelings, concerns, and preferences. Highly attuned teachers observe students with the intention of identifying concrete ways to connect and engage with the students. Through observing, teachers gain insight about students’ interests without students having to explicitly verbalize their interests.

High attunement requires one to acknowledge differences between oneself and a target student while showing respect for differences. It also requires acknowledging one’s assumptions or biases held about a student in order to make changes when changes in assumptions and biases are needed—as might occur when it is possible to positively reframe a student’s behavior. Attunement to the student with problem behaviors can enhance the relationship by directing it toward the student’s preferences, concerns, and needs, rather than imposing teacher interests on the relationship.

Managing Reactions to Problem Behaviors

A teacher’s adeptness at managing reactions, especially negative emotional reactions, to problem behaviors can prevent undermining the teacher–student relationship and decrease conflict. Students who have pervasive problem behaviors are skillful at soliciting negative teacher reactions, and it is common for a teacher to be

hooked by a student's behavior and respond in an emotionally bound manner. Emotions such as anger, exasperation, and irritation are natural reactions to problem behaviors because such behaviors are barriers to teaching efficiently and effectively.

Among teachers, problem behaviors are everyday barriers to professional effectiveness. In fact, students can be particularly adept at pushing teachers' buttons to fluster, frustrate, or anger them. When teachers do not manage their negative emotional responses, their ability to objectively reflect on the problem, identify the cause, generate possible responses, and select an optimal strategy is impaired. Management of personal ego and issues requires examination of personal beliefs and biases about teacher–student power structures, as well as personal vulnerabilities related to the teaching profession.

Positive Teacher–Family Relationships

Not only can teachers directly promote high-quality relationships with students who have extreme problem behaviors, they can also enhance teacher–student relationships indirectly by creating high-quality relationships with the students' families. According to an ecological perspective of development, a positive relationship in one context of an individual's life—home life—can positively influence relationships in another context—school life.

In regard to the lives of children and youth with problem behaviors, teacher–family contact regularly focuses on negative features of the student's school experience. This promotes poor teacher–family relationships. Alternatively, communicating positive affirmations about the student to the family can enhance the teacher–family relationship, which, in turn, can have spillover effects that indirectly improve the teacher–student relationship.

An Intervention for Enhancing Teacher–Student Relationships

The following is an example of an intervention designed to promote closeness and discourage conflict in relationships between teachers and at-risk students who display elevated problem behaviors. Specifically, this intervention combines (1) one-on-one teacher–student interaction, (2) teacher-provided behavior-specific praise, and (3) positive teacher-initiated family–teacher communication. These components are designed to provide teachers with ongoing activities during which a teacher can mindfully attune to the student and improve teacher–family communication.

One-on-One Weekly Meetings

The teacher and the identified student meet weekly for 10 minutes on an ongoing basis to complete a goal-setting activity. This activity consists of identifying a weekly goal, identifying barriers to achieving the goal, and strategizing ways to overcome the barriers. Teaching goal setting and attainment of a weekly goal is a distal secondary objective of this activity, the primary objective of these weekly meetings being to provide opportunity for teacher attunement to the student.

Attunement is increased through the student selecting personal goals and the ensuing conversation. It is important to foster a warm and caring teacher–student bond by insisting that the activity be student-centered. Since the objective is to increase teacher attunement to the student, the student should be at liberty to select any goal as long as it is school-appropriate. As such, the goal may be devoid of academic and behavioral foci.

Praise

This component is comprised of the teacher developing a repertoire of praise statements from which he or she can draw when interacting with the targeted student during the one-on-one activity. The purpose of this is two-pronged. First, praise provides the student with positive statements and conveys teacher acceptance. Second, this process activates a shift of teacher attention from the negative problem behaviors of the student to positive attributes, qualities, and behaviors of the student.

To create praise statements each week, the teacher is asked to identify positive qualities the student possesses. The teacher then identifies school-based behaviors and integral processes that he or she has seen the student perform as evidence of these qualities. Finally, the teacher creates and records specific praise statements for each identified quality and behavior. These praise statements are then delivered during the weekly one-on-one activity, as well as during any informal interactions.

Teacher–Family Communication

This component consists of systematic weekly positive communication initiated by the teacher. The primary objective is to facilitate a trusting and respectful relationship between the teacher and the family. To promote this, teachers are advised to use formal titles, use a respectful and polite tone (unless instructed otherwise), use everyday language, avoid educational jargon or acronyms, and listen to parents. The content of these weekly phone calls is to communicate good news about the student to the family.

To emphasize the student's strengths, the teacher can consult the praise statements created for the week to identify positive behaviors the child exhibited during the week. It is particularly important that the teacher not instigate conversation that addresses student problems in school, whether academic or behavioral.

John Robert Lind

See also Milieu Management for Students With Emotional and Behavioral Special Needs; Mindfulness Practices for Teachers; Self-Regulation and Sensory-Affective Co-Regulation; Teacher-Student Relationships; Warm Demanders; Warmth and Classroom Management

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not everyone's ideas are considered equal. In fact, on the face of it, not everyone's ideas *are* equal—some children have more information and experiences to draw on, some understand more quickly, and some are more serious and careful when sharing ideas. As a result, some children's ideas get listened to more closely and valued more, while other children's ideas may be ignored or dismissed. The teaching-as-researching approach is meant to question these evaluations and to support all children in serious classroom participation.

The central motivating belief of teachers using this approach is that children are always making sense. This belief derives from work done mostly in the early 1980s and 1990s in educational anthropology and in linguistics, both of which explored the value and power of ways of talking and learning that varied from those generally expected in schools. Books such as *Ways With Words*, by Shirley Brice Heath, uncovered the intellectual power and competence of a whole range of children who were not doing well academically. This book and others started conversations on how teachers can better understand and appreciate the different sense-making practices children bring to school. These conversations led to what is now referred to as the teaching-as-researching approach.

Teachers engaged in the practice of teaching as researching believe that teachers' unquestioned assumptions about what thinking sounds and looks like are what often stand in the way of understanding each child's ideas and thinking. Teaching as researching is, then, organized around the idea that one crucial aspect of what a teacher does is continual inquiry into children's ideas, no matter how off-topic, silly, or otherwise inadequate those ideas may at first seem.

Exploring Puzzling Moments

The initial task of this particular form of teacher inquiry is to notice and then explore what are named puzzling moments. Puzzling moments are those moments that are puzzling to the teacher, moments when children do not give expected responses, when their responses are felt to be wrong or going their own way or making too broad connections, when children remain oddly silent or make jokes, or perhaps when they take more initiative than expected by asking questions or by adopting unexpected perspectives on a topic, by acting something out.

Exploring puzzling moments requires some means to record what happened in the classroom in order to allow for later reflection. These can include tape recordings, transcriptions, and note-taking, or using children's work itself. Teachers exploring puzzling moments look deeply into the record they have and ask the question, "What is going on here?" and then, more specifically,

TEACHING AS RESEARCHING

Teacher research as a movement encompasses many different kinds of questions, many approaches to inquiry; they are all, however, centered on teachers' own questions and concerns about their own teaching. The practice described here, named teaching as researching, is a particular branch of the larger movement of teacher-directed inquiry. It has as its central focus investigating, as a regular part of teaching, the ideas and strengths of struggling students.

The teaching-as-researching approach is meant to contribute to the efforts to make classrooms more democratic. In truly democratic classrooms, everyone's ideas would count, and every student would feel that his or her ideas were taken seriously. But even in the best schools, where every student feels valued and respected,

“What does this child or these children mean?” “What is the intellectual content of what they are saying?” and “How does what they are saying connect with the topic at hand?” When the child’s response appears to be wrong, the question remains, *What is* he or she thinking, rather than what does he or she not know. The central goal is to see and experience the child’s idea and to work without making limiting assumptions and interpretations about its quality or meaning.

The following short example written by a teacher illustrates this process.

Field Note From Audio Recording

We have placed cups of water all over the classroom, over the heat, in cold corners near the windows, in the refrigerator, and so on. The children have suggested that the water will evaporate, and we are exploring where it will evaporate the fastest. As we begin to compare the cups of water to see how much is gone, the children are coming to the conclusion that the heat makes it disappear the fastest, something they had more or less expected.

Daniel, in the midst of this growing consensus, asks hesitantly, “But [as he picks up a cup and looks at the bottom] it can’t go out the bottom.”

I ask the children to answer him, and they quickly tell him that the water goes up, not out the bottom, when it evaporates. The discussion continues.

In this case, in listening to the audio recording, the teacher hears Daniel’s comment again, this time while she is sitting quietly and not managing 22 children. If she did not have the tape to listen to, she believes she would hardly have remembered Daniel’s comment. Now, as she listens to the tape, she realizes that the class had answered Daniel’s question without really answering it. In the moment, in the midst of conversation, Daniel’s question had led others to think Daniel did not get it, did not understand what evaporation means. To others, including the teacher, it seemed that Daniel was missing information, and that others should provide him with enough so they could carry on with the original question of where evaporation happens fastest. However, later and with the aid of the recording, the teacher realized that Daniel’s question was a thoughtful question, and that probably no one in the conversation really knew the answer to his question. What does it mean that when evaporating water goes up? How does this happen? After all, most things do not go up.

The teacher returned to Daniel’s question and explored it over a significant period of time—as part of a study the class was doing on the water cycle. The third graders did not fully comprehend the way energy and heat lead to evaporation, but thanks to Daniel’s question, they gained familiarity with the conventional explanation and developed curiosity about something they previously had just accepted as true and without needing explanation. Meditating on Daniel’s puzzling question reversed the original assessment of Daniel as not knowing and made his question the centerpiece of a fruitful inquiry.

Research Claims

Teaching as researching makes claims in three areas of educational theory:

1. Children’s talk
2. Teaching learning
3. The view of deficits and struggling students

Children’s Talk

Teaching as researching places a premium on children’s initiatives in talk. In reviewing children’s talk, puzzling moments are more likely to appear when discussion includes a wide range of kinds of talk: jokes, stories about things from home, hesitations, restatements of ideas or facts that seem perfectly obvious and long understood, arguments, strange comparisons or connections. Using a teaching-as-researching approach, talk that might be considered outside talk, less formal playground talk, comes inside and becomes an accepted part of intellectual discussion. When this is done, more children participate thoughtfully. The task for the teacher is, therefore, to see the thinking in less school-like ways of talking.

Teachers’ Own Learning

Teaching as researching is most successfully carried out by groups of teachers. In a group, it is easier to gain perspective on one’s own assumptions because other participants may take different approaches. As a group becomes comfortable, exploring the ideas of children regularly leads participants to relearn or learn in new ways ideas or facts they felt they already understood.

Intellectual Engagement of Children and the View of Struggling Students

Children who struggle in school often have the highest standard of belief. Like Daniel, they are used to

knowing things well, not accepting them without experience. Their questions and comments often lead all of us to a deeper explanation and to a recognition of what we know and what we only think we know.

Methods for Exploring Children's Sense Making

The following methods were developed as ways to explore children's sense making within this teacher research tradition.

Value the Puzzling Moment

Value the puzzling moment and the ideas of the child whose ideas puzzle. Take seriously the wrong answer, the naïve idea, and the weird connection. Explore these ideas for the intellectual content that is there. Doing so will complicate one's own understanding and deepen respect for the child and his or her thinking.

Stop Time for Reflecting

Stop time by recording or writing notes or gathering artifacts. Explore these later to support further reflection on the child's words or on the child's work. First impressions and on-the-spot, immediate evaluations and understandings of a child's work or words are often inadequate, particularly in the case of children who struggle.

Expand the Talk

This is not just a matter of letting children talk more than the teacher; there are times when a teacher needs to hold forth. Expanding children's talking means expanding the range of kinds of talk so as to include more jokes, stories, metaphors, hesitations, false starts, disagreements, and even occasionally lies. All provide a gold mine of ideas. Expanding talking supports wider participation among children.

Cynthia Ballenger

See also Assessment of Students; Cultural Diversity; Interpersonal Systems and Problem Behavior; Reframing

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TEACHING PHILOSOPHIES AND APPROACHES

An educator's teaching philosophy is made up of attitudes, perceptions, beliefs, and behaviors that reflect what she or he thinks are the most fundamental and perennial educational questions and what the teacher believes are the answers to those questions. That is, an educator's teaching philosophy reveals and influences what she or he thinks with regard to such key pedagogical questions, such as, What is the purpose of schooling? Who should be taught? What should students learn? How should students learn it? What instructional activities are most effective? How will learning be assessed? How will students be managed, disciplined, and rewarded?

In the nation's history, multiple and competing educational philosophies have been championed and practiced to varying degrees. However, there are two overarching philosophical orientations or paradigms for teaching that stand in contrast to one another: *essentialism-traditionalism*, intended to transmit classical knowledge and to prepare individuals to survive in an uncertain world, and *individualist-pragmatist*, aimed to help individuals develop their personal interests and skills in order to live a fulfilled life. These two, along with other approaches, are the focus of this entry.

Traditionalist and Progressive Paradigms

Philosophical orientations to teaching have most often been identified as falling into either the traditionalist or progressive paradigms—with approaches to teaching falling under one or the other. Jonas Soltis and Gary Fenstermacher highlight three approaches to teaching: the executive approach, the therapist approach, and the liberationist approach. The executive approach is a reflection of the traditionalist paradigm whereby the teacher acts as a skillful manager of student learning and seeks to bring about high levels of academic achievement.

The therapist approach is seen in teachers acting as caring individuals who help students reach their own personal potential, while the liberationist approach is seen in teachers working to emancipate their students' minds.

The therapist and the liberationist approaches to teaching align with the progressivist philosophical tradition or paradigm. However, to view a teacher's philosophy as falling into either the traditional or progressive camp can be limiting and misleading, as one's philosophy of education is multidimensional and will likely embrace characteristics of many traditions. For example, teachers may hold traditional views about what should be taught, but then practice individualist-pragmatist-oriented instruction.

Teaching Philosophy and the Purpose of Schooling

An individual's teaching philosophy encompasses beliefs about the purpose of schooling. Shared beliefs about the purpose of schooling are elusive; there are multiple competing purposes attributed to schooling in the United States. According to PDK/Gallup, which for 45 years has annually polled the U.S. public about their educational beliefs, seven possible purposes of schooling are widely recognized: (1) to prepare responsible citizens, (2) to ensure economic self-sufficiency, (3) to secure a basic level of quality among schools, (4) to promote cultural unity, (5) to improve social conditions, (6) to enrich the lives of people, and (7) to dispel inequities between schools and between groups. Evidence suggests that each possible philosophical orientation toward teaching and learning has support from a substantial segment of society.

Philosophical Orientations and Teaching Philosophies

There are many significant philosophical orientations to which educators may subscribe and which influence teaching philosophies. Forrest Parkay and Beverly Hardcastle-Stanford identify the most predominant philosophical orientations to teaching as (1) perennialism, (2) essentialism, (3) progressivism, (4) existentialism, and (5) reconstructionism. These five philosophical orientations to teaching and learning fall across a continuum that moves from a teacher-centered classroom that emphasizes the importance of the subject matter to a student-centered classroom that emphasizes the needs of the individual and/or society. Each of the five philosophical orientations can be characterized in a particular way as embodying distinct attitudes, beliefs, and practices in relation to teaching and learning. At one

point or another since the mid-nineteenth century, principles from each of these five traditions have been used to define perceived educational shortcomings. There are significant and important distinctions between the orientations, distinctions that can significantly influence the nature of one's teaching.

Perennialism

Perennialists view human nature and the natural world as constant and unchanging. Because these perennial ideas are believed to have the greatest potential to solve the problems of any economic, social, or political context, students must learn these ideas and acquire knowledge of the greatest importance. The roots of perennialism began with Plato, Aristotle, and Thomas Aquinas, with the belief that education should be the same for everyone and that humans are rational beings. Teachers, perennialists assert, must cultivate the intellectual capacity of students through encounters with significant works. Robert Maynard Hutchins, former president of the University of Chicago, and noted educational philosopher Mortimer Adler developed an undergraduate curriculum based on the study of the Great Books of the Western World. In the 1980s, Adler's seminal reform plan, the Paideia Proposal, renewed calls for a rigorous curriculum based on the Great Books.

Perennialism emphasizes teachers as the focal point of the classroom, who have a responsibility to ensure that students learn subject matter intended to cultivate the intellect. Teachers who hold a perennialist view of education may focus their curriculum and instruction on universal knowledge and subject matter, and de-emphasize the personal interests of children.

Essentialism

Those who adhere to a philosophy characterized as essentialist assert that there is an essential body of academic knowledge that teachers are obligated to convey to their students in a systematic fashion. Essentialism differs from perennialism in that it stresses core knowledge and skills as opposed to a set of eternal truths. William C. Bagley founded the Essentialistic Education Society while he was a professor of education at Columbia University's Teachers College. He contended that progressive instructional approaches had undermined the moral practices and intellectual abilities of young people.

Essentialists believe that specific academic subjects are the indispensable foundation of a public education. The Common Core State Standards Initiative, a standardized curriculum that has been adopted by the majority of U.S. states, reflects a recent resurgence in

essentialistic thinking in schools. Essentialists tend to believe that children need to be vigorously taught discipline, hard work, and respect for authority in order to become productive and active members of society. With an emphasis on a systematic sequence of facts and knowledge, essentialism tends to support the current high-stakes educational reform movement whereby all students experience a predetermined curriculum and demonstrate mastery of content-specific standards.

Progressivism

At the center of the philosophical continuum is progressivism. Progressivists assert that schooling should focus on a child's interests and needs rather than on a teacher's agenda or a purported set of truths or standardized knowledge. Quintessential progressivist John Dewey believed that curriculum content should derive from the student's personal interests and developmental needs.

Progressivists do not believe human nature or the natural world to be constant; therefore, the goal of schooling is to teach students to think rationally, solve problems, and construct their own knowledge in order to be able to make intelligent decisions in an uncertain future. In addition, progressivists stress that learning only takes place when students are actively engaged in the learning process and are supported by teachers who act as facilitators.

In a progressivist classroom, teachers and students tend to be equally responsible for learning; teachers construct active learning environments wherein students engage in problem-solving activities that are personally relevant. The Coalition for Essential Schools (CES), founded by Ted Sizer of Brown University in 1984, is an example of a network of organizations engaged in restructuring schools to reflect progressive principles. In his 5-year study of high schools, Sizer concluded that schools provide students with little opportunity to think deeply about important issues or to engage in personally meaningful learning activities. The CES attempts to remedy this problem with progressivist restructuring strategies.

Existentialism

Existentialism emerged from nineteenth-century Europe and is rooted in the belief that existence precedes essence; therefore, free will and individualism are central to learning. Existentialism emphasizes the subjectivity of human experiences and rejects the existence of a perennial, essential, or rational body of knowledge. Maxine Greene is a distinguished educational theorist whose work is largely grounded in existentialism. A

curriculum rooted in existentialism creates a flexible and responsive classroom environment where students are encouraged to explore the meaning of their lives. The existentialist teacher respects and exalts individuality and attempts to guide his or her students to release their creativity. An existentialist philosophical orientation focuses almost exclusively on the student and the development of self. Existentially oriented teachers and schools often employ strategies that honor the individuality, diversity, and uniqueness of the student body; they often base student assessments on portfolios, demonstrations, and narratives of student learning with input from multiple people who know the student best.

Reconstructionism

A reconstructionist philosophy of education places the needs of the citizenry at the center of a curriculum and aims to change society and reconstruct the social order for the better. Reconstructionists assert that schooling, teaching, and learning must be about the business of making the world a better place. Theodore Brameld, considered to be the architect of social reconstructionism, believed that society has the potential to instantaneously destroy itself or to create a global civilization of abundance and health. Therefore, reconstructionists assert that schools must work to recreate society for the better. Much like progressivism, reconstructionism emphasizes the importance of integrating student and community experiences.

Students in a classroom grounded in social reconstructionism learn how to address urgent world and societal issues such as war, terrorism, economic inequality, and environmentalism. According to social reconstructionists, the mission of education is to improve society to such an extent that a worldwide democracy is the most likely outcome. Reconstructionists work to counter what Brazilian educator Paulo Freire described as the pedagogy of the oppressed and a culture of silence. Freire's theory is that every human being, regardless of his or her economic status and academic aptitude, is capable of taking a critical look at his or her personal and social situation through dialogical encounters with others. Reconstructionist teachers want to equip students with the tools necessary to see themselves as persons of value and dignity who are capable of transforming the world.

Conclusion

The categorization of five philosophical orientations to teaching provides a useful way to accurately understand attitudes and beliefs about education and how such beliefs play out in individual classrooms with regard to

instruction and classroom management. However, separate philosophical traditions overlap in meaningful ways and are not mutually exclusive. Certainly there are elements of perennialism, essentialism, progressivism, existentialism, and reconstructionism that extend into other traditions; they are not restrictive paradigms. An essentialist teacher could emphasize traditional subject matter and standardized academic learning objectives while facilitating existentialist instructional and classroom management practices such as lots of student choice, input, and individualization. Similarly, a reconstructionist could give students the opportunity to engage in learning activities designed to change their communities for the better while employing classroom management practices that hold the teacher at the center of the learning environment.

Despite the fact that the representation of competing educational philosophies is much more complex than a continuum of five traditions might imply, it is important that educators have some means for understanding the nuances and dimensions of their own and others' perceptions about core educational questions. Attitudes and beliefs about teaching and learning may be a better indicator of one's ability to teach than how one scores on a certification test or fares in a graduate program.

A teacher's educational philosophy is no ethereal matter. One's philosophy is substantive; it can guide what an individual will teach and how an individual will manage a classroom and interact with students. For that reason, it is common practice for educational leaders, charged with licensing and/or hiring teachers, to assess and strongly consider teaching philosophy as part of the process.

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See also Approaches to Classroom Management: Types; History of Classroom Management; Progressive Education

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TECHNOLOGY FOR STRUGGLING READERS

The Common Core State Standards for preparing students for college and career call for effective technology integration in the classroom. Applying these standards, students are expected to critically read books and print texts, as well as eBooks, digital texts, and multimodal content on the Web. Students are also expected to conduct research on the Internet to answer questions and solve problems, and to compose and communicate with a range of tools, media, and Internet resources. However, for struggling readers, technology is important both as a new form of digital literacy and as a means to support students' achievement of print-based literacy.

Teachers' effective technology integration draws on their technology, pedagogy, and content knowledge. For example, one teacher may draw on her content knowledge of the Great Depression and the Library of Congress's online resources to integrate primary source photos of the Dust Bowl into her social studies unit. Another teacher may draw on his pedagogical knowledge of writing and blogging tools to teach students how to post comments in an online book club. And a third may integrate technology, pedagogy, and content knowledge in an activity where students analyze an interactive infographic about sugar consumption in the United States and produce a public service message that will be podcasted to the community.

There are three key areas to target for struggling readers: (1) use of enhanced e-text, eBooks, and digital reading tools to develop reading comprehension, vocabulary, and engagement; (2) use of the Internet to develop inquiry and research skills; and (3) use of multimedia tools and online publication to develop composition and communication skills. Across these areas is an emphasis on teaching struggling readers how to use technology to their best advantage as they read, write, learn, and communicate with varied forms of text and media. The following sections present some guiding principles and recommendations for using technology to support struggling readers.

Developing a Technology Integration Plan That Supports Differentiation

In developing a flexible, differentiated plan for using technology to support struggling readers, consider the range of student needs and interests and the available technology resources. There are digital tools that are especially important to struggling readers, and that can also be helpful to all students on occasion.

A top priority for readers who have difficulties with word recognition or fluency is to use a text-to-speech (TTS) tool to read aloud digital text, including text on the Internet. This allows students to engage with age- and grade-appropriate text. Most current operating systems and some programs have a free TTS tool, in addition to commercial and free TTS tools that can be downloaded from the Internet and customized.

Students also benefit from online dictionary and thesaurus tools that provide just-in-time vocabulary help while reading. In addition to free downloadable tools, some websites and digital texts offer hyperlinked glossaries. Struggling readers will benefit from explicit instruction in how to use TTS and word reference tools strategically, along with periodic reflection on how they are using these tools to become better readers.

Another prime area for differentiation is in relation to the use of eBooks and book apps. These often include audio narration, multimedia glossaries, multimodal content, and embedded games or learning activities. In addition to including eBooks as an option during independent reading time, make arrangements for struggling readers (and others) to have access to eBooks for reading at home. Some teachers set up a backpack that students can check out to take home with an eReader or tablet, a card with directions for how to power up and access the book, and some topics for discussion with family members. Increasingly, public and school libraries allow students to download eBooks, expanding the titles available. Expanding students' reading options with eBooks and book apps can increase their volume of reading and develop reading interests.

Providing Students Flexible and Equitable Access to Technology

Teachers should develop systems for making sure that all students have access to technology, while being strategic about providing struggling readers with sufficient access so that it makes a real difference for them. In addition to whole-class work in a lab or with a laptop cart setup, there are group work, partner work, and individual work options. Some teachers make a wall chart to show how students rotate through different centers and activities; others provide a list at each station. For struggling readers, consult with parents to find

out what technology is available at home and make a plan with the parent and the child for how to use it to support literacy goals (this includes mobile phones, gaming devices, tablets, and computers). If your school has a BYOT (bring your own technology) policy, take full advantage of it to maximize struggling readers' learning at school.

Excellent resources for creating a school-based plan for technology integration and designing technology-enhanced instruction to achieve the Common Core are available on the Power Up! What Works website of the Center for Technology Implementation.

Build a Digital Learning Community in Your Classroom

From the beginning, it is important to let students know that you and they will be working together to help one another learn how to read, write, and communicate with technology and media. Teach mini-lessons about specific tools and cool apps for reading, writing, and researching on the Internet. Include digital learning workshop meetings where students are the experts, sharing technology tools and tips. Encourage students to create a DIY (do-it-yourself) video library. Bloopers or pitfall alerts are also a fun way to share experiences and develop skills.

Regardless of the digital format, information can be posted to a class wiki or blog so that students can get help on demand. It is also useful to have physical representations in the classroom, such as a bulletin board for students to post comments and examples. Students may keep a log of skills they are developing and projects completed; some teachers develop a badge structure to recognize students' technical and digital literacy accomplishments.

In addition to structured community share sessions and collections of tips and strategies, it is important to develop strategies with your students for how they should get help while they are working. Some teachers provide red and green cups for students to display on their computers or desks (green means things are fine; red means help is needed). Individual students can be designated as tech experts who are available to help in their area(s) of expertise.

Finally, a digital learning community has logistical routines and procedures for setting up and closing down. A few students may be designated to hand out and collect equipment, or each student may pick up and return his or her own equipment. It usually works best to assign students to computers and devices, so that they feel responsible for their equipment and can access customized files on the desktop. For example, each student can have a plastic bag with headphones and a card listing the various devices he or she is assigned, with device numbers, user names, and passwords. *All* students

should know how to turn on the computer or mobile device, log on, access their work, save their work, shut down, and charge the equipment. These directions should be clearly viewable on a wall, in addition to being posted online.

Conclusion

Technology has a powerful role to play in developing struggling readers' print and digital literacies. Making it happen in the classroom is complex, and teachers develop expertise over time with the support of technical assistance and professional development.

To make a difference for struggling readers, it is important to develop a flexible and customized plan for using a broad range of digital tools and resources to support students' reading and composing in individual and group settings, and in school and at home. Students themselves will need to be part of this process so that they are learning how to become more strategic in their use of technology and media to accomplish important literacy goals. Technology and media are developing at a rapid pace; making sure that struggling readers benefit from these advances should be an instructional priority.

Bridget Dalton

See also Assistive Technology; Computer-Assisted Instruction; Learning Disabilities

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students ready to go beyond the objective. If the objective has been well matched to the needs of the students, the students who are just ready comprise the majority. However, for the other two groups, differentiation is necessary for ideal management of instruction. One differentiation strategy, tiering assignments, entails addressing the same objective with all students, but altering some aspect of the activities to match the readiness needs of each group. Tiered assignments are constructed using the following steps:

Step 1: Identify the objective.

Step 2: Decide which group's needs are met with existing activities.

Step 3: Differentiate the existing activities by using at least 1 of the 10 criteria described below.

Step 4: Decide how the tiers will be managed.

Step 5: Determine which students need which tier at this time for this objective.

Step 6: Assess for mastery of the objective with all three levels of activities.

Step 3 involves designing the other two tiers. In order to ensure equity, all students should be challenged at their individual levels and required to invest the same amount of time in their learning. There are 10 different criteria by which assignments can be tiered.

1. *Skill level*: One of the most frequently used criteria for tiering, skill level, acknowledges that students are at different levels of mastery. Generally speaking, those students not yet ready might approach the objective in the same manner as students a grade level or two below their present grade, and students ready to go beyond might engage in an activity representative of the skills at advanced grade levels.

2. *Vocabulary level*: Although this criterion is most frequently used in English language arts where different levels of reading vocabulary are matched with student readiness, it could also entail introducing more sophisticated vocabulary in any discipline earlier to students ready to go beyond. For example, in a kindergarten classroom where students are learning the basic shapes, some students may be ready to learn about equilateral, isosceles, and scalene triangles. In an English classroom at the high school level, vocabulary related to college-level literary analysis might be introduced. For students not yet ready, a review of grade-level vocabulary definitions might be provided before a reading in the discipline.

3. *Complexity level*: Complexity is determined by the number of interrelated parts or aspects within a

TIERED ASSIGNMENTS

In every classroom and for most lessons, three levels of readiness exist: students not yet ready to master the objective being addressed, students just ready, and

concept or the presentation of a concept. Complexity can be achieved in a multitude of ways. There may be fewer rules or stipulations for students not yet ready and more for students ready to go beyond. For example, in a primary classroom, students struggling with the concept of beginning sounds might be asked to create a string of words in which each word begins with the last letter of the previous word. Students needing slightly more of a challenge might be told the next word has to begin with the previous ending and relate to the previous word. Students advanced in that concept might add a third rule, that each word must have three or more syllables. Complexity can also be achieved by tying together multiple disciplines, multiple pieces of literature, multiple historical events, or multiple mathematical operations.

4. *Thinking level:* Given that children learn at different rates, one accommodation for these differences is to have some students acquiring knowledge while others are analyzing or evaluating that same knowledge. Thus, a taxonomy, such as Benjamin Bloom's, allows everyone to explore the same objectives but at different levels of thinking simultaneously, rather than involving the entire class in activities structured from the bottom of the taxonomy upward at the pace of the slowest learner.

5. *Interest level:* Activities and assignments may be tiered on the basis of student interests. Students at differing readiness levels may share similar interests and thus be working together in the same group. The interest-based activities should provide enough challenge to engage all learners. For example, in a mathematics class, students might be building playground equipment, designing houses, creating patterns for original fashions, or constructing an abstract piece of art, all using the skills from a geometry objective.

6. *Abstractness level:* Given that children differ in their developmental levels from concreteness to abstractness, in any given classroom those differences are apparent. Therefore, this range can be reflected in tiered assignments designed from one objective. In a mathematics class, students in one group might be working with manipulatives, while other students are expressing the same concept as an equation. Abstractness can be addressed through abstract concepts designed for students with more developed abstract reasoning. These concepts can create complex interdisciplinary connections and include themes such as interdependence, change, power, adaptation, and systems. In an English language arts class, students might be writing about how they relate to a character, which character they think would make the best principal, or which character

creates the greatest perception of power, all from the same literature.

7. *Sophistication of research level:* Both research materials and methods can be tiered to address differing needs. Some students might be reading and summarizing an encyclopedia article while others are analyzing a research journal article. Some may be interpreting existing data, while others are constructing instruments and analyzing data collection techniques.

8. *Openness of process or product level:* Some students need very clear directions and expectations for the process they are to use and/or the product they are to develop. However, others are ready to determine how they will go about demonstrating mastery or solving a complex problem. These differing needs can be addressed by allowing for tiers of scaffolded choices of increasing independence and openness.

9. *Perspective and real-life role level:* To provide relevance for objectives, real-life applications should be discussed with all students. All students should examine how multiple roles create multiple perspectives. For example, while carpenters and engineers are both concerned with measurement, their uses of measurement differ greatly. Students should be engaged in examining content from perspectives that are within their reach but also challenging. For example, while some students might examine the Bill of Rights from the perspective of a police officer or school teacher, other students could be given the perspective of a Buddhist priest or leader of a so-called Third World country.

10. *Real-life product level:* Applications of learning should reflect real life as much as possible. However, those reflections may take differing forms based on the readiness of students. Primary students involved in studying fractions might apply their knowledge to sharing a pizza, while other students apply fractions to analyzing musical notation and the fractional units represented within rhythmic patterns.

Tiered assignments can be managed in a multitude of ways. Teachers might decide to tier group discussions or activities. Learning and interest centers can be tiered by providing either different materials or different levels of instructions as the groups rotate through the centers. Learning contracts can be tiered by providing multiple levels of activities within one contract or by developing different contracts for each tier. Homework assignments can be tiered to address students who need more practice for mastery and students who had prior mastery but need to go beyond the grade-level applications of that objective.

To determine which students need which tiers, both formal and informal pre-assessments are helpful. The composition of groups should change frequently to reflect more accurately the needs of students on different days, with different objectives, and in different subject areas.

In summary, tiering provides equity in the classroom by allowing all students to be challenged and engaged while investing equivalent amounts of time in their learning. Because students share different products relating to the same objective, redundancy is minimized and interest is heightened as students learn from each other.

Linda Pigott Robinson

See also Ability Grouping; Curriculum Compacting; Gifted Students and Effective Classroom Practices; Learning Contracts; Management of Student Grouping

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TIME-OUT

Time-out has long been used in classrooms to deal with misbehavior. One of the iconic images of old-fashioned schooling is that of the child sitting or standing in the corner, perhaps facing the wall, and perhaps wearing a long, pointy, white dunce cap. Clearly, the use of time-out was once intended as a punishment and even as a way of shaming children into behaving better.

Thankfully, those days of using time-out as a punishment have been replaced by more enlightened uses

of time-out as a method for responding to misbehavior. Those more enlightened uses frame time-out not as a punishment and certainly not as a way of shaming, but as a way to either remove children from being reinforced for misbehaving or to provide children with time to regain control over themselves. These two themes are best represented in what might be loosely distinguished as behaviorist and guidance approaches to time-out—though the distinctions get blurred when both approaches get into the details for successful use of time-out. Here, though, the distinctions will be used to clarify acceptable uses of time-out and also to clarify different language systems for thinking about and framing time-out.

Behaviorist Ways of Framing Time-Out

From a modern, behaviorist perspective, time-out means time out from reinforcement—a way to extinguish whatever misbehavior was being reinforced to continue and even increase. So, for example, if a child is disrupting meeting time by clowning around and getting reinforcement for doing so by the laughter of his peers, putting the child in time-out would be removing the child from the meeting where his clowning around was being reinforced.

Thinking this way, behaviorists are apt to point out that there is a continuum of interventions that can effectively remove reinforcements of unwanted behavior. At one end of the continuum is planned ignoring—when a teacher ignores a child or has other children ignore a child when the attention given to the child is what is reinforcing the child's unwanted behavior. At the other end of the continuum is placing a child in isolation in a separate room. In between these two extremes is the conventional meaning of time-out, namely, sending a child to a chair or desk outside the mainstream of the classroom where the child can be effectively ignored for a short period.

Professional behaviorists take this method of time-out further by insisting on it being implemented only by following the guidelines normally adopted as best practice in scientific inquiry. This point about being scientific cannot be stressed too much when explaining the behaviorist approach, because the approach itself came into being as a way to bring scientific inquiry to help with applied issues such as how best to manage misbehavior.

In the case of time-out, being scientific first means assessing that the misbehavior is indeed being maintained by reinforcements in the immediate classroom context—such as happens when teachers unwittingly reinforce some misbehavior by calling attention to it. However, what is often missed in this explanation is the

fact that the professional behaviorist is not suggesting that attention (or anything else for that matter, including food, money, and other normally desired things) is in and of itself a reinforcement. For the true behaviorist, reinforcement refers to a *function*, not a thing. So, for some children, attention may not function as a reinforcer; it may even function as a punishment if it decreases behavior—as when the occasional child stops achieving when attended to or even praised by a well-meaning teacher. In short, from a behaviorist perspective, time-out is an appropriate method when a careful assessment has established that the misbehavior calling for a time-out is indeed being reinforced by something in the immediate classroom context of the misbehavior. It would not, therefore, make sense to send a child to time-out if the misbehavior was a function of a child's being hungry.

The other major message coming from a professional behaviorist approach to time-out is the message about coupling time-out with positive reinforcement for good behavior. This means that the time following time-out should be considered not as time after the intervention but as a continuation of the intervention, one characterized by a teacher's commitment to systematically finding ways to reinforce a child's good behavior. To continue the previous example of a child's clowning around at meeting time, following time-out, the child's teacher would commit to doing whatever is needed to reinforce good behavior at meeting time (sitting still and listening, raising hands for a turn to speak, responding positively to what others have to say, and so forth). From this perspective, time-out's work is to construct a bridge between the land of reinforced misbehavior and the land of reinforced good behavior.

Finally, with respect to a behaviorist approach to time-out, just as it is essential to assess beforehand whether misbehavior is being maintained by in-class reinforcements, such as attention from a teacher or from peers, it is essential to assess after the time-out whether the method has either led to a decrease in misbehavior or to a period of effectively reinforcing positive behavior. After all, being scientific means gathering data to assess and check against one's own tendencies to trust too much in untested interpretations and judgments.

Guidance Ways of Framing Time-Out

Guidance approaches frame time-out as a time either for reflection and thinking made possible by a teacher's guidance or when children regain control of themselves so as to guide themselves back into the flow of the classroom where they can, after regrouping, make better decisions and be more self-controlled. From this perspective, time-out is a method that should be taught to

children as a positive life skill, a method for them to regain self-control. It should never come across as a punishment or as an expression of anger or dislike on the part of a teacher.

Ruth Charney, a master teacher and influential writer on classroom management, has been a leader in explaining this guidance approach to time-out. In her advice about time-out, we see practical ways for providing children with the right frame or meaning of time-out as a means to regain self-control. For example, Charney explains that time-out as a classroom procedure should be actively taught at the beginning of the school year—with the teacher explaining that everyone loses self-control and needs time to regroup, and then demonstrating both proper and improper behavior during time-out. Also, the class as a whole is taught how to avoid talking to or giving attention to someone who is in time-out. All this teaching is done with continual talk about time-out being something positive, not a punishment—something that adults and children alike may occasionally need to get back to being in control of themselves.

Teachers such as Charney who adopt a guidance approach to time-out also emphasize the need for time-outs coming only after a reminder has not worked—and then with only a brief explanation for the time-out (not a negotiation), one that states clearly and succinctly the problem that requires a time-out before sending a child to time-out (e.g., “You know the rule about not disturbing meetings”), then checking in during time-out to ensure that the child understands why he or she is in time-out (“Do you know why I sent you to time-out?”) and what the child plans to do following time-out. In short, those adopting a guidance approach understand that children may be interpreting or framing the time-out in negative, unproductive, even damaging ways (e.g., as a punishment, as an indication that teachers are bad, as an indication that teachers do not like them, etc.), and so children need guidance to adopt better ways to interpret and frame.

Much of what Charney and other present-day educators are saying about guidance and positive framing of time-out can be found in the wisdom of the work of clinician-educators working within a psychodynamic perspective in the 1950s and 1960s (and before)—clinician-educators such as Fritz Redl. At the heart of this approach is a deep appreciation for the need for having a child's experience (thoughts, feelings, perspective) in mind when either choosing a method or shaping the way one implements a method. From this perspective, time-out needs to be implemented in ways that accommodate to what being timed-out *means* to the child. The whole effort in this guidance approach is, then, to have children adopt positive, useful meanings

(e.g., time-out will help me to become an active citizen in my classroom; time-out will help me show more maturity by resisting the temptation to fool around; time-out will help me to listen to my teacher who is only trying to help me).

From this guidance perspective on time-out, the method itself can easily be misused. For one thing, it is ill-suited for serious disruptions. Its use is for minor disruptions that allow for dialogue, guidance, and a child's reflecting. For another thing, it can be used more to safeguard the integrity of the classroom (the smooth functioning of the group) than for the guidance and support of the child in time-out. And finally, it can be used in such a way as to undermine the main linchpin for successful behavior management, namely, a positive relationship between teacher and child.

Concerning this last point, about threats to the teacher-child relationship, those adopting a guidance approach are apt to suggest that teachers have direct conversations with a child during and after time-out—conversations about their relationship, about the time-out having nothing to do with a teacher not liking the child (just not liking the behavior), and about the teacher being totally on the child's side.

Important, Practical Details

Regardless of approach, those successfully using time-out are apt to suggest the following:

1. Limit time-out to minor infractions.
2. Keep time-out short (e.g., 2 minutes for very young children and slightly longer for older children).
3. Avoid using time-out repeatedly with a select few children.
4. Have a time-out chair (or desk for older children) in a quiet, somewhat set-aside space in the classroom that is not out of view entirely.
5. Use different and child-friendly ways of settling how time-out will end—for example, using a sand timer if there is a set time, or for older children by saying, "When you have thought about the problem and what you will do in the future and are ready to return."
6. Use alternative terms for time-out when they will work better—as in the case of middle schoolers who are likely to be shamed by the term *time-out*, but resonate positively to an alternative such as *time-to-reflect*.

Conclusion

Time-out is, then, a time-honored method for dealing with misbehavior. But as its history shows, it is a method that can be misused when it becomes a punishment, when it undermines the teacher-child relationship, when it serves mostly to help the teacher keep the class under control, and when it is not coupled with lots of good behavior and classroom management going on before and after the time-out.

Furthermore, a close analysis of the thoughtful uses of time-out indicates that implementing time-out effectively takes a great deal of skill. Time-out is not a method that a beginner can expect to employ with great success from day one. Because time-out is a complex skill, educators are wise to approach employing time-out with caution about the potential problems caused by inappropriate use of time-out and resolve to practice good uses of time-out even before employing time-out or, at least, in the light of lessons learned when trying unsuccessfully to implement time-out. In short, implementing time-out looks simple, but it is not. Its complexity as a skill must be respected—by learning all its various requirements and nuances and then carefully practicing until one gets it right.

W. George Scarlett

See also Behavioral Approaches, Foundations of; Methods for Managing Behavior: Types and Uses; Redl, Fritz

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TOKEN ECONOMIES

Token economies are coordinated systems in which an individual or group can earn a token as a reward by displaying an explicitly defined behavior. The token may be exchanged at a subsequent time for a more personalized or motivating reinforcer (tangible item, experience, activity). A token may be anything that can be

counted, collected, and collated. Key characteristics are that the token has or acquires worth for the individual or group, that it is readily accessible, that it is easily deliverable, and that the potential for forging or counterfeiting the token is minimal. The term *token economy* is occasionally used synonymously with the terms *point* or *level system*.

Implementing a token economy requires a sound data collection system. Within the field of psychology, a unique perspective of clinician/researcher exists where the collection and interpretation of data for clinical care, treatment, and training exists. Research by David Reitman and colleagues indicates that, if implemented correctly within an educational setting, the token economy strategy reduces rates of inappropriate behavior and increases rates of appropriate social and academic behaviors.

The central feature of a token economy is the secondary reinforcement of a replacement/alternative behavior, made possible when the earned token is exchanged, later on, for a primary reinforcer or reward. Therefore, the initial challenge is to set the stage for an association between the token and a primary reinforcer or reward.

Token economy systems are grounded in the implementation of basic contingency reinforcement procedures. They are recognized as key strategies in a variety of contexts and with diverse groups of students with disabilities, including students displaying challenging behaviors, those identified as having emotional and behavioral disorders, and those diagnosed with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder. Token economy systems can be utilized to address an array of challenging behaviors on a group as well as an individual level.

History

Within the community of those using behavioral strategies and for approximately half a century, aversive strategies have been used with students because they worked to suppress unwanted behavior, at least in the short term. However, without reinforcing wanted, alternative behaviors, the use of aversive strategies often led to a resumption of the original target behavior. In short, aversive strategies alone did not lead to sustained improvement.

A call for less punitive and more positive strategies led to what is called *differential reinforcement* whereby alternative, wanted behavior that can replace unwanted behavior is systematically reinforced. Token economies came to figure heavily in this more positive approach.

During the 1960s, token economies began to be used in schools, hospitals, and homes. In the beginning, there were several problems having to do with children and youth transferring their good behavior in controlled (reinforced) settings to other settings (the problem of

generalization or the lack thereof). There were also problems having to do with sustaining a systematic approach and implementing strategies as they were intended to be implemented, that is, problems in treatment integrity.

Over time, these problems have been addressed—at least in those cases where they are openly acknowledged to be problems. In particular, now, more than in previous decades, reinforcements/tokens are apt to be given immediately and are contingent on appropriate behavior (greater treatment integrity), and teachers are apt to give more support for carrying out a systematic, token economy system.

Key Terms in Understanding and Implementing Token Economies

Level Systems

In level systems, reinforcers are linked to organized, listed systems of behavioral targets and their consequences. The systems are listed as progressions of increasing expectations and behavioral improvement. They come with different strategies for changing behavior.

Response Cost System

A response cost system allows for the removal of tokens previously earned when the presentation of the *target behavior* occurs and when it remains problematic. This sets up a competition between the target behavior and the desired replacement/alternative behavior—with a student likely to eventually choose to show the desired replacement/alternative behavior when the cost of continuing to behave poorly is too high.

Contract

In this context, a contract involves greater descriptors in regard to expectations, accessible levels, and subsequent tangible activities/items which can be earned. A contract can be important for helping a student understand and, therefore, be better able to make good use of the token system.

Ethical Considerations

There are always ethical considerations with the use of any behavioral intervention. Giving away reinforcers (tokens, free time, recess time) for behaviors students should be exhibiting naturally has ethical ramifications. Furthermore, some view that using a token economy without teaching, modeling, and practice encourages students to rely on only extrinsic rewards. At an individual level, if a token economy continues to be used

with the same student for the same behavior, it may create satiation, and, over time, the student may become unresponsive to the system. More research is needed to understand how to reduce dependence on the system so that students can demonstrate self-regulation, independence, and generalized responding of appropriate behaviors across settings.

Factors Affecting Token Economy

For token economies to succeed, school personnel must carefully consider the importance of developing explicit rules and procedures to guide the implementation of token economy systems. Without a comprehensive system design, without explicit descriptions of behavioral expectations and contingencies, and without training, educators may fail to wholly realize the benefits of the token economy system.

Distributing tokens without interrupting instruction and classroom routines also requires time and diligence. Although with experience teachers become more efficient in running token economy systems, they need training in how to provide feedback about which behaviors earned tokens, how to combine and gradually supplant token economies with naturally occurring social reinforcement, and how to enhance maintenance and generalization of the target behavior as teachers pair tokens with praise, attention, and other social reinforcers. Research on classroom/institutional token economies (e.g., by Joseph Comaty et al. and by David Reitman et al.) suggests that when used in combination with social reinforcers and instructional strategies, token economies can reduce unwanted behaviors by replacing them with desired behaviors.

Token economies are potentially powerful management tools for students who are younger or who have processing delays and need to be taught the connection between the behavior and the token. Studies have indicated positive effects of a token economy on young children building early literacy skills and increasing on-task behavior.

Token economies are based on a wide range of developmentally appropriate backup reinforcers. Edible and tangible reinforcers include food items, pencils, stickers, and other inexpensive items students find desirable. Activity reinforcers consist of events such as being first in line, playing on a tablet computer, and reading a favorite book. In sum, token economies function like a monetary system where students earn tokens for demonstrating desired behaviors.

One of the most neglected aspects of implementing a token economy is finding ways to ensure response maintenance and generalized responding by gradually phasing out tokens and replacing them with social reinforcers and natural reinforcers. Therefore, token economies

should be established for only a specific time period. The termination of token economies needs to be programmed systematically in a gradual rather than abrupt manner. Gradual fading of a token economy (while at the same time utilizing naturally occurring reinforcers) helps students maintain their newly learned behaviors.

If all of the above factors are taken into consideration, the chances are that token economies can provide a significant way for educators to help children abandon unwanted behavior and adopt desired behavior. Token economies offer, then, a promising way to support children and manage classrooms.

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See also Behavioral Approaches, Foundations of; Extinction; Functional Behavioral Assessment; Punishment; Reinforcement

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TRANSITIONS, MANAGING

Classroom transitions occur whenever students are changing from one activity to another. Transitions occur

constantly throughout the day, starting when the students arrive at school. Some examples of transitions include students entering the classroom and beginning classwork for the day, moving from a lecture to a game-based activity, from morning circle or carpet time to their desks, or from the classroom to the cafeteria for lunch. This entry describes the importance of classroom transitions and research on the effectiveness of a variety of techniques used to ensure efficient classrooms transitions. It concludes with a summary of techniques for effective transitions.

Importance of Transitions

It is hard to overstate the importance of effective and brief transitions. Transitions are generally a time during the school day when students are not actively learning academic material; they are moving from one thing to the next. Studies have indicated that a significant portion of school time is spent in transitions. Doug Lemov explains that cutting a minute from 10 transitions a day would effectively add another week to the school year.

Smooth, structured, and short transitions maximize learning time, keep misbehavior to a minimum, and help students move from one lesson to the next with continued focus and momentum. In addition to the large amount of instructional time that could be gained by minimizing lengthy or inefficient transitions, research has also indicated that students tend to exhibit more disruptive behaviors during transitions. Transitions tend to be less structured and have different expectations than normal instruction time, which may impact students' behaviors. One study found that disruptive behaviors occurred during transitions at twice the rate they occurred during regular instructional time. These disruptive behaviors can carry over into the next activity. Unstructured or chaotic transitions may be especially difficult for students with learning differences, such as attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, who may become overwhelmed during transitions and have a hard time reorienting to the next lesson.

Transitions can be challenging for teachers because there are often many things students or teachers need to do in order to be successful for the next task. For example, when transitioning from a writing lesson at their desk to a math lesson at the carpet, students may need to put away their writing materials, take out their math materials, walk over to the carpet, sit in their assigned space, and quietly refocus on the teacher. The teacher may also need to put away writing materials, move to the carpet, and take out math materials.

Research has found that teacher expectations for student behavior are different during transitions than during instructional time. For example, students may not be allowed to talk to each other during instructional

time, but often are allowed to talk to each other during transitions. Teachers may also have difficulty enforcing expectations if they are distracted by their own transition activities. As a result, students can engage in unruly behavior or conversations that do not stop when the next activity is supposed to begin, and teachers can have a difficult time beginning the next activity.

Guidelines and Techniques for Creating Efficient and Effective Transitions

To address the challenges of transitions and increase on-task, instructional time, teachers can follow several principles or guidelines when transitioning. When studying more and less effective teachers, Marshall Arlin found that students generally followed teacher directions in transitions when teachers planned their transitions, brought the previous activity to a full and complete stop, paused and waited for students to follow through with directions, and had clear expectations for their transitions. These transitions, and the lessons or activities surrounding them, had clear and definite beginnings and ends.

In another study comparing more and less effective teachers, Howard A. Smith outlined several specific characteristics of effective transitions, including

- (a) the transitions are prepared for in advance;
- (b) they are usually started and ended by the teacher's clear verbal statements and are supported by unambiguous nonverbal signals;
- (c) instructions during transitions are issued in logical order and in small discrete units;
- (d) the teacher waits for instructions to be carried out before continuing on to the next segment of work;
- (e) the teacher remains task oriented and is not deflected by minor extraneous matters; and
- (f) the teacher is keenly aware of ongoing student activities.

Smith also noted that additional techniques such as preparing students in advance for transitions (e.g., "you have two minutes left of this activity") helped smooth transitions.

Effective teachers using these techniques during a transition from a lecture-based activity to a small group review game would incorporate the transition into their lesson plan. As the teachers wrapped up the lesson, they would tell students that they would soon begin a new activity. At the time of the transition, these effective teachers would tell the students what materials to put away, what materials to take out, and where to move, in a logical order. During the transition, teachers would remain watching the class's activities and enforcing

expectations or giving reminders when needed. Teachers would avoid other conversations with students about grades or other topics. They would watch to see when students were ready for the next activity and would begin only when most or all students have followed directions and are ready.

Doug Lemov, author of *Teach Like a Champion*, offers several suggestions for effective transitions, such as scaffolding the steps and point-to-point directions. To scaffold the steps of a transition, a teacher might number each step of the transition. For example, to transition from a lab activity to a group discussion in a high school class, a teacher might preview all the directions at the beginning of the transition by saying, “When I say one, each group member will put the lab materials back in the bin. When I say two, group members will clean off the table with a paper towel. When I say three, everyone will take out their lab questions and a pencil. When I say four, all students will be sitting in their chairs silently facing the front of the room.” Teachers can then control the pace of the transition by calling out and repeating each of the steps one at a time as the students move through the transition. They could also display more complicated directions visually to help cue students. Clear directions and expectations provide students with support and teachers with more control than a more vague direction such as “Please clean up your area and get ready for the discussion.”

Another method for teaching transitions is point-to-point movement. In point-to-point movement, the teacher indicates a particular location or an action and directs students to move to that location or complete that action and stop, such as “Walk to the door of the cafeteria and stop there.” This also allows teachers to maintain control of the activity with a clear beginning and end point. This can be especially effective if the transition involves moving around the building (e.g., walking to lunch). Lemov also points out that with transitions the teacher’s goals are *speed* and *orderliness*. Effective teachers have students practice moving through transitions quickly once they have mastered the steps. One technique is to time students and encourage them to beat their previous times (e.g., “We cleaned up in two minutes yesterday, let’s shoot for a minute and a half today!”)

Glenn H. Buck provides comprehensive guidelines for smoothing out difficult transitions, especially for students with disabilities. Buck encourages teachers to precisely define behavioral expectations for transition periods. This might include what the students need to do, whether they should be silent or can talk, and how quickly they should comply. Buck suggests using visual imagery to help plan out what the classroom should look and sound like during the transition, and to communicate these expectations (rules) to students. This is done by teaching, reinforcing, and reviewing these

expectations. Buck also suggests periodically assessing whether student behavior matches the expectations that have been communicated, providing students with advance warning of transitions before they happen, and using background music to help cue transitions. For physical transitions, techniques such as having students march to the different area (which prevents running), identifying a buddy for students who struggle with transitions, or using guided imagery can be helpful. Buck also suggests developing physical cues or signals to help indicate the beginning and end of a lesson.

Research has shown that music, games, and contests can be an effective way to engage and motivate students through transitions. This could take the form of the teacher and/or students singing a song about the steps of a transition, or about an academic topic. For example, an elementary teacher might teach students a song that describes the steps of cleaning-up after an activity, which will help them remember the routine. Another idea might be to teach students a simple song about different types of money, or another math topic, that students sing as they complete the transition into a math lesson. This can help students stay focused and help them avoid disruptive behaviors. Other teachers use recordings of particular songs to help cue students through transitions. Contests might include timing to determine which group or table had completed a transition first and awarding points or other reinforcers accordingly.

Transitions and Routines

Many transitions happen daily. These transitions can be large or small, such as moving from one activity to the next or sitting down at the beginning of class and getting ready for the lesson. Research indicates that creating predictable and efficient routines for these particular transitions, and practicing these routines with students until they all understand the procedure and expectation, leads to more success over the course of the school year. This practice at the beginning of the school year can seem tedious at first, but results in saved time throughout the school year. At the beginning of the school year, teachers can choose several high-impact transition routines that all of their students should know and be able to consistently follow through with. For example, an elementary school teacher might decide that all students should know how to line up and how to move from one area of the classroom (such as the carpet) to another (such as their desks) by the end of the first week without having to be told the steps or expectations. These transitions happen frequently throughout the day, and making sure they are mastered early in the year will be helpful in later weeks. These can continue to be reinforced and retaught as needed throughout the year.

Conclusion

Research indicates that transitions are an important time in the school day, because they can be a waste of instructional time and can be a time of increased student misbehavior. To confront these challenges, teachers can

- plan and practice the transitions that happen regularly with students at the beginning of the year, until students consistently follow the routine and review and practice as needed during the school year;
- plan transitions out ahead of time—identify all the transitions that need to occur during a particular lesson, the steps of these transitions, and how you will give direction for each;
- provide students with advance warning of transitions;
- have a clear end to lessons and activities and beginning of transitions—wait for students to comply with directions (e.g., “Pencils down, all eyes on me”) before giving directions for transition;
- give clear and explicit directions for the transition—use scaffolding or point-to-point directions;
- stay focused on student transition activity and do not engage in unrelated conversations during transitions;
- wait for all students to comply with transition directions before beginning the next activity;
- provide enough time for transitions;
- use additional strategies, such as music and competitions, when appropriate.

Smooth and effective transitions save significant amounts of time and minimize disruptive behavior in the classroom. Fortunately, there are many techniques and guidelines that can ensure that classroom transitions are fast and easy for both the teacher and the students, allowing the teacher to focus on academic learning.

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See also Ecological Approaches; Reminders; Routines

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TREATMENT INTEGRITY

One of the major problems encountered in efforts to implement evidence-based interventions in schools is that they may not always be used as intended by the researchers who originally established their effectiveness. There is, then, a need to evaluate how well an intervention is being implemented or, to use the technical term, there is a need to evaluate for *treatment integrity*. For example, when implementing an evidence-based supplemental reading program, evaluating for treatment integrity might require evaluating the training of the teacher running the program, whether the teacher implements all of the critical elements in the program, whether the students in the program meet the criteria for inclusion in the program, whether the program is significantly different from what the students have already experienced, and whether the program runs long enough to be effective. Without such information about treatment integrity, we cannot be certain that the intervention itself is responsible for changes observed or, in the case of failures, whether the failures are due to flaws in the intervention or the improper implementation of the intervention. Further, without information about treatment integrity, we cannot understand the finer points involved in putting evidence-based strategies or methods into practice efficiently.

One way to understand treatment integrity is by drawing an analogy to a familiar practice, such as the practice of taking a prescribed medicine. When taking a prescribed medicine, treatment guidelines usually specify whether you should take the medicine with food, take it at a certain time of day, or take it for a certain length of time. In the same way that medical researchers specify treatment guidelines that are essential for treatment integrity, education researchers can and should specify how evidence-based educational practices must be implemented according to the guidelines followed in the original research that established the practices as empirically based.

Monitoring for Treatment Integrity

Monitoring the treatment integrity of evidence-based practices is critical for ongoing, educational decision making. For instance, response to intervention (RTI) is

an evidence-based model that moves students to greater levels of intervention intensity based on their response to a current level of intervention; if a child is not succeeding academically under the current level of intervention, the child may be moved to a more intensive level of intervention.

In this example, we would assess for treatment integrity to be sure the child is receiving full access to the best form of the current intervention. In fact, federal law requires that if we are using RTI for the purposes of identifying students for special education, we must include monitoring and documentation to show that a child's failure to succeed is not due to lack of access to the practice itself (i.e., the evidence-based practice was delivered as intended). Also in this example, if the current intervention is not successful, we would provide a new level of intervention and assess for treatment integrity to ensure that the new level of intervention is indeed more intensive (e.g., involves fewer peers, more time with the intervention, provides more opportunities to respond or practice).

Many well-developed, evidence-based practices have measures of treatment integrity built into them. For instance, the DIBELS (Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Learning Skills) assessment materials include a checklist that an observer can use to be sure that the assessor is properly testing the student. Another example is the Second Step social skills curriculum, which includes checklists observers can use to be sure the instructor has included all of the elements of the social skills lesson. With such built-in measures, classroom educational practices can be assessed to determine the degree to which the treatment is being delivered with integrity.

Dimensions of Treatment Integrity

Learning about the different dimensions of treatment integrity can be helpful when interpreting research results and understanding implementation. The most common dimensions include *adherence*, *competence*, *differentiation*, and *dosage/exposure*.

Adherence

Adherence typically refers to the degree to which an intervention in practice matches its design components. In practical terms, this means how well someone implementing a specific intervention followed the steps recommended by the researchers. Adherence in the case of most educational programs means presenting the intervention as it was presented in situations where the researchers found it to be effective. For example, classroom teachers may be delivering praise in their classroom on a regular

basis, but after reading an article in a professional practice journal that describes the results of an experiment in praise delivery, they may realize that, in practice, what they have been doing is actually very different than what the researchers have described.

Implementation scientists Gene Hall and Shirley Hord, who have worked extensively on understanding the gap between educational research and teaching practices, recommend that researchers develop innovation maps detailing what some ideal, acceptable, and unacceptable versions of practice might look like in a classroom or school setting to clearly communicate these to implementers.

Competence

Along with describing the recommended features of an intervention, developers may also need to include information about the competence level required by the person who implements the intervention. This dimension of treatment integrity is referred to simply as *competence*.

Competence refers to the skill level of those responsible for delivering a treatment or intervention. For example, reading programs that focus on phonemic awareness may require teachers to have specific training before they begin implementation. In a similar vein, two teachers attempting to implement a social skills intervention may have very different outcomes if one teacher has experience teaching social skills and the other does not. By accounting for equivalent competence and levels of training, researchers can ensure that any differences in outcomes are not the result of differences in the skill level or training of individuals responsible for the classroom implementation of academic and social interventions.

Educators should ensure, then, that those implementing evidence-based interventions are provided with the training or experience necessary to make the best use of them.

Differentiation

The degree to which a given intervention is different from current practice is one way to define *differentiation*, another distinct dimension of treatment integrity. Differentiation is of particular interest to researchers who want to compare interventions. Comparing interventions allows researchers to say which intervention is more effective or efficient. For example, while conducting a structured phonics intervention, comparing interventions can help determine if it is necessary to provide four opportunities for a student to produce each target sound, or if two opportunities would suffice for most

students. The answer to this type of research question clearly requires that researchers collect data to ensure the interventions are delivered differently.

Comparing interventions is not the sole purview of researchers; classroom teachers, administrators, and other school staff often compare interventions and for similar purposes.

Dosage/Exposure

Information about *dosage* and *exposure* refers to information about the frequency, intensity, and/or duration of the services provided within an intervention. For example, research from the field of applied behavioral analysis has demonstrated that a reinforcer needs to be the correct size and amount to encourage or maintain a given behavior.

Dosage and exposure may also impact the effectiveness of academic interventions. For example, a minimum of 20 minutes per day of a specific reading fluency program may be recommended to see reading rate improvements among students who are struggling readers.

The implementation of response to intervention (RtI) offers another clear example of the academic importance of addressing the issues of dosage and exposure. In RtI, a student who does not respond to the instructional practices used in the typical setting is often recommended for receiving instruction that is more frequent, intense, or of longer duration.

Measuring Treatment Integrity

Treatment integrity can be measured using products arising from the treatment, direct observations, checklists, interviews, and self-reports. Sometimes a single study will include multiple measurement techniques. In one experiment on schoolwide data sharing, researchers needed to collect multiple forms of treatment integrity data because they were interested in the impact that sharing schoolwide office discipline referral (ODR) data made on the perceptions of the school staff. They measured changes in survey responses to questions about the types of behavioral infractions that were perceived to be happening in each school and then compared those responses to what was actually being reported within the school itself.

In experimental schools, the leadership teams shared their ODR data with the school staff at a general staff meeting; in control schools, the leadership teams did not share the data with the school staff. Once the experimental period was over, researchers compared the results of staff perceptions under both conditions.

However, to ensure that the school teams were sharing the same data in the same ways (i.e., adherence), researchers needed to create a checklist of items. On the

checklist, researchers made sure that the school team leaders had skill in using PowerPoint to share their data (i.e., competence). The team leaders also needed to submit their presentations to the research team 1 day prior to the data-sharing session. The research team members checked each presentation (i.e., products) to make sure all the necessary elements were included (i.e., adherence).

For the school teams sharing their data, the ODR data for the past 3 months needed to be included by infraction category, time of day, and location, all data needed to be graphed in descending order, and the top three infraction categories, times of day, and locations each had to be displayed on a single slide. One member of the research team also attended each general staff meeting and used a checklist to make sure that in experimental schools, each component of the presentation was covered with the school staff with enough detail to affect understanding, and that in control schools, no ODR data were presented or discussed (i.e., dosage and exposure). This way they could be sure that the differences in accuracy scores between the schools in experimental and control conditions were indeed the result of the data-sharing sessions.

Conclusion

By collecting and reporting data on treatment integrity, researchers can inform practitioners about the necessary and distinct intervention components, skill level of the implementers or intervention agents, and amount of exposure or treatment dosage needed to effect desired outcomes. At the same time, treatment integrity data assist in making certain that the changes observed are the result of the intervention and not of some other source of influence. Future efforts to explore classroom adoption of evidence-based interventions may include opportunities to examine the factors that affect treatment integrity. Understanding more about these factors will assist us in further narrowing the gap between important educational research innovations and their adoption into practice.

Gita Upreti and Carl J. Liaupsin

See also Assessing and Promoting Treatment Integrity; Assessing Classroom Management; Assessment of Teacher–Student Relationships; Evidence-Based Classroom Management

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TRUST, BUILDING

Trust between students and a teacher is among the fundamental components of effective learning environments. Preservice teachers do not always have ample opportunity, however, to learn the value of, or acquire the means for, building trust in their classrooms. When new teachers begin their careers, they typically understand that they must have ground rules, procedures in place, and well-developed lesson plans. In addition, building trust must be among the priorities for ensuring a successful climate for learning.

Five key terms to keep in mind as a teacher sets out to build trust with students are *Theory*, *Relationships*, *Understanding*, *Sameness*, and *Time*.

Theory

Effective teachers strive to understand as much as possible concerning student behavior theory and the various

techniques for building trust in their classrooms. For instance, it is widely supported that a teacher must have the respect of students prior to building trust. Earning respect essentially involves demonstrating control of the classroom and possessing knowledge of the required subject matter. Once a teacher has accomplished those tasks, trust building becomes a logical goal for optimal learning.

Methods for building trust vary and are numerous, with some techniques working more aptly with certain types of students. Proficient teachers recognize that students approach learning and the classroom steeped in myriad personal experiences that impact their ability to acquire knowledge and contribute to a positive social environment. They do not take student behaviors and responses personally; instead, they seek information about their learners and their needs and then apply proven, appropriate strategies to maximize opportunities for learning. The teacher's dedication to understanding theories concerning student behavior and learning provides a foundation for building trust in the classroom.

Relationships

Students, often unwittingly, seek mentors and older individuals who show an interest in their lives and concerns. They appreciate having someone besides family members to talk to about themselves, their peers, and the world in general. When a teacher takes steps to build a relationship with students, the classroom environment becomes more positive, and the students will often model the same care with their peers, which further serves to enhance the classroom climate.

Considering that a teacher may have anywhere from 20 to 150 students, building relationships can sometimes be daunting. A few simple steps to take include greeting students at the door at the beginning of each day or class period, asking students to list a few hobbies or fun facts about themselves on an index card at the beginning of the year and then, from time to time, referring back to them with the student, having students keep a journal to write in and responding periodically to an entry, and attending after-school student activities, including sports matches, play productions, and fine arts performances. Students see these small gestures as a sign that their teacher cares and is someone they can believe in. The dividends in improved classroom behavior are well worth the time and effort invested.

Understanding

Teachers are often responsible for instructing students of diverse backgrounds and life experiences. Sometimes

students, at least initially, will have difficulty believing they have anything in common with their teacher. To head off this challenge, teachers must work to develop an understanding of their students' cultures and interests.

While many schools host an International Night or talent shows to allow students to showcase more about themselves and their passions, teachers can better reflect their desire to understand their students by learning more about a student's homeland, paying attention to current movies, music, and books that students in their class enjoy, and asking questions about hobbies or extracurricular activities. Making the effort to understand students' lives beyond their academic performance demonstrates caring and may likely be repaid with the students' efforts to understand the teacher and subject matter in return.

Sameness

Preservice teachers typically learn that instruction must be specifically tailored to each individual's needs, but one area in which students do not value diversity is in a teacher's disciplinary policies. Students, even at the upper elementary level, are keenly aware of who the good kids are as well as those with a penchant for finding mischief. Part of building trust involves avoiding appearing to have favorites and treating each student as if he or she is one's favorite. Like adults, students experience jealousy and recognize when a teacher has favorites.

An effective learning environment for all students is one in which procedures, rules, and consequences are clearly outlined and apply to everyone equally—so that infractions are handled methodically and with no surprises or frivolous exceptions. Students not only appreciate knowing the limits, they also appreciate when limits are enforced fairly and consistently. Attention to such details contributes to the establishment of a safe, trusting environment for students and teachers alike.

Time

Building trust with students takes time, but it is well worth the time invested. For students who have experienced many hardships in life, trusting an adult may be particularly difficult. These are the students who most need to trust their teacher and have perhaps the most to gain from having a sustained trusting relationship.

Sometimes, teachers do not realize how much a student is invested until the end of the school term or even years later. Effective teachers recognize that they cannot give up on reluctant students; they persist at demonstrating concern, checking in regularly by inquiring about a student's outside activities and interests, and offering encouragement when appropriate. Establishing a meaningful connection with such young people is all the more fulfilling once it occurs and certainly a major contributor to a successful classroom environment.

Janice R. Jett

See also Authority and Classrooms; Caring Approaches; Climate: School and Classroom; Relationship-Based Approaches to Classroom Management; Styles of Teaching; Teacher–Student Relationships and Behaviorally At-Risk Students; Warm Demanders; Warmth and Classroom Management

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UNDERACHIEVEMENT AND AFRICAN AMERICAN STUDENTS

For over 20 years, the achievement gap has been a central focus for educational policies. For example, policies such as No Child Left Behind and Race to the Top were created to ensure the success of all students, especially for those students considered to be underachieving. However, since the 1980s and according to National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) scores, those policies have not decreased the achievement gap, and the underachievement of African American students continues.

Underachievement refers to the discrepancy between (1) intelligence scores and achievement scores, (2) intelligence tests and grades/grade point average (GPA), (3) achievement scores and GPA, and (4) expectations of educators/caregivers and a measure of student performance. Using these definitions and measures, a good many African American students are underachieving. For example, 2013 NAEP scores show that only 17% of fourth-grade and 13% of eighth-grade African American students scored proficiently in math. As for reading, only 15% of fourth-grade and 16% of eighth-grade African American students scored proficiently. The question is *Why*?

To date, policies have focused on students' knowledge, academic skills, and the teaching of academic knowledge and academic skills. However, there is more to supporting student success than attending to academic knowledge and academic skills. Success in the classroom also rests on good teacher–student relationships as well as on students having the right attitude and motivation to learn. This entry focuses on these factors rather than academic knowledge and academic skills, because they help explain the underachievement of African American

students and how to reduce and eventually eliminate the achievement gap. In particular, it focuses on the need to make classrooms culturally responsive so as to cultivate the kinds of teacher–student relationships and the kinds of classroom management strategies that will set the context for African American students to achieve.

Teacher Expectations and Perceptions

Most teachers are White American females who may not be familiar with the culture of their African American students (especially males) or who have negative perceptions of African American students. This has created a cultural mismatch. Cultural mismatch occurs when there is a disconnection between a student's home culture and his or her school culture. Cultural mismatch is now recognized as a strong contributing factor to African American students' underachievement.

Cultural mismatch shows, first of all, in teachers' initial expectations and perceptions of African American students. Research on teacher expectations and perceptions shows that a good many teachers expect White and Asian students to succeed but expect the opposite from African American and Latino students. Furthermore, the research shows that a good many teachers view African American male students' cultural expressions (their language) and movement styles (their ways of walking) as aggressive and indicating lack of motivation to achieve.

The significance of these research findings is this: The potential of African American students goes unrealized because of teachers' misperceptions, misperceptions that underestimate African American students' intellectual ability and achievement. These misperceptions lead to inadequate instruction, which, in turn, leads to underachievement, thus creating a vicious cycle and a self-fulfilling prophecy.

Furthermore, teachers who have negative perceptions and lower expectations of African American students offer less support to them and become increasingly inflexible and punitive in their management strategies. When teachers adopt negative stereotypes about African American students, especially males, they often impose unnecessary discipline and make unnecessary special education referrals.

Strategies to Address Underachievement

To address underachievement among African American students, teachers need to receive extensive training and become culturally competent in their dispositions, knowledge, and skills. Doing so will impact their work with students, including building positive relationships, raising expectations, and being responsive to their culturally different students.

Fostering Student Engagement

Students show they are engaged when they try hard in class, participate in discussions, complete homework, come to class, and are attentive, not disruptive. Disengaged students tend to have behavioral and attendance problems. With this understanding of what it means to be engaged and disengaged, there is research showing that lack of engagement is a problem among many African American students. Therefore, one approach to address the underachievement of African American students has been to focus on this problem of disengagement.

One common strategy for increasing the engagement of African American students has been to ensure that the content of curriculum resonates with the African American students themselves. So, for example, in history classes, students can be asked to critique what multicultural education scholar Geneva Gay and others call the prevailing *master narratives*—to uncover their cultural biases and to replace these master narratives with narratives that embrace the diversity that has actually always been the larger narrative in U.S. history.

Promoting Positive Teacher–Student Relationships

Teacher–student relationships are significantly associated with students’ social functioning, behavior problems, engagement in learning activities, and academic achievement. The research results are clear: Positive teacher–student relationships are positively associated with student engagement and achievement, and negative teacher–student relationships are positively associated with student disengagement and underachievement.

Furthermore, the associations become stronger for children of color—indicating that positive teacher–student relations are even more critical for African American students to succeed than they are for White students.

Engaging in Culturally Responsive Classroom Management

Following models of leaders such as Gloria Ladson-Billings and Geneva Gay, culturally responsive classroom management means addressing cultural mismatches by creating caring, structured, cooperative classrooms that have high expectations for all students, especially for students of color who have experienced the opposite, namely, classrooms that are not caring, that are structured in dysfunctional ways, and that impose low expectations on them. Furthermore, as previously mentioned, culturally responsive classroom management is designed to relate to students’ experiences and to their cultural background.

The key here may be showing care in the ways that a teacher provides structure and expects high achievement from students. Much has been written about African American students, especially boys, requiring greater structure, but structure without care can mean harsh, cold, and even demeaning treatment on the part of teachers. Culturally responsive classroom management may require different methods and teaching styles, perhaps more authoritarian styles, but whatever the method and style, teachers somehow must get across the message that they expect much, that they care, and that each student is a valued member of the classroom community. This is a tall order for many teachers, especially for White teachers with cultural backgrounds quite different from that of their students—as researchers such as Lisa Delpit and George Noblit have shown. According to Noblit and others, it is especially difficult for teachers who are not skilled in showing care when they need to use a more direct, more authoritarian style that many African American students respond well to.

Conclusion

Clearly, teachers must create classroom and school communities of care through instructional goals and decisions, through assessment and teacher–student interactions, through assisting students in making connections to classroom material, through cultivating mutual trust and respect, and through building empathy with words and actions that maintain high behavioral expectations, which ensure rigor by engaging students in challenging tasks and that demand and expect effort. In sum, improving the achievement of African American

students will depend on teachers becoming culturally competent.

Quinita Ogletree and Donna Y. Ford

See also American Individualisms; Cultural Diversity; Culturally Pluralistic Classrooms; Culturally Responsive Classrooms; Culturally Responsive Classrooms for African American Students; Institutional Racism; Urban Schools; Warm Demanders

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UNDERACHIEVEMENT AND CULTURALLY DIFFERENT STUDENTS

Underachievement exists when a student is performing at levels lower than those at which he or she is capable; that is, there is a discrepancy between ability and performance. The focus here is on underachievement and Black and Hispanic students because these are two of our largest student groups where underachievement is a documented problem. As is the case for a good many culturally different students, underachievement among African American and Hispanic students is extensive, as evidenced by poor grades and test scores, high rates of suspensions and expulsions (mostly among Black males), high drop-out rates, and the omnibus achievement gap between these two groups and their White classmates.

One explanation for the high rates of underachievement for these two groups of students has to do with

classroom management. Classroom management is linked in meaningful and significant ways to students' engagement and motivation, relationships (student–teacher, student–student), and eventual school performance or outcomes. However, much scholarship on classroom management is general or generic, with scant attention to the culture of students, the culture of teachers, and the significance of cultural differences relative to classroom management problems and solutions—making it difficult for teachers to know what to do when teaching culturally diverse groups of students.

One clue as to how the specifics of classroom management may, at times, foster underachievement has to do with interpretations of behaviors being subjective rather than objective. An act or comment that one teacher views as assertive may be viewed by another as aggressive. An act or statement that one teacher deems disrespectful does not bother another teacher. The following vignettes are of teachers and students having different interpretations about the meaning of teacher and student behaviors:

- Mr. Lewis, a White teacher, tells a joke that most of the students enjoy. Melvin, an African American male, responds with laughter, “Mr. L., you are so stupid.” Melvin is sent to the office for being disrespectful. Several students support Melvin, telling the teacher that stupid means funny. It is not an insult or being disrespectful, but a compliment. Most students are now turned off from the lesson and from Mr. Lewis. He teaches, but they do not listen.

- Ms. Jones's Mexican students enjoy working together and will get off-task when they are not given time to do so. Jones, a White teacher, constantly tells them: “You must learn to be more independent; do your own work.” Most of the students complain and comply, but several ignore her. She spends at least 10 minutes trying to argue with and/or persuade them—to no avail. This is a daily occurrence.

- Mrs. Billson, a White teacher, is told by Patricia, an African American student, that the lesson on slavery is boring and embarrassing for her and other Blacks. She wants the teacher to talk about how slaves were not passive and about the slave revolts. Mrs. Billson refuses. The students challenge her; disorder ensues. The lesson is a disaster. Neither teaching nor learning takes place.

- Ms. Orkin, a White teacher, is looking forward to teaching her students; most of them are Hispanic. She publicly displays students' grades and behaviors on one board with stars to show progress and give accolades. Most of the students are embarrassed, even when they get stars. Hispanic students who have no stars do not complain but they pout; Black students are more verbal

with their complaints. All of this disrupts opportunity to learn. Ms. Orkin is confused and frustrated because she wants to encourage and support all of her students.

As the above examples indicate, once teachers mismanage or lose control of their classroom, it can be difficult to regain order. Early, yet still timely, research from David Berliner, Jere Brophy, and Thomas Good demonstrated that the amount of time teachers take to correct misbehavior or off-task behavior (often due to poor classroom management skills) results in poor student performance. Given the accumulative hours taken away from teaching and learning, underachievement is an outcome.

Culturally Responsive Classroom Management: An Antidote to Underachievement

One viable solution to deal with underachievement and achievement problems is adopting culturally responsive classroom management. Classroom management describes the process of ensuring that classrooms have few, if any, distractions that hinder the teaching and learning relationship and process. The focus is often on how to optimize teaching and learning while dealing with or, ideally, eliminating real and perceived disruptive and off-task behaviors by students. The ultimate goal of managing classrooms is to optimize students' learning and achievement, regardless of racial and cultural background.

Culturally responsive classroom management is, ultimately, management by making the decisions and actions that create an environment that supports and facilitates academic achievement and socioemotional and cultural well-being for all students. Toward this end, teachers (1) develop caring, supportive relationships with and among all students; (2) organize and implement instruction to optimize Hispanic and African American students' opportunity to learn; (3) use group management methods and strategies that encourage Hispanic and Black students' engagement in lessons and activities; (4) promote the development of these students' socioemotional and cross-cultural skills; and (5) use culturally responsive interventions to assist such students with real and perceived behavior problems, which can be culture-based and, hence, misinterpreted, as in the four vignettes shared. Neither colorblindness nor culturally assaultive classrooms are or have been effective means of addressing underachievement among African American and Hispanic students and culturally different groups of students in general.

Demographics of Culturally Different Students

Now, more than ever, being culturally responsive in the classroom is essential—the latest demographics make

this point clearly. The United States and its schools are now (and becoming) more culturally different than ever before. As of 2009, Aud and colleagues (2013) noted that almost 50% of public school students were Black (17%), followed by Hispanic (21%), Asian (5%), and Native American (1%). Conversely, 85% of teachers were White (75% were females), 7% were Hispanic, and 7% were African American, with only 1% being Black or Hispanic males.

Cultural clashes between these predominantly White teachers (mostly female) and culturally different students (mostly male) are common. Data on suspensions and expulsions may be one of the best indicators of cultural clashes and misinterpretations of behaviors and comments. The extreme majority of students referred to the office and suspended or expelled are Black males. Data indicate that *subjective* views held by teachers (e.g., disrespect, talking back, disagreeing with teachers or other school personnel, being assertive/aggressive or threatening) are more likely to contribute to office referrals and suspensions for Black students than White students. When White students are referred and suspended by educators, it is primarily for objective, concrete reasons (e.g., smoking, drugs, fighting). The time students spend outside of classrooms contributes to underachievement and the larger issue of the achievement gap.

Cultural Characteristics of Black and Hispanic Students

Educators, the vast majority of whom are White, are seldom formally prepared to work with students who come from a different culture; many college courses and professional development workshops fail to focus on culture, cultural differences, and cultural conflict, as well as race or culture by gender dynamics (e.g., Black males, Hispanic males, Black females, Hispanic females).

This focus and training are undeniably critical given our predominantly White teaching force and the disproportionate numbers/percentages of the Black and Hispanic student population who are failing or underachieving in schools. Compounding this and at perhaps the other extreme, some educators are uncomfortable talking about race and culture, preferring to adopt a colorblind or culture blind philosophy and mantra.

Space limitations do not allow for a comprehensive discussion of Black and Hispanic cultures. Neither group is homogeneous; for example, Mexican culture is similar to and different from Cuban culture. However, it can be generalized that Hispanics as a group share strong family orientation, prize children, revere elders, and are interdependent; they tend to be social, outgoing, and humble.

In general, African American culture is characterized by spirituality, movement, verve, harmony, affect, expressive individualism, communalism, oral tradition, and social time perspective (polychronic). Movement and verve may be misinterpreted by educators as hyperactivity; oral tradition may be misinterpreted as blunt, rude, and excessive talking; communalism may be misinterpreted as lacking independence and being overly social, and social time perspective may be misinterpreted as being off-task, disinterested, inconsiderate with time, and more. Thus, when Black students are direct because they bluntly express their opinions and/or disagree with teachers, teachers may become offended; when Black and Hispanic students prefer to work with and help others rather than work alone and be competitive, they may be viewed as immature, needy, and unmotivated. Recall the above vignettes.

In sum, teachers who ignore, discount, or are insensitive to students' culture and associated differences contribute to conflicts and misunderstandings in classrooms. Culturally responsive classroom management is needed to improve the academic achievement of Hispanic and African American students.

Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Strategies

A number of strategies or techniques and philosophies exist to improve classroom management and, thus, student achievement. But only a few are described next. *Positive classrooms* is a program and philosophy that considers healthy or constructive classroom management to be the result of five dimensions: (1) how teachers design or organize the classroom environment (physical dimension); (2) how teachers view their students (spiritual dimension); (3) how they teach content (instructional dimension); (4) what is taught (curriculum dimension); and (5) how effectively and equitably teachers address student behavior (managerial dimension). Each dimension carries important implications for culture and culturally different students when addressing classroom management and seeking to prevent or address underachievement. Essentially, classrooms are culturally responsive when the learning environment honors Black and Hispanic students' culture, when educators support different ways of learning, and when the curriculum is not only rigorous but also respectful and relevant.

Preventative approaches to classroom management involve creating a positive classroom community with mutual respect between teacher and students and among students, with attention to students from different cultural backgrounds. Based on the authoritative style, teachers offer warmth, acceptance, and support unconditionally, along with fair rules and consistency.

Classroom management that is grounded in being culturally responsive will always include cultural considerations, which was not the case in the four vignettes. A culturally responsive classroom community builds upon (i.e., honors) the culture of students, ensuring that all are culturally affirmed.

Discipline with Dignity is a widely practiced behavior management program and philosophy. It focuses on improving students' behavior through personal responsibility—responsible thinking, cooperation, mutual respect, and shared decision making, which must be based in the culture of students. Cultures vary in how they discipline their children. Teachers who are familiar with such cultural disciplinary practices are more capable of honoring different discipline styles. While corporal punishment is still practiced in some schools, mostly in southern states, this practice should be used with caution by school personnel, even if given caregiver permission.

Concluding Remarks

Underachievers have often been treated as problem students when the problem of underachievement can better be defined in terms of mismatches between teachers and their students. This includes mismatches around classroom management. Here, the emphasis has been on addressing underachievement as a challenge to engage in culturally responsive classroom management—so that all students, but especially students from groups that have high rates of underachievers, can enjoy the same opportunities to learn and succeed.

Donna Y. Ford

See also Asian American Students; Asian Americans as Model Minority; Culturally Pluralistic Classrooms; Culturally Responsive Classrooms for African American Students; Haitian Students; Native American Students; Reframing; Urban Schools; Warm Demanders

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Given these purposes, it is important to note that the data collected during universal screening is not intended to diagnose specific reasons for student difficulty. Nor is it intended to provide data for choosing specific intervention strategies. Rather, data from universal screening are intended to simply provide a snapshot of how students are performing given a school's current state of resource allocation.

One key feature of universal screening is the use of quickly administered tools for assessment. A second key feature is using such tools to evaluate a student's (1) relative standing in meeting academic/behavioral expectations compared with peers and/or (2) performance in relation to a predetermined benchmark.

This latter, criterion-referenced, approach can be used to indicate a school's overall *health*. A healthy school has a significant majority of students meeting academic/behavioral expectations with only the allocation of core resources. A healthy school has many students receiving supplemental and intensive resources also meeting academic/behavioral expectations. This is because universal screening procedures assist in identifying systematic issues interfering with student achievement in order to allocate core, supplemental, and intensive resources effectively.

UNIVERSAL SCREENING

Universal screening plays an important role in identifying students requiring additional instructional support. Universal screening is one important component of an effective assessment system for ensuring that all students receive the resources necessary for them to learn. This entry outlines the purposes of universal screening, addresses the need for the practice, and clarifies its role in the assessment process. In addition, specific recommendations for managing classrooms while collecting universal screening data are provided.

The term *universal screening* refers to the systematic assessment of all students within a particular class, grade, school, or school district to determine the degree to which they are meeting academic and/or behavioral expectations. Universal screening data are collected individually or within group settings, typically three times (e.g., fall, winter, and spring) during the school year.

Martin Ikeda, Eric Neessen, and Joseph Witt discuss universal screening in the context of resource allocation, identifying two primary purposes. One purpose is to help determine if a school's core is meeting the needs of the vast majority of students. A school's core includes the resources that all students have access to as a result of attendance. The second purpose is to help determine which students may require additional (i.e., supplemental or intensive) resources.

Importance of Universal Screening

The inclusion of Response to Intervention (RtI) in the 2004 reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act necessitates the use of universal screening. Matthew Burns and Amanda VanDerHeyden identify four components of RtI: (1) using assessment data systematically, (2) allocating school resources efficiently, (3) enhancing student learning, and (4) being responsible for all students. RtI is commonly envisioned as a three-tiered model of increasingly intensive services/instruction with corresponding increases in the frequency of assessment.

In an RtI model, Tier 1 includes core instruction with benchmark assessments used to screen student skill level and monitor learning progress. Public health models suggest core resources meet 80% of a population's needs (i.e., 80% of students are observed to meet expectations/benchmarks when provided only core resources).

Tier 2 involves small group instruction (i.e., four to six students) focused on specific skill(s). Instructional intervention groups can be determined based on student data or by *standard treatment*. Standard treatments include interventions targeting multiple skills that have been empirically shown to increase student achievement. Allocation of Tier 2 resources (in addition to, not in lieu of, Tier 1) should result in another approximately 15% of students meeting identified benchmarks.

Tier 3 includes more frequent intervention, often daily for at least 30 minutes. Instructional interventions

are typically individualized and based on problem analysis procedures. Students (approximately 5%) receiving Tier 3 resources are still expected to meet identified benchmarks. Matthew Burns, James Appleton, and Jonathan Stehouwer concluded that the use of RtI models for service delivery led to reductions in children being referred for and placed into special education and led to improvement in student outcomes.

RtI and universal screening replace a prevalent and inadequate *wait-to-fail* model. This wait-to-fail model refers to students not being identified as requiring additional instructional support until they perform significantly below expectations. Stephen Elliot, Nan Huai, and Andrew Roach have pointed out that students progress at varying rates, making it desirable to not prematurely identify a student for failing to meet expectations. However, VanDerHeyden and Joseph Witt have found that while teachers do a good job of identifying students likely to have problems meeting expectations, they may do a poor job of identifying students who, over time, will not have problems. Therefore, universal screening is vital for ensuring that all students receive the instructional support they need.

Universal Screening for Assessment

John Hosp and Scott Ardoin suggest that universal screening promotes ecological assessment as it examines potential systemic reasons for students failing to meet expectations. Ecological factors include the instruction students receive, a school's curriculum, and classroom settings. Once ecological factors have been considered for what may be impeding the progress of a student receiving only Tier 1 resources, decisions can be made regarding how to form targeted Tier 2 supplemental intervention groups. To increase the likeliness of intervention groups facilitating desired student outcomes, appropriate use of assessment data is essential.

Assessment should always be conducted with the purpose of informing instruction. However, owing to the brief nature of the tools used, the data collected during universal screening is limited in how helpful it is for this purpose. To determine specific instructional needs of students not meeting learning goals, additional *diagnostic* data may be required. The distinction to be made here is that data from universal screening can be used to group students together for instructional purposes, while diagnostic data might be required to determine the focus of instruction.

Managing the Classroom During Universal Screening

Universal screening calls for effective methods for managing individuals and groups during the collection of

data. Recommendations for individual administration will be discussed first, followed by recommendations for group administration.

Recommendations for Individual Administration

Tools for universal screening that are administered individually typically include measures of oral passage reading and preliteracy skills such as phonological awareness. As with administering most tasks, preparation is essential for being ready to collect individual student data. One early preparation is determining the length of time needed to administer the tool being used. This may not appear to be so difficult given that most assessment tools will provide an estimated time for administering tasks. However, these estimated times may be misleading. One reason that estimated time may not be accurate is that those with less experience administering the measure may need more time. Therefore, it is a good idea to consider how long the specific individuals administering the measure may require.

Another reason why collecting individual student universal screening data may take longer than reported is the need to consider a quiet location for administration. This location will most likely reside outside the classroom, requiring students to walk to another area of the school. Thus transition time needs to be considered when calculating the time needed for administering individual measures. In addition, it is wise to consider different approaches for transitioning students by grade level (e.g., students in younger grades may need an adult to accompany them from the classroom to the assessment area and back). If students are walking by themselves, it is important to consider how the next student will know it is his or her turn. One way in which students might be able to inform their peer that it is the latter's turn, or to relay such information to their teacher, is by using student folders.

While several materials are necessary for collecting individual universal screening data (e.g., student and administrator copies of measures, pencil, timer), student folders are especially important. It is prudent to consider labeling folders and individual measures with appropriate student identification (e.g., name, classroom, ID number) so it will be possible to put everything back in place should items become separated. Students can also take to class the folder belonging to the next student and give it to their peer or teacher to indicate the next student.

Given the need to time students on the tools used for universal screening, the need for a timing device is also especially important. As advances in technology continue, many individuals have moved away from the use of devices such as kitchen timers and begun to use timers on their phones. Such a practice seems practical

and thus need not be avoided. However, several things should be addressed when using one's phone as a timer to collect universal screening data. First, the phone's sleep mode should be turned off to keep the screen from ceasing to display the timer during administration. Second, the phone should be placed on airplane mode. Doing so will ensure phone calls, texts, and emails will not interfere with administration. Finally, the chime setting for when the timer ends should be checked. The chime should be simple (i.e., not obnoxious) and its volume not too loud. Further, it is vital that the ending chime occurs at the exact time the timer ends. If there is a slight hesitation between the timer ending and the chime occurring, students may end up working for longer than the time allocated in the directions for the tool being used. Such an occurrence would result in a failure to maintain administration standardization.

Another important consideration for collecting individual universal screening data includes making sure one practices administering measures following the given administrative guidelines. This is important because different universal measures of the same skill are likely to have different specific directions. Correct administrative procedures must be used for student results to be accurate. Practice, in particular practice with corrective feedback, is the key for being prepared.

Last, it is important to have a plan for engaging the class while individual students are leaving the classroom. The collection of universal screening data should cause minimal loss of instructional time. While instruction should not cease during universal screening, it is also important that students do not miss essential learning opportunities while away. Related to limiting lost instruction time, it is best to calculate student performance after all data are collected. This ensures students getting back to class, and learning, as quickly as possible.

Recommendations for Group Administration

In some ways, group administration of universal screening measures (e.g., math computation and applications or reading comprehension and written expression) are easier than collecting individual student data. For example, less careful planning of scheduling is needed as students will be administered the measure as a large group such as by class.

Similar to individual student data collection, when collecting data via classroom administration, it is important to ensure that materials are ready. Many materials for classroom data collection will be those used for individual data collection as well. For instance, the individual responsible for administering the measure will need a timer and a copy of the directions to be read. If using one's phone as a timer, the phone's sleep mode should be turned off, the airplane mode turned on, and

the chime being used should be checked just as with use for individual data collection. Again, it is also necessary for the administrator to follow the directions verbatim. Practicing reading directions—and being comfortable with administrative guidelines—is again important for smooth data collection and obtaining accurate responses.

Another essential point to consider for group administration during universal screening includes making sure student work can be connected to folders. Appropriately labeling measures prior to providing them to students is an efficient way to do this. It is again important to consider scoring measures later, so that returning to instruction can occur as soon as possible. Last, consideration must be given to the time of day that measures will be administered. Enough time needs to be available for completion as well as to hand out measures, read directions, and collect student work.

Conclusion

Universal screening is a vital component for assisting schools with identifying students who may need additional instructional support. Universal screening data can be collected at the district, school, or student level. Results from universal screening also assist educators with effectively allocating resources to facilitate student achievement. Student data can be collected individually or in group settings. In either case, the individual responsible for administering the tool being used must be familiar with its directions and must practice administration. This increases the likelihood of accurate student responses. Familiarity with administrative guidelines, knowledge of the true time it will take to administer the measures, planning for where data collection will occur and how students will get there, and having a system for keeping student data in one place will assist in managing the classroom during universal screening.

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See also Assessment of Students; Evidence-Based Classroom Management; Instruction and Cognitive Load; Learning Disabilities

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URBAN SCHOOLS

Classroom management is about teachers' ability to manage learning opportunities, mainly curriculum and instruction, so every student is able to engage in learning. Classroom management must, then, extend beyond control and order of students and should focus on other aspects of what is necessary for student learning. Effective classroom management in urban classrooms requires meeting the diverse needs of students from cultures different from the culture of power, that is, the dominant or majority culture. This means that in urban classrooms, classroom management is also about social and political justice. In short, classroom management in urban schools is about teachers' understanding of every student in a classroom, building powerful relationships with students, and making the classroom context and content relevant and responsive to all students.

Characteristics of Urban Classrooms

Schools can be categorized generally as suburban, rural, or urban. Suburban schools tend to be situated in predominantly white communities and are relatively homogeneous in terms of higher socioeconomic status (SES) and ethnic background. Suburban students tend to score higher on achievement and proficiency tests and more often pursue postsecondary degrees; teachers in suburban schools tend to have higher educational credentials, and suburban families tend to be nuclear and more educated.

In contrast to suburban schools, urban and rural schools—due in part to structural and systemic inequity—both tend to have high concentrations of students living in poverty, high percentages of single-parent families, the least qualified or credentialed teachers, and the fewest school resources. However, compared with rural schools, urban schools are typically larger, have higher student and teacher transience, and have greater ethnic and cultural diversity, including a heavy concentration of English language learners.

Because of broken systems and many problems in urban sociopolitical environments, the phrase *classroom*

management in urban schools has extremely negative connotations. Negative and deficient conceptions of students, their abilities, and families are common in urban environments. Teachers, principals, policymakers, and the public often focus on students themselves rather than on their environments—thus, in subtle and sometimes not-so-subtle ways, people blame students for when they do not succeed academically or find them less able than their suburban and rural counterparts.

However, thinking about urban classrooms requires a focus on the institutional and systemic barriers that stifle the success of students. Blaming of students should be avoided since they are subjected to circumstances outside their control.

Institutional and systemic barriers make it difficult for teachers in urban classrooms to display their care for students and develop the best management strategies. In urban classrooms, teachers are often pressured and closely managed by administrators and are particularly pressured and managed to improve students' high-stakes test scores, to accommodate to high rates of teacher turnover and scarce resources, and to maintain order.

Under these conditions, as Haberman has reported, teachers are likely to teach mostly by giving information, posing low-level questions, assigning worksheets, giving assignments/seatwork, giving tests, assigning homework, punishing noncompliance, and grading papers—rendering students passive participants in their own learning. Although teachers in urban schools may wish to teach in more engaging ways, they can become sidetracked into negotiating institutional and systemic issues within the school.

Students tend to rebel against such teaching and management—by fighting over control with the teacher. Student resistance takes many forms—clowning and joking around in class (sometimes students laugh in order to keep from demonstrating their pain), acting out and pretending to be ill to leave class early, and *losing* assignments and forgetting materials (e.g., laptop computers, paper, pencils, books) so as to avoid work.

The Culture of Power

The seminal work of Lisa Delpit has explained the need for students from families outside the culture of power to be told explicitly the rules and consequences of those in power. Delpit explained that, for students to succeed in society, they must understand that they live in and operate in a system that is oppressive and repressive because those in power decide how one is supposed to behave. The onus is on teachers (those in power) to help students make the transition into behaving in ways that the dominant culture finds acceptable.

In order for the transition to transpire effectively, those in power must make the rules and expectations clear. Knowing *what* the culture of power actually is, *how* it works, and how power can be *achieved* are, then, important for students to understand if they are to succeed in urban classrooms. However, transformative teachers can work against this culture of power and negotiate this with students in urban classrooms.

Delpit's work also explained how students' behavior and teachers' classroom management strategies are not culturally neutral, as indicated in the following example of a White teacher's reaction to a Black teacher's way of teaching. In the words of the White teacher,

It's really a shame but she (that Black teacher upstairs) seems to be so authoritarian, so focused on skills and so teacher directed. Those poor kids never seem to be allowed to really express their creativity. (And she even yells at them.) (Delpit 1995, p. 33)

What the teacher in the passage above failed to understand was that the *Black teacher upstairs* may have been effective with her students, and students may have been learning.

Delpit explained that many African American students are accustomed to a more directive form of management outside of school—"Put down that candy," or "Go to bed"—while many White parents give directions in a less direct and less commanding sort of way. The question should not be which approach is right or wrong but which approach works with and connects with the students' prior knowledge, ways of knowing, and experiences.

Cultural considerations are critical in understanding the ways in which students conduct themselves in urban classrooms. African American students' intellectual abilities might be displayed in different ways on the basis of their cultural experiences and their socialization. For example, noting that African American children, especially males, generally have a higher level of motor activity, Janice Hale cautioned that teachers should be patient with their rambunctious and outgoing nature, and avoid pathologizing what essentially is a behavioral style—not wrong or right.

In schools where the vast majority of teachers are White, middle class, and female and students are of color and poor, there are likely to be ethnic, racial, and cultural mismatches, which result in conflicts and incongruence in the classroom. One important negative result of the cultural mismatches occurring in urban schools has been the disproportionate number of African American and poor students referred to the office for discipline problems and teachers interpreting students' behavior as being disrespectful.

However, if an African American student *talks back* or *mouths off* to a teacher, disrespect or malice may not be at the core of the student's actions. Rather, the student may be simply trying to *survive* and not engender ridicule from his or her classmates. In a similar vein, when African American students joke with a teacher after the teacher has attempted to correct some behavior, the teacher may misinterpret that behavior as being defiant or rude. The student, on the other hand, may use a joke to show there are no hard feelings on the student's part.

When harsh, repetitive, and exclusive disciplinary decisions are made in urban classrooms, students drop out, are placed in special education classes, or never reach their capacity. In many ways, teachers are dropping out on students themselves. Simply put, students are more likely to drop out of school and give up on education when they are perpetually sent to the office, expelled, and suspended—especially in urban contexts. Furthermore, when teachers and administrators find students *difficult to control*, they often do not encourage them to stay in school.

Characteristics of Effective Teachers and Teaching in Urban Classrooms

Researchers have continuously pointed to the intersection of student motivation and teacher care as central to students' engagement, success, and behavior in urban classrooms.

Motivating and caring teaching includes effort-based grading, multiple performance opportunities, increased student responsibility and choice, and validation of students' cultural heritage.

Teachers who show care empathize with their students through listening to and understanding students' perspectives and feelings—as well as by encouraging students through offering opportunities for students to engage in and share in the ownership of the curriculum. Moreover, caring teachers give students multiple chances for success and allow them to have a voice in the development of both rules and curriculum. Perhaps most importantly, caring teachers keep students in the classroom whenever possible rather than sending them outside of the classroom where their destiny is placed in the hands of a school official who may not know the particulars of students' needs and realities but who has the potential to suspend or expel students.

Research also shows that successful, caring teachers in urban schools avoid watering down the curriculum and avoid accepting mediocre work from students. Caring teachers have high expectations for their students, and their high expectations are perceived by the students themselves as a sign of care.

Studies have shown that successful teachers in urban schools connect with their students because they

understand that the behaviors (whether good or bad) are a direct result of their life experiences—both inside and outside of school. They understand that there are reasons behind the students' behavioral choices and that there are connections between students' behavior in school and what is going on at home.

In summary, through empirical research, care, trust, high expectations, and empathy have all been found as essential features in developing, fostering, and supporting student motivation and in creating effective learning contexts in urban classrooms.

Effective, Culturally Responsive Classroom Management in Urban Classrooms

What are the most effective methods, strategies, and approaches to classroom management in urban settings? To begin, consider Jacqueline Irvine's report of the following exchange between teacher Irene Washington and her students: "That's enough of your nonsense, Darius. Your story does not make sense. I told you time and time again that you must stick to the theme I gave you. Now sit down" (Irvine, 2003, p. 43). Darius, a first grader trying desperately to tell his story, proceeds slowly to his seat with his head hanging low.

An outsider observing the teacher's tone and expectations for Darius might frown upon the teacher's approach. However, this teacher's classroom management approach is grounded in a history and a reality that is steeped in care for the student's best interest. The teacher understood quite deeply that she must help Darius learn, and she must *talk the talk*. There is a sense of urgency not only for the teacher to teach but also for her to save and protect the children from the perils of urban street life.

It seems that much can be learned from teachers of color, particularly African American teachers, about classroom management in urban classrooms. Irvine has outlined several important practices among African American teachers that could be classified as culturally relevant. In particular, African American teachers often assume the role of parent surrogate, employ a teaching style filled with rhythmic language and rapid intonation, rely on repetition and call-and-response, instill high emotional involvement, use figurative language and creative analogies, employ distinctive gestures and body movements, and use students' everyday cultural and historical experiences to link new concepts to prior knowledge. They spend classroom and nonclassroom time developing a personal relationship with their students, and they often tease and joke with their students using dialect or slang to establish a personal relationship. Last and hardly least, they teach with authority.

While African American teachers may be able to provide important insight about teaching in urban

communities, there is compelling evidence that suggests that White teachers and teachers from other racial and ethnic backgrounds can be effective teachers in urban environments. Teachers not of color who are successful carry similar characteristics as their African American counterparts. For instance, they employ what some might define as strict or no-nonsense techniques and assert their authority in a caring way—by setting high expectations and not giving in to students' excuses. They too understand that the stakes are high for students of color, and they too make the rules and expectations explicit. Furthermore, successful White teachers engage in a level of racial and cultural consciousness and see themselves as members of the dominant class with some privileges they have earned and others they have not earned.

Culturally responsive classroom management is, then, a frame of mind, not simply a set of strategies or practices. According to Carol Weinstein, Sandra Tomlinson-Clarke, and Mary Curran, developing this frame of mind requires an understanding of the following: (1) recognition of one's own ethnocentrism and biases; (2) knowledge of students' cultural backgrounds; (3) understanding the broader social, economic, and political context of our educational system; (4) ability and willingness to use culturally appropriate classroom management strategies; and (5) commitment to building caring classroom communities. Culturally responsive management incorporates elements of students' home, personal, and community lives into the classroom.

Final Thoughts

Teacher education programs, education researchers, policymakers, and reformers are recognizing the need to include the urban student on their respective agendas. Changing and rejecting deficit-based notions, recognizing and embracing the expertise that students bring into the classroom, building relationships with students, and realizing that there is room for negotiation in the context of the social construction of behavior and experience are key elements in attending to the needs of students in urban classrooms.

H. Richard Milner IV

See also African American Styles of Teaching and Disciplining; Authority, Children's Concepts of; Authority and Classrooms; Cultural Diversity; Culturally Responsive Classrooms; Haitian Students; Institutional Racism; Power and Classroom Management; Rural Schools; Sociocultural Theories and Classroom Management; Underachievement and African American Students

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VIDEO-AIDED INSTRUCTION

For over one hundred years, motion pictures have been used for instructional purposes. Film was first introduced into the classroom in the early 1900s, when instructional films were added to libraries, making motion pictures an option for enhancing lectures. With the introduction of radio and an improvement in audio recordings in the 1920s, audiovisual instruction replaced the previous use of silent films. World War II led the U.S. government to produce hundreds of instructional films as a way to provide consistent training to military forces and to inform the public about the war. This also helped audiovisual technology develop in sophistication just as the new medium of television was in its early stages. The 1950s saw the birth of instructional television, allowing access to a broad array of educational programming that was broadcast to audiences across the nation. The invention of the video cassette or videotape in the 1970s and the DVD in the 1990s further developed the use of instructional video, providing increased quality and access to video materials. Currently, video streamed or downloaded from the Internet is becoming a popular method of viewing and sharing instructional video. It can be seen that as the methods of production and distribution of video content continue to evolve, the use of video as an instructional tool in the classroom remains fairly consistent.

The term *video* refers to any electronic medium that copies, records, and broadcasts moving visual images. Therefore, film, broadcast television, videotapes, DVDs, and streaming video all constitute forms of video. The term *video-aided instruction* refers to the use of any of these video forms as a part of the instructional process. This entry presents an introduction of the various ways video is utilized in contemporary American education.

Modes of Viewing

For the past few decades, instructional video has been presented primarily through the use of television sets (TVs) and video cassette recorders (VCRs) or digital video/versatile disc (DVD) players. In recent years, in addition to TVs and video players, it has become more and more common for teachers to use Internet-connected computers and projectors to present audiovisual materials to students. As new technologies continue to be developed, the modes for audiovisual materials to be presented to students are ever expanding.

DVDs/Videotapes

Videotapes were introduced in the 1970s and can still be found in many school classrooms today. Instructional videotapes present information in a linear fashion and sometimes come with additional lesson plans for teachers. Videotapes have been steadily replaced in schools by the more popular DVD, which was introduced in the 1990s. Unlike videotapes, DVDs do not rely on a linear presentation format; DVDs contain an interactive main menu from which viewers are able to select the specific content, stored within the DVD, they would like to view. Many DVDs also contain additional features along with the traditional content you may find on a videotape. These features may include behind-the-scenes footage, tutorials, quizzes, and interactive lesson plans, providing additional opportunities for students to interact with the content. DVDs can also be played using a DVD player or a computer, providing additional convenience and access.

Online Downloads

Owing in large part to the rapid expansion of the Internet, many instructional videos are now available

for download and can often be downloaded directly from the publisher's website. Teachers can purchase videos from websites and download them directly to their computers to be watched at a time of their choosing. A major benefit of downloading videos is convenience. The video can be purchased on the classroom computer and downloaded in a matter of minutes, as opposed to ordering the DVD and waiting for it to arrive in the mail or visiting the video store to make the purchase. The downloaded files can also be distributed to other computers or burned onto a blank DVD so that these videos can be watched by different people in different places on different players. In order to download videos, an Internet-connected computer is required. One drawback of downloading videos is that video files can be very large and can take up valuable space on a computer's hard drive.

Online Streaming

As accessibility to computers and strong Internet connections has increased, online streaming has increased dramatically as a method of distributing and viewing videos. To stream a video online means to view a video from a webpage without downloading the file first. There are many websites for streaming video, including YouTube and Vimeo. Amazon and Redbox, two companies that offer the purchase and rental of videos, now offer online streaming of many of their films. YouTube and Vimeo are free, advertisement-supported services, whereas Amazon and Redbox require the user to purchase the ability to stream a video.

One benefit of streaming is that videos can be viewed instantly—there is no need to travel to a physical location to purchase the video or even to wait for a video file to finish downloading before viewing. Also, nothing is downloaded onto the computer during the streaming process, so the teacher does not need to worry about the computer's available memory. Distribution of videos is also simple: links to the webpages hosting the videos can be shared as opposed to sharing large downloaded files or physical DVDs/videotapes. A drawback is that there must be a strong Internet connection to smoothly stream videos. If the Internet connection is too slow, there may be a lag in viewing of the video. The video loads as it plays, but if the loading is slower than the playtime of the video, there will be a resulting lag, a choppy starting and stopping of the video while loading catches up, which can be frustrating and decrease engagement.

Live Online Streaming

Live streaming differs greatly from traditional streaming. With traditional streaming, prerecorded

material is viewed online, but with live streaming, actions are shown in real time as they are happening. The most popular example of live streaming is online chatting and video conferencing via webcam, using programs like Skype. Live streaming can create connection between people in distant locations. Individuals can hear each other and see each other during a conversation, regardless of location, similar to a phone call but with the addition of live video. Again, a strong Internet connection, on both sides, is required to ensure smooth video and audio.

How Videos Are Used in Instruction

The use of videos as a part of instruction is commonly divided into three approaches: previewing, viewing, and reviewing. Teachers use videos to build background knowledge or introduce a topic (previewing), to present content that is the focus on the lesson (viewing), and as an engaging way to reconnect with or summarize the content that students have already learned (reviewing).

Teachers use educational videos for a variety of different purposes and with a variety of curricular content. Videos can be found in varying lengths, lasting an hour or more, which may need to be viewed over several class periods, to no more than a few seconds, which can be viewed multiple times. Videos may come in the form of full-length feature films or as brief video tutorials. There are many different ways that teachers can use video as a part of their instruction. Some teachers use videos to scaffold understanding of a new concept, which can then fuel an in-class discussion or activity. Some teachers provide students with worksheets that support the content of the videos. Teachers may ask students to write down any preexisting knowledge of the video content in a graphic organizer before the viewing of the video, they may provide students with questions or a cloze activity (fill-in-the-blanks) to fill out during the viewing, or they may have students summarize, reflect on, or respond to video content once they have finished viewing. Teachers may also hold small-group or whole-class discussions before, during or after the viewing of the video. Since videos can be played, paused, and replayed, teachers can present visually stimulating content in a controlled environment, providing on-the-spot support and discussion as topics arise.

Teachers can control video to help students focus on particular aspects of the presentation. For example, a teacher may mute the sound of a video in order to have the students focus on expression, motion, images, and color presented in the video. A teacher might strategically pause the video at particular points, encouraging students to make inferences or predictions about upcoming events. Many teachers also provide follow-up activities, paired with the video, either to check comprehension of video content or to branch off of the video content into related content areas.

Benefits of Videos

There are numerous benefits of the use of videos as an instructional tool. One major benefit is its appeal to various learning styles. As most videos contain both an audio component and a visual component, videos can appeal to learners who are not fully engaged by text-based learning materials. Video can also expose students to the sights and sounds that would otherwise be unavailable to them in a classroom setting. Students can explore the depths of the ocean and visit mountain peaks, they can explore historical sites, and they can view recordings or reenactments of important events, all without having to leave the classroom. Instructional videos can engage students in ways that text and still images alone cannot, and not only can they provide a cost-effective way for students to experience important places and events, but they can do so from the safety of the classroom. Students can view volcanoes erupting and watch dangerous science experiments take place without being put in harm's way.

Challenges

Though there are many benefits to using videos for instructional purposes, there are also some challenges. Whenever technology is used in the classroom, tech-savviness can be an issue. As more and more instructional content is moving into digital format, teachers are expected to keep up with these changes, which may include a move from video players to computers and projectors and from wired devices to wireless devices. The availability and capacity of educational technologies is so vast and ever-changing that it can sometimes be intimidating, and schools with tight budgets often lack adequate technical support or access.

Issues can also arise from improper use or overuse of videos in the classroom. It is important to treat videos as a supplement to the educational process, not as a replacement. Many teachers find that if they simply play videos for their students, with no clear learning goals or tasks, students may quickly grow unengaged. Videos are not meant to replace the teacher. Teachers still need to provide clear learning targets, activate students' prior knowledge, and create relevant activities that will support students' understanding of video content if they wish for their video-aided lesson to be successful.

What's Next?

As educational technologies continue to grow and develop, many new ways to use video in the classroom are arising. One of the newest trends in instructional video use involves online Web conferencing. Because of the recent popularity of live streaming, teachers have

begun taking their students on *virtual field trips* where, via webcam, tour guides in distant locations, such as historical sites or zoos, can walk students through areas that would otherwise be inaccessible to them. And because the videos are live, students can ask questions of the presenters and learn more about what interests them specifically. This can be a very cost-effective way of taking students to *visit* important sites that they would otherwise not have the opportunity to experience. This kind of Web conferencing is also used in some classrooms to connect virtually with pen pals in other parts of the country or world. Students can move beyond pencil-and-paper relationships with students in other areas and actually have live conversations with them.

Another recent trend is the use of teacher-created videos as a way of changing the classroom dynamic and the way class time is spent. Following instructional models such as *flipped instruction*, students watch teacher-created videos, which provide direct instruction of curricular content, outside of class as homework. This frees up class time to be spent on collaborative, hands-on activities or class discussions.

Because the technology for video production and editing has become less expensive and more widely available, not only are teachers beginning to create their own educational videos, but they are beginning to encourage their students to make educational videos as well. Some teachers are using student-generated videos as alternative assessment tools, as classroom-generated course materials, as presentation tools, and much more.

With the increased accessibility to different educational technologies, the use of video in the classroom is expanding and moving in new directions. Some schools are beginning to explore ways to differentiate instruction through the use of individual devices in the classroom, allowing students to access classroom content, such as instructional videos, at their own pace via laptops and tablets. As newer technologies continue to enhance the capabilities of the medium, video-aided instruction is likely to remain an integral part of the shifting educational landscape.

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See also Multisensory Instruction

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VYGOTSKY, LEV

Lev Semionovich Vygotsky (1896–1934) was a Russian developmental psychologist. Vygotsky maintained that, at its most basic level, what we call *mind*—higher-order forms of conscious thinking, feeling, and acting—has cultural rather than personal origins. Social interaction with others has the effect of raising the level of children’s thinking beyond that which they can sustain when working alone. Development occurs as children internalize language-based skills and understandings that have their origins in interactions with others.

To understand Vygotsky’s approach and its importance for education, consider the following anecdote: Seven-year-old Jenna cannot find her book. Her teacher asks, “Where do you remember last having it?” Jenna responds, “I had it when we went to the library, but not when I came back to class.” After her teacher asks, “Did you have it when you were walking from the library to class?” Jenna remembers that she had put her book in her backpack when she stopped to tie her shoe.

It is tempting to define the process of remembering narrowly in terms of events that occurred in the moment at which Jenna recalled placing the book in her bag. However, the child would not have been able to reconstruct the book’s location in the absence of the teacher’s questioning. As such, it is more appropriate to say that the act of remembering was something that occurred *between* the child and the teacher. The teacher’s questions were *part of the process* of the reconstruction of the child’s recollection. Later in development, when older children and adults attempt to recall the location of lost objects, they often ask themselves the same types of questions that adults had asked them in the past. Higher-order thinking (e.g., remembering) develops as children internalize skills and understandings that arise first in interactions with others—especially in exchanges that are mediated by language. This example illustrates several principles about Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory of development and educational practice:

1. A social or *interpersonal* process has become an individual or *intrapersonal* process. The development of the child’s *higher-order* capacity to remember did not spring forth from within the child. Instead, it originated in relations *between* the child and the teacher. This is expressed most clearly in Vygotsky’s *general genetic law of cultural development*, which appears in his book *Mind in Society*.

According to Vygotsky, every function in the child’s cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first, between people (interpsychological) and then inside the child (intrapychological). This applies equally to voluntary attention, to logical memory, and to the formation of concepts. All the higher functions originate as actual relationships between individuals.

In the above example, the act of remembering had its origins in processes that occurred *between* the teacher and the child. Only later are children able to do *for themselves* what they previously had done with the support of others. In older children and adults, the process of directing questions to the self becomes part of the internal process of remembering.

2. Language *mediates* the development and execution of higher-order patterns of thinking, feeling, and acting. For Vygotsky, all higher-order forms of thinking and acting (e.g., conscious attention, mathematical calculations, and using directions) are forms of *mediated* activity. A mediated action is one that requires the use of *cultural tools* for its execution. There are many types of cultural tools (e.g., pens, shovels, and computers). For Vygotsky, language (speech) is the most powerful of all cultural tools. The acquisition of the capacity to use language transforms the nature of thinking. This occurs because language has special properties that allow children to gain access to *cultural* meanings that have developed over hundreds of years of collective problem solving.

First, unlike other modes of representing meaning (e.g., personal symbols, gestures, and pictures), language (defined broadly as inherited representational systems making use of words, mathematical and musical notation, etc.) allows people to represent and communicate *shared* rather than idiosyncratic meanings. Nonlinguistic forms of representation (e.g., images, gestures, and pictures) are *idiosyncratic* in the sense that they are open to many possible meanings. For example, the symbol ♀ can mean different things to different people and in different situations (e.g., *dove*, *wing*, *peace*). As a result, it is difficult to convey complex meanings using nonlinguistic forms of communication. However, because words are used to represent meanings that are shared within a particular linguistic group, anyone who understands the English language will immediately

comprehend what is intended by the use of the word *peace*. As a result, language is the primary vehicle for communicating cultural meanings. Conveying cultural meanings is the primary business of educators.

Second, using words, humans are capable of understanding and conveying complex meanings that have no fixed meaning, no easy, one-to-one correspondence to single events and concrete experience that one can *point to*. For example, people do gain an understanding of the word *democracy* through direct experience, but there is nothing in the world that directly corresponds to the word *democracy*. Instead, *democracy* refers to a set of practices that evolved slowly over time. The meaning of the concept of *democracy* is not fixed; it could (and does) take on different meanings at different times and in different places. The word *democracy* is not a simple reflection of the structure of a preexisting *natural* world. Thus, children, in learning the cultural meaning of words like *democracy*, *mother*, *subtraction*, or *genome*, gain access to a social world of knowing that they cannot acquire on their own. Similarly, when children use language to retrace their steps to recall the location of a lost object, they think using tools that have their origins in culture. Children cannot construct on their own that which is a product of cultural history.

3. The concept of the *zone of proximal development* builds on the insight that in most learning activities, working with others has the effect of raising an individual's level of performance beyond that which one is capable of sustaining when working alone. The zone of proximal development refers to the distance between the level of performance that an individual is capable of sustaining while working alone, and the level that can be achieved when working with a more accomplished other. According to Vygotsky, development occurs as children *internalize* the results of the novel learning that occurs within the zone of proximal development. Internalization is the capacity to reconstruct on one's own operations that previously could only occur on the external plane of action.

In the example above, the teacher's questioning had the effect of raising the level of the child's capacity to reconstruct her memory beyond that which the child could achieve alone. For example, over time, a child's capacity to remember-through-retracing develops as she gains the capacity to reconstruct for herself those operations (i.e., questioning the self) that emerged between the child and the teacher in the zone of proximal development.

The concept of the zone of proximal development has important implications for teaching, learning, and development. To the extent that learners achieve higher levels of performance with the assistance of others, then learning has the effect of *stimulating* and *giving*

shape to the broader process of development. Although Vygotsky did not use the term, the concept of *scaffolding* is often used to refer to the process by which more accomplished others vary the level of structure, assistance, and direction that they provide in response to a child's moment-by-moment learning needs in the zone of proximal development. Over time, as children gain the capacity to master elements of a given task on their own, the teacher relaxes the degree of scaffolding provided and turns responsibility for task completion over to the child. At that point, however, the teacher can *up the ante* and begin to scaffold still higher levels of task activity.

4. There are no general stages of development. Higher-order patterns of thinking develop as forms of *inner speech* within particular domains, regardless of the age of an individual. Telling the time, reading a novel, reconstructing a series of facts, writing an essay, mathematical reasoning, and all similar academic practices are cultural practices that precede the birth of any given child. According to Vygotsky, development consists of the practice of acquiring cultural skills and understandings through a child's active participation in sociocultural practices. For Vygotsky, there are no broad-based domain-general stages of development. Instead, particular cultural skills develop along their own unique trajectories as children internalize the particular language-mediated practices employed by their cultural group. In general, consistent with the *general genetic law of cultural development* and the concept of *internalization*, the acquisition of any given cultural skill moves through three loosely defined trajectories. The early development of any cultural skill occurs first in the context of language-mediated social interaction between individuals. Children first learn to tell the time, make logical inferences, read a picture book, plan their day, or reconstruct past events in interactions in which others using language and other cultural tools direct and structure children's actions. Over time, as children begin to internalize their participation in social interaction, they begin to use cultural tools to regulate their thinking, feeling, and acting.

At this phase, children can be observed speaking aloud as they perform a given task or attempt to solve a particular problem. Vygotsky called this form of activity *private speech*. Private speech operates as an intermediate step in the internalization of mediated action. Children use private speech as a *tool* for regulating their thinking, feeling, and action. Private speech occurs when a 7-year-old child moves his lips during *silent* reading, when a 10-year-old retraces her steps aloud in order to locate a lost object, or when an adult utters directions to herself as she navigates to a new location. With further development, private speech

moves *underground* to form *inner speech*, which is the equivalent of fully internalized *thinking*. At this point, an individual can perform the internalized cultural skills *in the head*. Further development occurs as inner speech becomes increasingly condensed and abbreviated until inner speech dissolves into increasingly non-conscious thought.

According to Vygotsky, then, the full range of academic learning—that which is taught in schools—is the product of historical processes that have evolved within and between cultures over long periods. This includes what is taught within what is generally referred to as classroom management—how to participate in class discussions, how to negotiate conflict, how to work independently and in cooperation with others, and so forth. Children cannot and do not reconstruct cultural knowledge on their own. Although learners must be engaged in order for learning to occur, higher-order learning requires the participation of cultural agents who are able to usher children into the collective wisdom of a given culture. The development and internalization of novel forms of psychological activity is a never-ending process. It recurs anew as children and adults alike embark upon the development of any novel cultural skill, regardless of age. Accomplished writers who can *outline stories in their heads* will resort to developmentally more primitive forms of writing upon learning a new genre of writing (e.g., technical writing). Adults routinely revert to private speech whenever a task taxes available psychological resources, during stress, or when a new domain of activity is under development.

None of this is to say that individuals cannot create novel knowledge that extends existing cultural

knowledge. If that were so, cultural development would be impossible. It does imply that individual learners are never the sole authors of their own development and that the voice of the other always echoes in even the most novel of cultural achievements. What this means for classroom management is that, at their best, educators are not simply representing themselves (their special talents and acquired skills for teaching) or following the latest empirically based set of methods. At their best, educators are also effectively sharing with students the wisdom and knowledge of cultural traditions—for the purpose of students internalizing that wisdom and knowledge needed for them to live their lives fully and with effective purpose.

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See also Sociocultural Theories and Classroom Management;
Zone of Proximal Development

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W

WARM DEMANDERS

The term *warm demander* was created by Judith Kleinfeld in 1975 as a result of her work with the effective teachers of Athabascan Indian and Eskimo/Inupiat-Yupik students. Her research found effective teachers communicated personal warmth along with *active demandingness*, an insistence that students perform at a high level. In 1989, James Vasquez used this term to describe teachers who were especially successful with students of color. Jacqueline Jordan Irvine and James Fraser extended this term in 1998 to characterize teachers who hold a *tough-minded* and *no-nonsense* teaching style for students whom society has forsaken. Today, the term warm demander describes an effective, culturally responsive educator who advocates for and insists that all students can learn, must learn, and will learn through a culturally responsive teaching stance that is both demanding and supportive.

Rooted in the principles of culturally responsive pedagogy advocated by Gloria Ladson-Billings and others, teachers who employ the warm demanding stance understand that teaching is a political act. Both culturally relevant teaching and warm demanding seek to develop in people a sociopolitical consciousness that challenges the status quo. Warm demanders perceive themselves as social justice advocates for students whose opportunities for success have been underrealized. They insistently work to ensure educational opportunities and resources are equitably distributed so *all* children can actively and successfully participate in the learning process. They do this through building purposeful relationships grounded in care, understanding and honoring students' cultures, communicating high academic and behavioral expectations, and insisting that students meet those expectations. Recent research confirms the effectiveness

of this teaching stance, especially for low-income students of color.

Purposeful Relationships Grounded in Care

The need to be cared for is a basic human need that, when fulfilled, promotes healthy development. Research highlighting students' perceptions of teacher care suggests, among other things, that caring teachers are those who get to know them well, listen to them, value their opinion, prepare them well for tests, make sure they are learning, are willing and available to help, provide constructive and specific feedback, and are respectful. For students, a caring teacher respects them and insists that they learn.

Teachers who are warm demanders hold a genuine care for the whole child and a belief in each student's ability to be successful. Warm demanders understand the importance of expressing and showing students they are cared for but they do so in culturally relevant ways. Culturally relevant care is expressed through placing students' well-being at the center of all pedagogical decisions and holding an authoritative presence that relentlessly insists that all students learn. As Franita Ware's research suggests, warm demanders are both caregivers *and* authority figures in the classroom. Important to note, when teachers attempt to foster purposeful relationships with students, it matters to students who the teacher is and what are his or her intentions. Students must feel comfortable with the teacher and believe she or he has their best interests in mind at all times. Nel Noddings suggests that care must be recognized and received by students in order for care to truly matter. Warm demanding teachers understand that simply telling students they care is not sufficient; care must be constantly enacted in all they say, think, and do. For such

efforts to truly matter and make a difference, students must recognize, receive, and accept care as genuine.

Understanding and Honoring Students' Cultures

Culturally responsive classroom management advocated by Carol Weinstein, Mary Curran, and Sandra Tomlinson-Clarke requires a safe, caring, and educationally focused learning environment where each student and the classroom teacher have an authentic and positive relationship with one another rooted in the teacher's understanding of his or her student's cultural background. Understanding and honoring students, including their cultural background, is critically important to the warm demanding teaching approach.

In an effort to best support student learning, warm demanders carefully study their students to learn as much as they can about who they are, including their culture and preferred ways of learning. They interact with and teach students with the students' culture in mind. Further, these teachers understand who they themselves are and how their own cultural heritage, upbringing, and educational backgrounds shape their own perceptions of and behaviors toward their students.

Holding High Academic and Behavioral Expectations

Warm demanders hold high, yet attainable, academic and behavioral expectations for every student. These teachers perceive their high expectations as critically important for low-income students of color as a result of understanding the history and culture of low-income students of color. Warm demanders understand that many students encounter cultural barriers to success and that one way they help to remove such barriers is by holding high expectations. They do not lower their academic and behavioral standards for some students; rather, all students are supported so they can reach the standards set by them. Warm demanders utilize a variety of activities to support student learning. These teachers tend to have a well-structured classroom environment where high behavioral expectations are explicitly expressed and consistently reinforced. They understand that students misbehave; however, rather than merely blaming the students for their behaviors, these teachers actively seek to find solutions that rectify the situation so that time and attention can be spent on learning.

Insisting Students Meet Expectations

Warm demanders insist that all students meet all expectations—academic as well as behavioral. Teachers

who adhere to this teaching stance ensure students spend time doing a quality job on each assignment and only accept their highest quality work. Effort is applauded, but it is a means to the end and not the end in itself. Effort must result in a high-quality product. Insisting on quality work sets the foundation for a classroom where student engagement in learning and time on task is high. Dick Corbett, Bruce Wilson, and Belinda Williams found that effective teachers of students in low-income urban schools insist that all students complete each assignment and that each assignment is completed to a high-quality level. Further, they advocate that teachers check every student for understanding and provide extra help and support when needed. Such is the practice of warm demanders. Further, these teachers expect students to be respectful to the teacher and one another and help students create a classroom culture that supports academic achievement.

Dorene Ross, Elizabeth Bondy, Caitlin Gallingane, and Elyse Hambacher suggest warm demanders exhibit an *authoritative stance*—communicate clear expectations, restate the request or remind students of the expectation, reinforce the request, and respond to inappropriate acts. When holding students accountable for their behaviors, these teachers remain calm and respectful with a warm, yet assertive, demeanor. The dignity of the student always remains intact. They respectfully remind students of the expectation, calmly repeat the request, and, if compliance is not reached, they administer a consequence.

This firm, no-nonsense style of discipline may be inaccurately interpreted as insensitive and harsh. This is simply not the case. As Lisa Delpit, Franita Ware, and others explain, warm demanders directly assert that they expect high-quality work out of students of color, that these students are far too intelligent to behave and perform at a poor level, and that they deserve someone who holds them accountable to high academic and behavioral expectations. Students understand that the teacher's insistent stance is not about compliance with rules but stems from the teacher's concern that every student live up to his or her best future.

Final Thoughts

The warm demanding teaching stance seeks to cultivate in society a sociopolitical consciousness that challenges the status quo and insists *all* students receive opportunities to be successful in today's schools. Caring teacher-student relationships grounded in a deep understanding of students' cultural backgrounds, coupled with clear, high academic and behavioral expectations that are consistently upheld, are critical elements of the warm demanding teaching approach. It is important to hold

and communicate this teaching stance to every student starting on the first day of the school year and to constantly reflect on ways to continue to communicate warmth and demandingness throughout the year to support student success.

Cheryl R. Ellerbrock

See also African American Styles of Teaching and Disciplining; Caring Approaches; Culturally Pluralistic Classrooms; Culturally Responsive Classrooms for African American Students; Expectations: Teachers' Expectations of Students; Haitian Students; Underachievement and African American Students; Urban Schools

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WARMTH AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Warmth is a quality of relationships. As established in the introduction to this encyclopedia, classroom management depends upon relationships. However, though warmth might seem obviously necessary for good classroom management, warmth has not always been perceived as such. For example, for years the adage, “Don’t smile before Christmas,” served as an aid to teachers establishing a classroom management system that was thought to help them across the entire year. While the phrase was passed along across generations of teachers, the reality (based on research) is that sharing a smile with students is no barrier to effective classroom management. In fact, sharing a smile and other ways of showing warmth toward students plays a key role in establishing a successful learning environment.

As a quality, warmth varies considerably among individuals; however, whatever the specific expression or absence of expression may look and sound like, both warmth and lack of warmth are apparent to students, parents, and educators alike. In classrooms, the combination of two types of warmth, in particular, is critical to classroom management. Those two types are relational warmth and academic warmth. They will be the focus of this entry.

Relational Warmth

The most prominent way warmth is nurtured in the classroom is through the relationships between teacher and students. Various titles *emotional support, caring, responsiveness, nurturance, and affiliation, relational warmth* plays a major role in classroom management as it sets the tone for the interactions that occur in classrooms. For example, a teacher who demonstrates warmth in interactions with students may smile—often—for a greeting at the beginning of class, for acknowledging a student passing in the hallway, for showing delight with students’ thoughtfulness toward one another, and for friendly shared humor with the class.

However, while smiles can serve as a simple expression of warmth, they are not required for relational warmth. In fact, smiles sometimes show bias or sarcasm, in which case they undermine the development of productive teacher–student relationships. Relational warmth always avoids humiliation, inappropriate interactions, harm, and abuse.

In addition to warm smiles, teachers can show relational warmth by utilizing kind words (e.g., *please* and *thank you*), by listening attentively, and by modeling warmth in the variety of ways they communicate. When introducing students to one another, teachers enhance the warmth of their classroom hospitality. By asking about students’ family members, by paying attention to students’ interests, and by sharing stories of their own lives outside of class, teachers affirm their students’ value as people. As teachers make fair and equitable decisions and choose to see students in a positive light, they demonstrate warmth in their sensitivity to individuals and their circumstances. Incrementally, repetitions of warm acts yield a trust that produces significant and positive results.

Relational warmth’s influence is broad. All levels of students benefit from experiencing a teacher’s relational warmth. Early childhood students’ strong connections with their teachers are not only indicative of academic success at the early grades, they also predict academic success for a number of years following. For elementary-age students, strong teacher–student relationships help develop student self-regulation, and at the middle

school level, students are more motivated toward pursuing school-oriented goals and are more likely to choose prosocial behavior over irresponsible behavior when they connect with teachers through relational warmth. And the presence of a caring teacher, for high school students, leads to a marked reduction in emotional distress and a diminished likelihood of bullying, victimization, and violence.

While broad in influence, relational warmth's focus can be individually effective. For example, minority students specifically identify a teacher's warm personality, his or her care for and interest in the students' personal lives, as the catalyst for successful teacher-student relationships. In a similar vein, students from a household in poverty, who arrive in the classroom with particular disadvantages, experience compensating support through a teacher's warmth. Likewise, low-performing students become more engaged in classrooms with a teacher who has a caring personality. Comparably, English language learners use a teacher's warmth as a means to interpret conversational signals in the use of their new language.

For all students, then, a teacher's relational warmth helps promote the development of a positive, safe space in which students can interact and learn. This warmth also provides a supportive framework for responding to student misbehavior, one that increases the likelihood of student cooperation.

Academic Warmth

Despite the obvious, far-reaching benefits of relational warmth, on its own, relational warmth is not enough to help students achieve their academic potential. A second critical area for a teacher's classroom management is *academic warmth*, the connection teachers build between students and the content of a classroom curriculum. Academic warmth entails communicating *high expectations, high standards, instructional support, and demand-iness*. Furthermore, teachers demonstrate academic warmth when they know students' previous learning, present understanding, potential misconceptions, possible appropriate learning activities, and future learning needs and then blend all of these into successful instructional experiences for each student. For example, a teacher's intentional, rigorous lesson plans provide for the varieties of learners in his or her classroom, specify the instructional activities that scaffold these learners to the learning outcome, and include multiple means for him or her to check for student understanding. Poor planning typically results in a marked decrease in students' engagement and corresponding increase in students' misbehavior.

A key component of academic warmth is teachers' communicating high expectations for student achievement. This is demonstrated in specific ways. For example,

when informal and formal assessments highlight students' learning gaps, teachers showing academic warmth provide instructional assistance, support, and attention to students' concerns, all the while communicating warmth through facial expressions and tone of voice. Furthermore, teachers show academic warmth in the ways they offer multiple examples and rephrase explanations so as to increase a student's access to content. Similarly, teachers show academic warmth in the ways they prompt and guide students' participation in class in order to facilitate students' understanding. They supply timely feedback to encourage students' progress toward learning goals. They seek to motivate students to become attached to the subject matter and make their passion for the content contagious through enthusiastic presentations. They furnish assistance with schoolwork by responding to questions and challenging students to move beyond their excuses or perceived inadequacies.

Academic warmth is not a temporary quality. Rather, it is a long-term commitment to students' academic success. It invites students to engage with the content in ways that make their subsequent learning long term as well. Perhaps this is why students, in particular high-performing students, describe teachers' academic assistance as evidence that teachers care for them—they find teachers' enduring dedication to be endearing.

Conclusion: Relational and Academic Warmth in Tandem

And yet, by itself, academic warmth cannot personalize the invitation for students to learn in a classroom context, to welcome a given teacher's instruction and/or correction, or to balance students' circumstances with class requirements. Relational warmth—building productive relationships between teachers and students—and academic warmth—building effective connections between students and content—work in tandem. Teachers can learn through training to establish both relational and academic warmth in their classrooms. Teachers who exhibit this powerful combination meet the challenges of managing a classroom with both sensitivity for their students as individuals and steadfastness for their academic potential as learners.

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See also Attachment to Teachers; Caring Approaches; Exemplary Teachers; Expectations: Teachers' Expectations of Students; Teacher-Student Relationships; Warm Demanders

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WELCOMING GREETINGS AT THE BEGINNING OF THE SCHOOL YEAR

Students have varying attitudes about attending school. For some students, school is a fun experience and an opportunity to meet new friends and learn exciting things with a caring teacher. For others, school can be a

terrifying place. For some students, the very thought of returning to school after a summer respite can bring on a panic attack and school phobia. Other students who may be overly dependent upon their loving parents may experience an attachment disorder known as separation anxiety. Still others, who may be less socially experienced, may experience social anxiety. Such is the case with a good many students with autism, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, learning disabilities, and speech anxiety. For students who have changed schools, the thought of moving to a new school may be a time for grieving the past and fearing the future. For international students, cultural customs must be learned by the teacher and the student. The challenge to become bilingual can make some students nonparticipatory. Others may feel marginalized if the curriculum contains mostly Western content. Students who observe harsh parental interactions prior to school may worry about home life. Perfectionistic parents may cause students to feel that they will be failures if they do not perform well. Many students are diagnosed with recurrent mental health challenges such as obsessive compulsive disorders, state anxiety disorders, depression or dysphoria, bipolar disorder, or attachment disorder and must be accommodated within the inclusive classroom.

As can be seen, students come to school with a wide range of attitudes and attributions. What they all have in common is that they need to feel safe, cared for, and respected in the classroom. That job starts with welcoming greetings at the beginning of the school year. The suggestions that follow apply mostly to elementary school classrooms. However, there are some principles embedded that apply to preschool, middle school, and high school classrooms as well.

The Eight Functions of Welcoming Greetings

First, well before the students arrive, the effective teacher makes sure that the teaching environment is functional yet appealing to students and parents. A clean, well-organized classroom environment makes a statement that what is going on is important, creative, interesting, and maybe even fun.

Second, it is important that students see the classroom as their own; something in which they have an investment. The walls might be decorated with their pictures along with some interesting information about their hobbies, families, pets, and friends. The students might even adopt a special name for their class, or a mascot. Students should understand that they need to help in keeping their classroom organized, socially positive, and creative. That is the nature of a cooperative classroom.

Third, it is the responsibility of the welcoming teacher to have cubbies, labels, name tags, and class lists ready so that students and parents understand that the teacher has been expecting them. The welcoming teacher should be eager to set a positive social atmosphere wherein everyone gets to know each other, further becoming friends and perhaps even peer tutors. The effective teacher makes sure to welcome new students to the classroom with a WELCOME sign and perhaps words of support written in their native languages. Students themselves can be encouraged to write words of welcome to each other on the welcome sign.

Fourth, a teacher can create a message board upon which students and teacher can place fun facts to share with the rest of the class, such as a fun trip their family took, a special birthday for Grandma, the title of a book they enjoyed, a picture of their dog or cat, the cafeteria menu, feelings about the class, and upcoming field trips. In this way, parents and students can feel that they are entering a supportive learning environment, and the essential bonding process is started. It is the beginning of a learning community and a sense of *belongingness* wherein students feel like this classroom is home away from home.

Fifth, a teacher can ensure that students have a connection to their family by posting pictures of their family having fun together. Families themselves should be assured that their student will feel supported and cared for at school. In order to establish this bond with parents and students, it is imperative that teachers learn the names of the parents and students as soon as possible.

Sixth, a teacher can recruit parents to volunteer in the classroom as paraprofessionals or tutors. It can be a valuable opportunity for parents to see firsthand that their child is cared for and any necessary accommodations and adaptations for special needs are being made.

Seventh, when the students and parents enter the classroom, they should be greeted with a warm and sincere, "Welcome, glad you are here," accompanied by a smile to show that the teacher cares and that the teacher is approachable. Some young students may seek out a hug from their teacher when they enter and leave the classroom. Some children may not get that physical form of caring at home and may seek it out in the classroom. There are ethical and legal reasons why the teacher is well advised to be cautious about touching students when greeting them. The fist bump, high five, handshake, or pat on the back might be just the right option.

Eighth, although the teacher should be authoritative with classroom expectations, some flexibility is needed while students are learning new rules, routines, and procedures. Supportive assistance should be liberally provided as students struggle to meet expectations.

Conclusion

Welcoming and greeting students in this manner helps ensure that students, parents, and teacher form a bond that will be the foundation for future learning. Welcoming at the beginning of the school year is essential as a foundation for the creation of a positive and supportive learning environment.

Robert G. Harrington

See also Beginning the School Year; Caring Approaches; Conditions for Learning

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WHOLE-CLASS MEASUREMENT OF DISRUPTIVE BEHAVIOR

Few teachers collect any reliable and valid data on the effectiveness of their plans for managing the behavior of their whole class. The information that is collected is anecdotal and/or fraught with unreliability and bias. This entry describes methods that have been used as well as newer methods that can be used to reliably assess the effectiveness of classroom management plans.

Background

Disruptive student behavior in schools is a serious problem for society because it diminishes learning and school connectedness. More specifically, studies have shown that disruptive student behavior is correlated with a range of student educational and social outcomes. Studies in this area confirm that the ability of the teacher to successfully manage disruptive behavior is one of the most important factors in school learning.

The importance of measuring the degree and intensity of disruptive behavior at all levels in schools is as critical to school learning as the curriculum and the delivery of instruction. The next section reviews some methods of measuring disruptive behavior and positive behaviors at the classroom level and above.

Instruments for Evaluating Whole-Class Environments

Approaches for evaluating the environment of a classroom include observation and classification of

interpersonal interactions, ethnographic or naturalistic inquiry, and student and teacher perceptions of the classroom. Rationales for using perception-based tools such as pencil-and-paper methods are that they are more efficient and less expensive than observation or naturalistic inquiry, and surveys of perceptions capture information obtained across a longer time span than the time-limited methods.

Research on perception-based instruments conducted during the 1970s focused on the features of various environments, including educational settings and treatment institutions, as perceived by members. These classroom environment scales include the Classroom Environment Scale (CES), the Learning Environment Inventory, the Quality of School Life Scale, the My Class Inventory, the Individualized Classroom Environment Questionnaire, the Classroom Atmosphere Scale, and the Learning Preference Scale—Students. All of these instruments measured student and, in some cases, teacher and parent perceptions of the classroom environment.

More recently, the What Is Happening in This Class survey has been used by both students and parents to measure perceived classroom characteristics, including Teacher Support, Student Cohesiveness, Task Orientation, Equity, and Investigation. More recent studies designed to ascertain the relationship between students' perceptions of their learning environment and achievement found that the factors of teacher support, promoting interaction, and promoting mutual respect were negatively correlated with disruptive behavior, and that achievement was negatively related to disruptive behavior and positively correlated with teacher support.

Behavior Rating Scales

Scales for Assessing Problem Behaviors

A number of instruments have been validated for use by teachers in the identification of the behavioral difficulties of individual students. These include the Child Behavior Checklist and the Behavior Assessment System for Children. They are perhaps the best-known tools for assessing the type and severity of individual students' social/emotional and behavioral difficulties. Other individual instruments include the Behavior Rating Profile and the Conners' Rating Scales—Revised. These instruments are useful for determining whether an individual student displays behaviors that are significantly elevated or depressed compared to those of peers.

The Adjustment Scales for Children and Adolescents and the Adjustment Scales for Preschool Intervention provide a more contextual approach to behavior rating by listing specific classroom situations in which problematic behaviors may be observed. The Instructional Environment System-II and Functional Assessment of

Academic Behavior are designed to collect information from the student, teacher, and observer with respect to an individual student's functioning in the classroom and the impact of classroom variables on the student.

Strength-Based Scales

In addition to evaluating problem behaviors, positive learning behaviors related to achievement and prosocial behaviors identified by teachers as necessary for good classroom functioning have been evaluated. Michael Epstein recommended a strength-based approach in the measurement of children's emotional and behavioral functioning to identify the resources available for growth, as well as to adopt a broader and more comprehensive ecological perspective on social performance. His model informed the construction and validation of the Behavioral and Emotional Rating Scale (BERS), a tool developed to identify students with serious emotional disturbance and to assist in treatment planning.

Other strength-based scales include the Classroom Behavior Rating Scale (CBRS), which identifies both positive and negative behaviors that impact classroom learning. Several other tools based on the identification of strengths include The Walker-McConnell Scale of Social Competence and School Adjustment, which assesses positive, prosocial behaviors and school adjustment from the teacher's viewpoint. The School Social Behavior Scales, 2nd Edition, and the Home and Community Social Behavior Scales evaluate both social and antisocial behavior along several dimensions that impact students' abilities to function effectively with others in their classrooms and in their communities.

Scales that measure social, adaptive, and behavior problems or even the classroom environment related to a single student are not designed to capture the behavior of the whole class as the unit of analysis. In addition, many of these scales were created to detect psychopathology through individual behavior ratings and not to assess the aggregated effects of the classroom environment on learning. In addition, scales that focus on the individual student are also prohibitively expensive in terms of time to complete them for a whole class of students.

Office Discipline Referrals

One ubiquitous approach in American education that teachers use for managing disruptive student behavior is to send misbehaving students to the office. This practice is referred to as making an Office Discipline Referral (ODR). Many schools and districts keep a record of ODRs and use these data to assess the effectiveness of schoolwide, districtwide, or statewide initiatives. There is controversy about the use of ODR data for educational decision making, especially for schoolwide

Figure 1 Sample Items From the CBAS

CBAS Rating Scale

| 0 | 1-2 | A few students | About 1/4 of the class | About 1/2 of the class | About 3/4 of the class | Most of the class | All of the class |
|---|-----|----------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|-------------------|------------------|
|---|-----|----------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|-------------------|------------------|

CBAS Items, Part 1: Assets

Part 1. Please check the box [X] on each row that corresponds to the number of students in your class who possess each of the following **assets, strengths, or skills**

1. Following directions within reasonable time period
2. Taking responsibility for own actions
3. Accepting feedback
4. Paying attention in class
5. Cooperation with peers, ability to work with others

CBAS Items, Part 2: Problem Behaviors

Part 2. Please check the box [X] on each row that corresponds to the number of students in your class who possess each of the following **problem behaviors**.

1. Bullying, intimidation, threats
2. Teasing or taunting peers, name calling, put downs
3. Easily angered or upset, angry outbursts
4. Defiance, noncompliance
5. Arguing, rudeness, or disrespect to teacher or other adults
6. Destruction of school property, misuse of materials
7. Unhappy, sad, or depressed

Source: Lee, S. W., Shaftel, J., Neaderhiser, J., & Schuttler, J. (2010, April). *Measurement of whole-class behavior: A validity study*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Denver, Colorado.

initiatives designed to prevent or reduce disruptive student behavior.

Low-to-moderate correlations between ODRs and teacher ratings of the behavior of individual students have been found, and they were especially poor for detecting internalizing problems such as anxiety or depression. Studies that summarized the research literature on this topic concluded that there are so many factors (e.g., teacher's tolerance for misbehavior, school rules, and classroom rules) that influence the likelihood that teachers will send a student to the office that aggregated ODR data, especially across schools and districts, lacked validity.

While some studies have shown that ODR data appear to be sensitive to schoolwide reform or interventions, they are susceptible to low teacher tolerance

for misbehavior and bias, especially toward African American students. ODRs occur at the end of behavioral chains, thus leaving various behaviors that occur before the making of the ODR unmeasured. There are varying criteria for making an ODR, resulting in poor rater reliability. In addition, ODRs seem more likely to occur in classrooms with weak classroom management.

New Methods of Measuring Behavior for the Whole Class

Over the past several years, Steven Lee and Julia Shaftel have been developing a scale to assess the behaviors and assets of the whole classroom of students. This instrument, titled the Classroom Behavior and Asset Survey

(CBAS), was developed to allow teachers quick and easy assessment of student problem behavior and assets at the classroom level and above. The survey has 24 items each for problem behaviors and assets and takes 5–8 minutes to complete. Sample items from the CBAS teacher rating survey are shown in Figure 1. The survey has been shown to have excellent reliability, and multiple factor analytic studies have confirmed the factor structure of the instrument. The CBAS possesses a six-factor structure: five problem behavior factors (antisocial behavior, attention problems, low achievement, social isolation, and internal distress) and one asset factor.

The CBAS is designed to provide anonymous quarterly or semiannual appraisal of classroom, school, and district student behaviors that may detract or contribute to optimal functioning. It is intended for use as a classroom and building improvement tool, not as a teacher evaluation instrument. The CBAS can also be used for resource allocation or to identify professional development needs. Teachers may obtain individual classroom reports for guidance and consultation purposes, while principals and other administrators see only profiles aggregated across classrooms.

Conclusion

Assessing the behavior of the whole class, school, or district is critically important for evaluating school reform initiatives or whole-classroom interventions designed to reduce such problems. Moreover, the strong relationship between classroom problem behaviors and school learning compels the school professional to seek a method to regularly monitor disruptive behavior.

Unfortunately, tools that measure the school climate do not provide the level of detail needed to determine if interventions are affecting the disruptive behavior of students. Individual behavior rating scales developed to detect psychopathology or behavior problems with the individual student are expensive and time consuming to complete. ODRs seem to be somewhat sensitive to large-scale school reform, but they do not have adequate reliability and validity to be used as whole-class or school monitoring tools. Further, ODRs have been shown to be prone to bias by teachers who deliver the intervention. Finally, new instruments such as the CBAS offer promise as reliable, valid, and inexpensive monitoring tools for regularly collecting data on the behavior of whole classes of students.

Steven Lee

See also Assessing and Promoting Treatment Integrity; Assessing Classroom Management; Assessment of Teacher–Student Relationships; Detention

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WHOLE-CLASS METHODS

Classroom disruptions and problem behaviors in general are most likely to occur when a teacher is requesting that students (1) start some new activity; (2) stop what they are doing; (3) transition from one activity or location to another; and (4) maintain attention. During these times, teachers are wise to adopt a good many *whole-class methods* designed to prevent disruptions and problem behaviors. Furthermore, at their best, whole-class methods not only prevent problem behaviors; they also enhance teaching. As such, they follow in the tradition of Jacob Kounin's groundbreaking research that established the need to focus on prevention as well as on integration of teaching and discipline. This entry provides a variety of examples of whole-class methods for preventing problem behavior and for creating good learning environments by managing these times that invite unwanted behaviors.

Whole-Class Methods for Starting a New Activity

When a teacher is ready to start a lesson, the whole class must be signaled to pay attention. A whistle, bell, chimes, or a simple handclap may suffice. Some teachers may use a more creative method, such as writing START on the board and erasing one letter from the word every few seconds until all students are attending.

Another whole-class method to get the attention of the whole class is the *Class-Yes* method. The teacher signals for the attention of the whole class by saying, “Class.” Students respond in unison with, “Yes”; however, they must do so with the same tone, tenor, and loudness as the teacher. So, if the teacher uses a gravely and loud voice, then the students must respond with a “Yes” in the same gravely, loud voice. Students are thus required to be responsive and to think when they respond. Furthermore, this method gets learning started in a humorous way that invites cooperation.

Hands and Eyes is a start method to ensure that students’ hands are not bothering others, and that students are processing the instructions visually. Using this method, the teacher says *hands and eyes*, and students respond by folding their hands together while looking toward the teacher for *start* directions.

The *Mirror* method can help with the start of an activity if there are directions being given involving steps. So, if a teacher is giving directions with steps, students might mirror the teacher by counting the steps with their fingers and by pantomiming with their hand movements what is to be done.

In addition to having some method to alert students that it is time to start an activity, effective teachers also communicate that they will be watching all areas of the class—by stationing themselves in more than just the front of the classroom so that each student will have equal opportunity for close contact with the teacher, and so that unmotivated students won’t escape into the corners of the classroom to engage in side conversations or off-task behavior in general.

Whole-Class Methods for Stopping an Activity

Timeliness and getting work done on time should be criteria to help students develop good work habits and understand what it means to complete an assignment on time. For older children and adolescents, samples of excellent, good, fair, and poor work from past years can be shared anonymously with the whole class so that students know when their work has met a mastery criterion set by the teacher and so they can use this knowledge to help them determine when to stop working.

However, for all occasions having to do with students needing to stop what they are doing, there need to be methods in place to making the process of stopping go smoothly. Timers with buzzers are a must for groupwork that is timed work. A *Work Zone Stoplight* can signal to the whole class that they should speak in whisper voices or use an indoor voice at the green light, slow down at the yellow light and, without speaking,

stop at the red light. *Choral responding* (see below) can be used as a whole-class routine just before stopping a classroom activity—to review new concepts that have just been learned. Doing so can help summarize important lesson content that might be useful just before a quiz or a test. Choral responding can also produce a *ripple effect* (to use Kounin’s apt phrase) in that students who do not understand something can learn from others’ correct responses and self-correct.

Whole-Class Methods for Making Transitions

Transitions include shifting from being out of class to being in class, moving from one class to another, and from finishing starting another. What is most essential during transitions is for students to answer the question, “What may I do now?”

Usually there are no rules for transitions between classes or between lessons, so at these times, the likelihood of misbehavior increases. There are a number of positive methods that help prevent misbehavior from happening during transitions. For example, *Whole-Class Raffle Tickets* reward students for engaging in one of a variety of preselected activities while waiting for class to start. Also, students can be given a preclass Bell Work assignment on the whiteboard, which represents individual or small-group seatwork that prepares them for the upcoming class. Examples of bell work might be, “Write a short essay question you would like to see on next week’s quiz,” or “Use the three words on the board in a sentence to help explain photosynthesis.” Each time a student is cooperative during bell work transitions, he or she wins a raffle ticket redeemable on Friday afternoons for a preferred activity, such as free time, game time, or a food treat. Students can also benefit and feel rewarded for their bell work by having a version of their quiz question selected for inclusion on an upcoming exam, or they can gain bonus points for correctly using the three words provided to explain photosynthesis.

Password is another active response strategy that requires students to answer a question correctly before changing to a new activity or exiting the classroom to another class. For example, naming the capital of a particular state in the United States, or the largest city in a country in Europe, or the longest river in South America can serve as a password. Of course, the level of challenge in each question can be adjusted to accommodate the skill level or the content area for each student. Using the password method, students are randomly called upon to answer questions, thus making password a whole-group activity that slows down the rush to exit the classroom and reduces the commotion often associated with transitioning to a

new lesson. Finally, password can be used in combination with choral responding when groups of students need to exit the class or change locations in a classroom. Each of several cohort groups of students must respond in unison to a question posed by the teacher before they are permitted to move to the next class or before they move locations within a classroom.

For those times when the planned lesson has ended and when there is not enough time to start a whole new lesson, the teacher might try a number of end-of-the-class strategies. *What Do You Know?* is one such end-of-class game. In this game, every student's name is placed on index cards. Each student who is randomly chosen is asked to pick a question from a hat, and every student gets a chance. If students get the answers to the questions asked of them right, they are given bonus points in the class.

Sponge is another end-of-class strategy to usefully fill the time left in class. Pairs of students are asked to list facts related to what they learned in the day's lesson. The five pairs of students in the class with the most facts are given bonus points. Student pairs are rearranged daily.

Round Robin is yet another end-of-class transition activity, one that requires students to tell a story about what they learned in class that day. The teacher starts the chain of responses with, for example, "Psychology is the scientific study of human behavior," and then turns to a student in the class who must continue the chain with a relevant remark such as, "There are many fields of psychology such as child psychology." The teacher continues to point to students randomly to continue the chain. Only one student can speak at a time, but no student knows when he or she will be called upon to continue the chain, so everyone needs to pay attention, and the whole class needs to be quiet until the end of class. If the class is able to complete the chain successfully, then the whole class can be rewarded for their group success.

Another whole-class game that can be used for transitions at the end of class is *Basketball*. In the last few minutes before transitioning from one class to the next, questions are posed to individual students on a piece of paper. If students are able to respond correctly to the question, they get to keep the paper, crumple it up, and at the end of class, shoot the paper basketball into the trash basket. For each basket shot made successfully, students get a point, and the student with the most points at the end of the week gets his or her picture posted next to a famous pro basketball player. This method often has a ripple effect in the classroom in that students will be motivated academically for the opportunity to show off their knowledge and shooting prowess in front of the rest of the class, and the rest of the class is often motivated to compete to do the same.

Whole-Class Methods to Maintain Attention

Effective teachers know how to *read* the whole class. They know when it is time to keep the momentum by moving on to a new topic, and they do so by avoiding digressions and diversions that get the class off topic. To maintain whole-group focus, teachers may ask random questions to random students, ask students to provide feedback of peers on their peers' presentations, and sometimes ask the whole class to reflect in a personal journal about what they should be doing and how they can get back on task if they have been having problems staying on task.

There are many strategies to get and maintain the attention of students. For example, *Choral Responding* is a whole-class method in which students respond in unison. Choral responding encourages active student participation and provides students opportunities to review knowledge at the start or during a lesson. For example, a teacher might ask simple factual questions about history (e.g., Who was the first U.S. president?), or math facts (e.g., How much is 10 plus 9?), or science (e.g., Do all objects fall at the same rate?). Teachers receive efficient formative feedback at the start of the class about whether their students comprehend what has been taught and are ready to start a new concept.

A technology-based version of choral responding includes *clickers*. Students respond to multiple-choice or true-or-false questions posed to them on a whiteboard with their own remote control *clicker*, and their collective responses show up on the whiteboard as feedback for the whole class. Research has shown that frequent choral responding at the start of instruction contributes to improved learning outcomes and early identification of students needing instructional assistance before moving on and helps overcome student inertia and increase momentum.

Cognitive Maps provide a fun way for students to organize course material in their own ways. Depending upon the size of a class, there might be five teams of five students each. Eight course concepts are written on tag board. Each team gets a different set of concepts. Teams are given 2 minutes to share their understanding of the various concepts. Next, on the count of three, individual students on each team are asked to place their concept on the whiteboard as quickly as possible so that each concept is spatially arranged with regard to its relationship to other concepts from the team. Whole groups of students have 30 seconds to complete their cognitive map. Some relationships may be depicted hierarchically, some linearly, some systemically. Finally, each student from a team must explain how the concept he or she placed on the

whiteboard is related spatially to other concepts in that team's cognitive map.

Think–Pair–Share is a ripple-effect strategy for cooperative learning that encourages whole groups of students to maintain attention by analyzing questions. *Think*: Students ponder the question by themselves. *Pair*: Pairs of students share their thoughts together. *Share*: Pairs of students share their ideas with the whole class. In addition to helping maintain attention, this method helps students to internally organize and retain ideas and share ideas with others, including shy students and those whose first language is a language other than English.

Jigsaw is another whole-group technique that helps maintain attention. To illustrate, suppose that the lesson is on Lincoln's Gettysburg Address. Students are randomly divided into groups of five. In each group, one student might research the significance of Gettysburg as the location for the address. Another student might research the Civil War as the historical context for the Gettysburg Address. A third student might describe the issue of slavery at the time and its relevance to the Gettysburg Address. A fourth student might describe the implications of the Gettysburg Address for politics and society today. The fifth student might describe Lincoln's struggle to maintain a Union in the face of secession threats and the relevance of this struggle to the Gettysburg Address. Next, each of the five *experts* for each of the five topics in each group convenes with his or her *expert* peers from other groups to share ideas and to clarify issues. Finally, *experts* on each of the five topics reconvene with their original group to share what they discovered on their own and what they learned from the other *experts* on their respective topics.

Taking lecture notes can be a boring and arduous task. To break this cycle, students can be taught a more creative approach to understanding the course material and maintain attention by forming groups of five or six and creating a product to show their understanding of the lesson in the form of a brochure, a collage, or a mobile. Students share, explain, and display their creations with the whole class.

Give and Receive is yet another whole-class activity in which half the class is provided questions about a lesson, while the other half is provided the answers to the questions on index cards. *Giver* students (those who have answers) move to each *Receiver* station and must give them the index card with the correct answer to the respective question asked by the *Receiver* before the end of a 20-second time limit. One point is given for each correct answer provided to each *Receiver*, and the *Receiver* tallies points for each student. Next, students change positions and *Receivers* become *Givers*. In this way, the whole class has been quizzed over the lesson. This whole-class method is a motivating way to

formatively assess the readiness of students for a quiz or to move on to a new topic.

Around the Room is a competitive instructional technique. The class is divided randomly into two equal halves constituting teams facing each other. The teacher alternates asking questions of each team. Students who miss a question are asked to sit down. The last boy or girl standing has won for his or her team. This method is fun, high-energy, and piques a good-natured competitive spirit in the whole class.

Positive Reinforcement of Incorrect Answers keeps students on their toes by the teacher deliberately giving the wrong response to a question or by the teacher deliberately positively reinforcing an incorrect answer from a student. Students in the class are asked to identify the incorrect answer, figure out if the so-called wrong answer could be the answer to another question, or in what way the answer is at least partially correct, thus providing students a safe environment to take a chance to contribute.

Wait Time is a whole-class strategy used to both maintain attention and help students become more reflective. When a teacher asks a question, the teacher waits a few seconds before soliciting a student response. Research has shown that more students will try to answer questions if given some time to stop and think. Wait time gives students the opportunity to think through their answers. "Hands up, palms open" shows that the teacher is communicating that the students should stop and think. "Hands down, palms closed" communicates that the teacher is ready for the response. Whole classes of students can respond with hand signals by showing "Thumbs Up" for *Agree*; "Hands Waved Across Each Other" for *Disagree*; "Hands Moving Back and Forth Overhead" for *I do not know or I am confused*; and "Hand Behind Ear" to show *I can't hear*.

Whole-Class Culturally Responsive Instruction maintains attention and involvement even in culturally diverse groups of students—by incorporating elements of students' daily lives into instruction. Culturally relevant elements of the whole class include language, previous knowledge, interests, family heritage and traditions, music, customs, religions, attitudes, values, and personal background relevant to the topics under discussion.

Finally, with respect to whole-class methods for maintaining attention and involvement, whole-class methods that engage students in *Service and Community-Based Learning* give moral purpose to learning. For example, students in a ninth grade social studies classroom might engage in social action as a whole class by designing, planting, and tending to a school-based garden and have the products from the garden donated to a local food pantry. Sixth graders might become peer reading tutors for kindergarteners and then share their experiences with the entire class. An entire class of fourth graders

might be challenged to develop a business or service that would benefit their neighborhood. Each of these whole-class activities helps students develop their personal values and understand that their responsibility as learners is a responsibility not just to themselves and their families, but also to the whole class and larger communities outside their class.

Conclusion

Whole-class methods are efficient and effective ways of helping students get started on schoolwork, stop work when they need to stop, transition smoothly from one activity to another, and maintain attention throughout a lesson, project, or some other class activity. Teachers can choose from a host of positive whole-class methods to meet the various challenges when preventing problem behavior and keeping even diverse groups of students attending, engaged, and moving in the direction that teachers want an entire class to move. Each of the methods mentioned in this entry may be simple to understand, but, as is the case with any teaching method, implementing them successfully may take time, self-correction, and guidance from outside mentors and colleagues. With time and good practice, however, each can provide a useful support for creating and maintaining a vibrant learning community.

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See also Active Student Responding; Choral Response; Cooperative Learning Groups; Culturally Pluralistic Classrooms

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management often go hand in hand. They do so because students who are thoughtfully engaged in expressing themselves through writing typically contribute to creating a successful learning environment. However, utilizing writing so as to create good learning environments requires concerted effort and refining techniques over time. In particular, for writing to become an effective tool for creating good learning environments, teachers must utilize writing in at least four areas, namely, pre-learning, during-learning, and post-learning activities, as well as in addressing student misbehavior. These areas are discussed in the following sections, along with how technology sometimes enhances and sometimes undermines writing's potential for improving classroom management.

Pre-Learning Activities

As students enter the classroom, they need a focus activity. Many well-maintained classrooms make that focus activity a journal entry. To help with their journal entry, students may have a spiral-bound notebook, a place set aside in their folder or notebook, or a computer file that they open each day to complete their journal assignment. Their journal topics may be personal in nature, focused on instructional themes, or some combination.

The benefits of using journals are well documented. Journals build rapport and positive relationships between teachers and students. By asking personal interest questions such as “What is the most important thing to you and why?” teachers “hook” their students with highly engaging topics that are easy for students to respond to. In addition, personal interest topics enable teachers to learn more about their students and make connections with them both as they respond to students' journal entries and in later conversations. Furthermore, using journals and personal interest topics enables teachers to gain greater insight into their students and to build trust.

Journals also provide opportunities for students to put their thoughts into words for a potential audience. Unfortunately, across the curriculum, writing is not always emphasized, so journals enable teachers to offer students a relatively easy way to practice this much-needed skill of putting thoughts into words for a potential audience. Furthermore, the more students write, the more confident they typically become in their ability to write well. This confidence leads to more engaged students and, in turn, to a higher-performing classroom.

In addition, students benefit from seeing their teacher also engaged in journal writing. Teachers who take the time to engage in this type of modeling find that students benefit from seeing a real writer in action—someone who makes grammatical mistakes, who has to pause to think before elaborating on a point, and who is

WRITING AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

From the later elementary school years up through the senior year in high school, writing and classroom

willing to share of herself or himself with an audience. Such modeling requires effort, but the dividends are worthwhile when students discover that writing is not a magic act that only certain people can perform; they learn that writing well can be accomplished by anyone willing to practice and persist.

Yet another valuable use of journals as a pre-learning strategy is to use compelling questions that tap into students' prior knowledge and that pique interest and discussion in preparation for the day's instruction. Compelling questions that relate to the content planned for the day inspire students to think and *get their wheels turning* in anticipation of new learning. They help students make meaningful connections to new material and have a clear understanding of how the new material connects to information with which they have some familiarity.

During Learning Activities

During learning activities, writing naturally plays an important role in engaging students. It is well documented that when students record notes or personal responses during a learning activity, they are more likely to recall and retain the information being shared.

Writing during learning activities comes in many forms, including note taking, vocabulary enrichment activities, discussion responses, and recording questions and comments to material in the margins of the text. These and other forms of writing actively involve students in their learning and help keep their focus on the assigned material. Therefore, when teachers guide their students in writing as they are learning, they increase the likelihood that students will stay on task, learn the material, and contribute to a successful classroom setting.

Various writing tasks may be assigned to achieve on-task behavior. For instance, students may be asked to take notes as they are reading or listening to teachers imparting new information. Teachers can provide fill-in-the-blank note sheets, have their students take notes utilizing a particular style (such as Cornell notes), or complete a specialized graphic organizer.

Whatever the task selected for recording important information, the teacher will want to model the expected writing behavior in advance or prior to having students work independently. As with pre- and post-learning activities, students also respond well when they see the teacher modeling by completing a similar note-taking activity concurrently.

On-task behavior also increases when students write in response to in-text discussion questions and personal comments addressing the points or ideas being covered. Promising research demonstrates that students are more highly engaged and learn more from text when they can

pose questions and record comments in the margins as they read.

Writing in response to discussion questions and personal comments also promotes critical thinking, teachers' understanding of how their students are interacting with the information, and sustained focus of the learner's attention on key points. Furthermore, it also provides opportunities to share personal thoughts and ideas. In addition, such writing benefits both teachers and students by permitting more authentic engagement with the material students are responsible for learning.

Vocabulary enrichment offers yet another reason for writing to become a regular part of the learning process. Vocabulary notebooks promote writing and vocabulary retention and are a viable means of having students actively engage with the material they are learning. For lifelong success, students must learn a considerable number of new terms each school year, and writing is a crucial component of vocabulary instruction. As students encounter new vocabulary, they need opportunities to record definitions, parts of speech, antonyms, and so on, but more importantly, they need to use the new vocabulary in sentences of their own making.

Post-Learning Activities

Learning obviously does not end when the lesson concludes. In an effective classroom environment, long after class is over students continue to process information and grapple with its implications. Writing, as a vital means of critical thinking and communication, should thus be an important aspect of the learning process as a lesson winds down. Some of the common ways in which teachers utilize writing for closure include text reformulation, summarizing, and learner reflection.

Text reformulation is a writing activity in which students take one type of text and make it into another kind. This is helpful when students have challenging reading assignments and when teachers need assurance that students understand the main ideas and themes. Some common forms of texts for students to write include narratives, newspaper articles, poems, short stories, or even ABC books. The benefit of this type of writing is that it involves creative and critical thinking and demonstrates the students' understanding of the lesson content.

A second writing strategy for learning is summarizing, which involves having a student succinctly, but without losing the major points, put into words the meaning of what has been covered. Students may struggle with such a task, with some being unable to rephrase the information without borrowing directly from the material, others wanting to include every detail, and still others glossing over the main idea in favor of a quick but

inaccurate or insufficient summation. Summarizing is a valuable skill that students need to understand, but it must be modeled and practiced frequently to build proficiency.

Learner reflection is an increasingly important aspect of classrooms as teachers recognize the value of having students take ownership of their learning and make connections that extend beyond a test or short project. Having students write about the key points they have taken from a lesson helps to solidify their experience and ensure more in-depth processing of the material that was covered. In something as informal as an *exit slip* returned to the teacher as class is ending, students may write a few sentences describing what they learned, any connections they were able to make to previous learning, and how they will use the information they have gained. The time taken to engage in reflective writing promotes a more in-depth learning experience for students, and teachers benefit from knowing exactly what their students are taking away from the lesson.

Writing to Address Student Misbehavior

Effective teachers often require students to reflect on their poor behavior choices with the expectation or hope that the behavior will not be repeated. A logical part of self-reflection can involve writing about one's behavior choices. Teachers may choose to have students write a letter to their parents detailing the situation or behavior and then follow it up by having the parents sign the letter to be returned to school for filing. Such a consequence typically deters inappropriate behavior because it makes the student accountable to his or her parents for a detailed description of his or her misbehavior.

Alternately, teachers may have students respond in writing to a few questions detailing the inappropriate activity, either in a central location in the classroom (for example, a corner set aside as an area for reflection) or at their desks using a preprinted sheet. In having students respond to questions, teachers may specifically tailor the reflection to ensure that students have a focus for their writing and gain the maximum benefit from the experience. Students with less confidence or practice in writing letters may find the structure of responding to specific questions more appealing. Whatever the method, having students write about their behavior is a worthwhile activity to promote self-awareness and an increased likelihood of more positive future choices.

Technology: Friend or Foe?

Learning environments are increasingly becoming technology-rich, and research supports technology's

benefits for effective writing in the classroom setting. However, studies also consistently point to the potential for students to become distracted by technology, a challenge that may become a management issue for teachers. While technology provides students with exciting tools for word processing, conducting research, and editing, technology also permits students to engage in off-task behaviors, including playing online games, socializing during instruction, and seeking inappropriate content. Teachers generally welcome technology as part of their writing instruction, but they recognize the need for appropriate training and procedures to ensure the safest, most effective learning environment possible.

Concluding Remarks

Writing has not always been considered in discussions of classroom management. But now, with classroom management being more clearly defined as the process of creating good learning environments, writing clearly belongs in the discussion—as a tool to engage students, help them think, and help them learn. Furthermore, and as this discussion has indicated, writing can be woven into the fabric of the classroom even when there is no lesson or planned learning activity taking place—to help students get ready for a lesson or carry over what they have learned from a lesson, or simply to better reflect on their own behavior.

Janice R. Jett

See also Active Student Responding; Self-Regulated Learning; Story Writing; Technology for Struggling Readers

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Z

ZONE OF PROXIMAL DEVELOPMENT

Children's cognitive development is greatly enhanced by collaborative experiences with others. By working on a task with a more skilled or experienced partner, such as a teacher, parent, or advanced peer, children can accomplish more than they would be able to do on their own and consequently internalize concepts and strategies that further their cognitive development. From a socio-cultural perspective, this is what Russian psychologist Lev Semenovich Vygotsky (1896–1934) referred to as working within a child's zone of proximal development (ZPD). Vygotsky defined ZPD as the range between children's ability level when completing a task independently and their ability level when they are provided assistance. He hypothesized that children learn very little from engaging in activities they have already mastered, and similarly, they rarely benefit from engaging in activities that are above their developmental level. Thus, Vygotsky suggested optimal learning occurs when children work on challenging tasks that can be accomplished with assistance from a more advanced partner. This is well illustrated in a landmark study conducted by Margarita Azmitia who observed 5-year-old children copying a model house out of blocks. She compared the performance of children either working along with a peer of the same ability or with a peer who was more expert on the task. She found that novice children learned the most when paired with the expert peer by observing and imitating the expert peer's behavior.

Working Within the Zone of Proximal Development

During joint activities within a child's ZPD, the advanced partner provides assistance through scaffolding, or

behavior that assists the child in completing the task. Scaffolding behavior can include adapting an activity to a child's level (i.e., simplifying), asking a child questions, demonstrating strategies to complete the activity, providing tools or guidelines on how to complete the task, and providing feedback on performance. The goal of the more advanced partner should be to structure the task in a way that allows the child to participate in the activity and, as the child becomes more competent, be able to gradually transfer responsibility over to the child to encourage learning. The range of a child's ZPD is constantly changing. Therefore, the more advanced partner must frequently reassess the child's level of functioning and adapt scaffolding techniques accordingly.

In order for activities within a child's ZPD to be effective for learning, the child and the partner must have a shared understanding of a task in which both participants agree on the final goal, as well as the necessary steps to reach the goal. This requires an effort on both parts; the partner must provide assistance in such a way as to advance the child's understanding and the child, in turn, must adapt his or her understanding to match that of the partner.

Applying ZPD to the Classroom

ZPD has many implications for educational settings. Below are five applications of the concept of ZPD for teaching and structuring classroom activities.

One application is to take children's ZPD into consideration when assessing their knowledge and skill level. This alternative to traditional testing is known as *dynamic assessment* and incorporates evaluation of children's learning potential into the test, rather than strictly assessing children's current level of knowledge. The benefit to dynamic assessment is that it not only provides a baseline of present functioning; it also offers

information regarding the level of progress that can be expected with particular forms of guidance.

A second application is to *provide students with challenging activities, tasks, and lessons*. Presenting children with activities they can only accomplish with assistance can help build their conceptual understanding. However, children's ZPDs can vary widely within a classroom. Some children may be able to accomplish challenging tasks with very little scaffolding, whereas some children will need more assistance to accomplish similar or even less challenging activities. Therefore, providing children with activities that vary in difficulty can be important to accommodate the varying levels of abilities within the class and to ensure the activity is challenging for all students.

A third application is to provide children with *adequate scaffolding and tools to accomplish tasks*. Learning from challenging tasks can only occur when scaffolding, such as asking questions, modeling, and providing feedback, is provided. Since individual assistance can be difficult to provide in a classroom, one tool to teach children to accomplish challenging tasks is self-talk. Vygotsky suggested that a child's talking out loud can help him or her to think about tasks and guide behavior. The speech will eventually become internalized as learning occurs. Therefore, it can be helpful to encourage children to repeat the instructions of an activity out loud. Furthermore, children should be encouraged to talk out loud while completing tasks and to repeat the instructions if they have trouble completing. Self-talk can help remind students of the steps to complete the task and guide their behavior to complete it.

A fourth application is to *gradually reduce guidance provided to children*. As children become more proficient on tasks, they should be encouraged to demonstrate their developing competence. By gradually withdrawing the help provided to the students and transferring the responsibility to them, teachers can help build their understanding of the concepts and tasks. While transferring responsibility, it is important to connect the lessons with their prior knowledge to help build children's understanding, as well as consistently assess their knowledge to recognize when they have mastered the task.

A fifth application is to *encourage children to work in pairs or groups*. Having students of different ability levels work together on activities can allow them to learn from each other. In many contexts, children who are more advanced are capable of providing effective guidance or modeling to their less advanced peers. The more advanced students also can build their mastery,

and understanding of the task when helping their peers. During cooperative activities, all of the students should have an understanding of the goals of the task so they can share responsibility when completing it.

Conclusion

ZPD characterizes children's abilities and their potential to develop new abilities. Children can learn from challenging tasks when they are given adequate scaffolding to accomplish them. The goal of teaching within the ZPD is for children to be able to eventually accomplish these tasks on their own. Thus, it is critical to provide children with guidance and support that builds their skills, as well as opportunities for them to demonstrate their developing abilities.

Geetha Ramani and Sarah Eason

See also Cooperative Learning Groups; Vygotsky, Lev

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Appendix A

Classroom Management in the United States

A Chronology of Key Persons, Events, and Movements

| <i>Year</i> | <i>Persons/Event(s)/Movement</i> |
|-----------------|--|
| 1830s and 1840s | Horace Mann heads the Massachusetts Board of Education and oversees the development of the first common (public) school system in the United States—a system meant to provide a free and religiously inclusive education to children and, with respect to classroom management, one that stresses the importance of teachers being trained, having good character, and using disciplinary methods other than corporal punishment. |
| 1840s | William Holmes McGuffey’s series of “Readers” becomes widely used as textbooks in U.S. common schools—both for teaching students how to read and for providing a Protestant (Calvinist) framework for students’ moral education. |
| 1855 | The first volume of the <i>American Journal of Education and College Review</i> outlines the prevailing focus on classroom management as centered in teachers’ authority as leaders and models of good character and, when needed, as enforcers who cultivate students’ good habits (habit training). |
| 1880s | Establishment of parochial schools tied to Roman Catholic churches, in response to widespread anti-Catholic sentiments, a public school system that supports a Protestant perspective and the influx of immigrants from largely Catholic European countries. |
| 1890s–1915 | Progressive education movement led by John Dewey and many others to counter the then dominant authoritarian, teacher-centered ways of teaching and to improve the schools and schooling for the new wave of immigrants. It laid emphasis on building curriculum on students’ interests and organizing the classroom environment so that control and structure come not from teachers’ directives but from students being in an environment that encourages self-direction and democratic collaborations. |
| 1922 | The International Council for the Education of Exceptional Children is established, later to be named the Council for Exceptional Children, the leading professional organization supporting special and gifted education. |
| 1920s–1930s | The mental hygiene movement, begun earlier as an effort to improve the treatment of the mentally ill, now includes efforts to help teachers provide positive supports to children. It laid emphasis in classroom management on establishing positive teacher–student relationships and guidance for children to meet learning and behavioral challenges. |
| 1930s | Foundations of behavioral approaches to behavior and classroom management provided in psychologist B. F. Skinner’s work on operant conditioning and the experimental analysis of behavior. |

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- 1950s–1960s As an outgrowth of the mental hygiene movement, milieu management and psychoeducational approaches gain acceptance first in programs for children with severe emotional and behavioral problems and then in ordinary classrooms. Fritz Redl, David Wineman, William Wattenberg, and other leaders encourage teachers to reach beyond bad behaviors to connect with students' underlying emotions and thinking and communicate in ways (verbally and nonverbally) that support students' making good decisions, trusting their teachers, and gaining insight into their own behavior in order to improve it. During this time, humanistic approaches to psychotherapy, particularly Rogerian therapy, inspire Thomas Gordon's Parent Effectiveness Training, a precursor to the 1974 Teacher Effectiveness Training featuring the relationship-building methods of "active listening" and "I-statements" for managing problem behaviors in classrooms.
- 1960s Constructivism as a philosophy of education gains favor among educational theorists in America, largely through the dissemination of the research of developmental psychologists Jean Piaget and Lev Vygotsky. The emphasis shifts from teachers directly transmitting knowledge to students, to teachers facilitating active exploration and experimentation by students, so that students *construct* knowledge. Vygotsky's social constructionism promotes teacher–student dialogue that provides students with culturally valued tools for thinking. Constructivist approaches initially are applied to teaching academic subjects but later applied to teaching students how to solve social problems such as resolving conflicts with peers and generating the class rules that better ensure full participation during class meetings.
- 1967 Diana Baumrind's distinction between authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive styles, originally applied to studying parenting, is later applied to studying teaching and classroom management.
- 1968 The publication of the first issue of the *Journal of Applied Behavioral Analysis*, which has been instrumental in establishing the field of applied behavioral analysis and has become central to work in special education and school psychology.
- 1970s Emergence of the ecological approach to classroom management, led by the work of Jacob Kounin and Paul Gump. It emphasizes teachers' roles in establishing classroom "habitats" that facilitate the management of activities so as to prevent problem behaviors by maintaining flow and to move groups along without unnecessary interruptions. It requires somewhat "hidden" skills such as knowing what is going on everywhere in a classroom at all times, being able to multitask, and being able to deal with problem behaviors as soon as they manifest and before they can disrupt "flow."
- 1975 PL 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act, signed into law, later renamed and amended as the Individuals with Disabilities Act (IDEA). IDEA provides the legal structure defining the present special education system—one that ensures educational supports for all students with special needs, includes parents in the evaluation and decision making about services process, and better ensures that children with special needs are educated in the "least restrictive environment."
- 1980s Following the lead of more context- and culture-sensitive research in developmental psychology, culture and context increasingly become forefront issues in discussions of classroom management, especially in urban schools. Focus is on finding ways to meet the special challenges in managing classrooms with English language learners, children from families where parenting and communication styles present mismatches with most U.S. teachers' communication styles, and on developing curriculum that is culture-sensitive and "anti-bias" with respect to culture, language, sexual orientation, religion, and diversity in general.
- 1987 National Association for the Education of Young Children publishes the first edition of "Developmentally Appropriate Practice," providing guidelines defining early childhood education as focused on the unique social, emotional, and cognitive needs of young children and calling for teachers of the very young to emphasize supporting children's play, active explorations of their social and physical environments, and their developing symbol systems (particularly language).
- 2000 Continuation of themes addressed in earlier decades (especially themes having to do with providing positive supports and accommodating diversity) and other new developments related to classroom management: (1) significant increase in empirical research on classroom management, (2) focusing less on behavior management and more on creating person-centered classroom communities that are just, caring, and inclusive, and (3) developing new ways (using technology, cooperative learning groups) to engage all students and to provide universal access to curriculum.
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Appendix B

Organizations and Publications Providing Resources for Classroom Management

The following is a nonexhaustive list of organizations serving educators, as well as of journals and websites that deal with classroom management. Where possible, Internet contact information is provided.

Professional Organizations

American Educational Research Association

<http://www.aera.net/AboutAERA/tabid/10062/Default.aspx>

The American Educational Research Association, a national research society, is concerned with improving the educational process by encouraging scholarly inquiry related to education and evaluation and by promoting the dissemination and practical application of research results.

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development

<http://www.ascd.org>

The association provides expert and innovative solutions in professional development, capacity building, and educational leadership essential to the way educators learn, teach, and lead.

Association for Behavior Analysis International (ABAI)

<https://www.abainternational.org/>

ABAI is the primary membership organization for those interested in the philosophy, science, application, and teaching of behavior analysis.

Association for Positive Behavior Support (APBS)

<http://www.apbs.org/index.html>

APBS is a membership organization that engages in varied activities and endeavors related to positive behavior support. APBS places greatest emphasis on activities associated with expanding the emerging science of positive behavior support.

Classroom Organization and Management Program

<http://www.comp.org/AboutCOMP.html>

Classroom Organization and Management Program (COMP) is a research-based professional development program to help teachers create and manage an effective learning environment. COMP conducts workshops throughout the United States that focus on establishing conditions for learning.

Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning

<http://www.casel.org/>

Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL) is a leading organization for advancing the development of academic, social, and emotional competence of all students. The mission is to make evidence-based social and emotional learning an integral part of education from preschool through high school. Through research, practice, and policy, CASEL collaborates to ensure all students become knowledgeable, responsible, caring, and contributing members of society.

Council for Children With Behavioral Disorders (CCBD)

<http://www.ccbd.net/home>

CCBD is committed to students who are identified as having emotional and behavioral disorders and those whose behavior puts them at risk for failure in school, home, and/or community. CCBD supports prevention of problem behavior and enhancement of social, emotional, and educational well-being of all children and youth.

Council for Exceptional Children

<http://www.cec.sped.org/>

The Council for Exceptional Children (CEC) is the largest international professional organization dedicated to improving the educational success of individuals with disabilities and/or gifts and talents. CEC advocates for appropriate governmental policies, sets professional standards, provides professional development, advocates for individuals with exceptionalities, and helps professionals obtain conditions and resources necessary for effective professional practice.

IRIS Center

<http://iris.peabody.vanderbilt.edu/>

The IRIS Center offers a wide variety of resources and services to suit a diverse set of instructional needs and circumstances. The website is continually updated. Funded by the U.S. government, the materials are excellently written and available free. Each module shows a variety of methods for helping teachers to plan lessons, manage the classroom, explain concepts, and more.

National Association for the Education of Young Children

<http://www.naeyc.org/>

The National Association for the Education of Young Children is the leading professional organization for early childhood educators in the United States. It publishes books, holds conferences, and advocates for young children and their education—focusing on the unique developmental needs of young children.

National Association of School Psychologists

http://www.nasponline.org/about_nasp/index.aspx

The National Association of School Psychologists empowers school psychologists by advancing effective practices to improve students' learning, behavior, and mental health.

Responsive Classroom

<https://www.responsiveclassroom.org>

Responsive Classroom is a research- and evidence-based approach to education that is associated with greater teacher effectiveness, higher student achievement, and improved school climate. It has been recognized by CASEL as one of the most well-designed social and emotional learning programs.

Journals

American Educational Research Journal

The *American Educational Research Journal* publishes original empirical and theoretical studies and analyses in education from a wide variety of academic disciplines and substantive fields. It focuses on key contributions to understand and/or improve educational processes and outcomes. It includes essays, reviews, and brief reports of studies that may address narrow questions. It also welcomes policy research and articles that represent a wide range of disciplines.

Educational Leadership

Put out by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Educational Leadership* has a long history of providing important articles on the latest issues in education.

Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis

The *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis* publishes research about applications of the experimental analysis of behavior to problems of social importance.

Journal of Positive Behavioral Interventions

The *Journal of Positive Behavioral Interventions* offers research-based principles of positive behavior support for use in school, home, and community settings with people with challenges in behavioral adaptation.

Journal of School Psychology

The *Journal of School Psychology* publishes original empirical articles and critical reviews of the literature on research and practices relevant to psychological and behavioral processes in school settings.

Review of Educational Research

<http://rer.sagepub.com>

The *Review of Educational Research* publishes critical, integrative reviews of research literature bearing on

education, including conceptualizations, interpretations, and syntheses of literature and scholarly work in a field broadly relevant to education and educational research.

School Psychology Review

The *School Psychology Review* is a refereed journal published quarterly by the National Association of School Psychologists. Its primary purpose is to provide a means for communicating scholarly advances in research, training, and practice related to psychology and education, and specifically to school psychology.

The Elementary School Journal

<http://www.press.uchicago.edu/ucp/journals/journal/esj.html>

The *Elementary School Journal* publishes high-quality research on the work of schooling with a focus on the dynamics of teaching and learning in classrooms. Its articles include research on students, their interactions with teachers, each other, the school, and the curriculum.

TEACHING Exceptional Children

<http://www.cec.sped.org/Publications/CEC-Journals/TEACHING-Exceptional-Children>

TEACHING Exceptional Children is published by the Council for Exceptional Children and features research-to-practice information and materials for classroom use, as well as current issues in special education teaching and learning.

Handbooks and Other References

21st Century Education: A Reference Handbook (2008). Thomas L. Good (Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Over 100 leading researchers have contributed chapters that highlight and address some of the major issues, topics, debates, and questions in contemporary education. Published in two volumes, these books contain short articles aimed for undergraduate majors as

well as teachers. It is designed for current or future teachers, as well as principals and superintendents.

Handbook on Classroom Management: Research, Practice and Contemporary Issues (2006). C. M. Evertson & C. S. Weinstein (Eds.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

This volume is the first comprehensive collection of scholarly work dealing with classroom management and research in related fields, having implications for classroom management as a field of study. Four themes that cut across chapters are: (1) positive student–teacher relationships are at the core of effective classroom management; (2) classroom management is both a social and a moral curriculum; (3) external reward and punishment systems are not optimal for producing student academic and social growth; and (4) creating orderly and creative environments for learning must integrate the variety of student diversities.

Handbook of Classroom Management (2015). E. T. Emmer & E. J. Sabornie (Eds.). New York: Routledge.

The book highlights the complex nature of the field of classroom management with its diverse topics and orientations. This second edition of the handbook provides up-to-date summaries from the first edition, but provides a fresh perspective, additional themes, and extensions of many of the chapters from the first handbook. It also introduces new topics and viewpoints that compare and contrast issues now being raised.

International Guide to Student Achievement (2013). John Hattie & Eric Anderman (Eds.). New York: Routledge.

The book examines the major influences shaping student achievement. It contains over 150 brief, excellent, and empirically based articles and is designed as a quick and easy reference that allows readers to compare and contrast information across entries with their own teaching strategies and teacher education programs.

ONLINE RESOURCES RELATED TO THE ENCYCLOPEDIA ENTRIES

| | |
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| Ability Grouping | Research spotlight on academic ability grouping: NEA reviews of the research on best practices in education. (n.d.). Retrieved from http://www.nea.org/tools/16899.htm |
| American Sign Language | American sign language. (2011, June). Retrieved from http://www.nidcd.nih.gov/health/hearing/pages/asl.aspx |
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| Applied Behavior Analysis | Applied behavior analysis. (n.d.). Retrieved from http://www.autismspeaks.org/what-autism/treatment/applied-behavior-analysis-aba ABA therapy. (n.d.). Retrieved from http://www.appliedbehaviorcenter.org/aba-services/aba-therapy/ |
| Approaches to Classroom Management: Types; Definitions of Classroom Management | Kratochwill, T. (n.d.). <i>Classroom management</i> . Retrieved from http://www.apa.org/education/k12/classroom-mgmt.aspx?item=1 |
| Art: Studio Approaches to Learning Environments | Lynch, G. (n.d.). <i>The importance of art in child development</i> . Retrieved from http://www.pbs.org/parents/education/music-arts/the-importance-of-art-in-child-development/ Holcomb, S. (n.d.). <i>State of the arts: Despite mounting evidence of its role in student achievement, arts education is disappearing in the schools that need it most</i> . Retrieved from http://www.nea.org/home/10630.htm |
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| Autism Spectrum Disorders | What is autism? (n.d.). Retrieved from http://www.autismspeaks.org/what-autism Autism fact sheet. (2013, December 30). Retrieved from http://www.ninds.nih.gov/disorders/autism/detail_autism.htm |
| Beginning the School Year | Back-to-school planning guide. (n.d.). Retrieved from http://teacher.scholastic.com/back_to_school/Back to school guide . (n.d.). Retrieved from http://www.nea.org/tools/back-to-school-guide.html |
| Behavior Disorders; Disruptive Behaviors, Positive Approaches to | Emotional/behavioral disorders. (n.d.). Retrieved from http://www.gallaudet.edu/clerc_center/information_and_resources/info_to_go/educate_children_(3_to_21)/students_with_disabilities/emotionalbehavioral_disorders.html |

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| Climate: School and Classroom | Positive teacher language. (n.d.). Retrieved from https://www.responsiveclassroom.org/positive-teacher-language Lucero, R. (n.d.). <i>Building a positive classroom culture and climate</i> . Retrieved from http://teaching.colostate.edu/tips/tip.cfm?tipid=136 |
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| Corporal Punishment | School corporal punishment. (n.d.). Retrieved from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/School_corporal_punishment |

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| Co-Teaching for Inclusive Classrooms | <i>Models of co-teaching</i> . (n.d.). Retrieved from http://capone.mtsu.edu/tsbrown/coteachingdetailsofModels.pdf |
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