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**AN OVERVIEW OF MAJOR DISCIPLINE PROGRAMS IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS
SINCE 1960**

The University of Oklahoma

Ph.D. 1985

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THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA
GRADUATE COLLEGE

AN OVERVIEW OF MAJOR DISCIPLINE
PROGRAMS IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS SINCE 1960

A DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

By
Edward Wayne Chance
Norman, Oklahoma
1985

AN OVERVIEW OF MAJOR DISCIPLINE
PROGRAMS IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS SINCE 1960

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ABSTRACT

This historical/descriptive work provides an overview of nine major discipline programs that have been developed since 1960 to address education's increasing concern for the maintenance of a classroom environment that is conducive to learning. The programs reviewed after a historical overview of discipline included: 1) Jacob Kounin and Group Management; 2) Redl and Wattenberg's Approach to Discipline; 3) the Ginott Model of Discipline; 4) Dreikurs' Model of Mistaken Goals; 5) the L.E.A.S.T. Approach to Discipline; 6) Daniel Duke's Systematic Management Plan for School Discipline; 7) Thomas Gordon's Teacher Effectiveness Training; 8) William Glasser and Reality Therapy; and, 9) Lee Canter's Assertive Discipline. Each discipline method was reviewed as to total program, techniques, and procedures. Individually, the programs were evaluated as to whether or not the program emphasis was on the individual or group. Each was also evaluated as to its position regarding class meetings, rule setting, punishment, and selected communication styles.

In developing a synthesis of the reviewed programs, it appears that a successful teacher with relatively few classroom discipline problems should possess certain attributes and characteristics. One should possess a thorough knowledge of subject matter as well as being well organized and aware of everything that takes place in the classroom. In addition, the teacher should be cognizant of the group dynamics and processes that daily take place in addition to the individual needs of each student. Students should be addressed using appropriate I-messages, and an exhibited concern for them should be evident. It would behoove the individual teacher to allow the students some degree of input into class procedures or, at the very least, utilize class meetings to achieve the objective of increasing communication and class awareness.

No one program was judged to be better than the others, but it was concluded that it would be pertinent to utilize those aspects of each program that would be most relevant to the individual educator's needs or situation.

AN OVERVIEW OF MAJOR DISCIPLINE PROGRAMS
IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS SINCE 1960

CHAPTER I

A HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF DISCIPLINE

One of the most important aspects that a teacher must deal with on a daily basis is discipline. Discipline simply means the creation of a classroom environment that lends itself to learning. A school that is well disciplined is one that has little or no violence, theft, misbehavior, or fear; and, instead, is one in which a learning, caring, concerned atmosphere permeates all areas of the school. Discipline is not easy. Nor does it necessarily equate to punishment. It is an area in which teachers receive little training and one in which they often are unsuccessful.

The importance of discipline as an educational area or issue is not new. The Gallup Polls of the last fifteen years have found that the issue of discipline is the biggest problem in public schools as perceived by the general

public.¹ Teachers also feel that discipline is important but too often rely on the building administrator to implement any necessary program. This can be partially ascribed to the training of teachers.

Teachers and administrators today are concerned about the increased violence in schools as well as the increased difficulty in dealing with discipline problems. Evidence shows that when schools grow to more than 900 students, violence will increase two hundred to three hundred percent.² Senator Birch Bayh's subcommittee report of 1977 makes it clear that today's schools have serious problems with assaults on teachers up 77% between 1970 and 1973, assaults on students up 85% over the same period, and over 70,000 teachers physically attacked each year with over 100,000 having their property vandalized.³ The National Institute of Education's report "Violent Schools--Safe Schools" states that each month over 2.4 million high school students have something stolen; over 280,000 are attacked; and over 100,000 are robbed while on school premises. This

¹George H. Gallup, "The Fifteenth Annual Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools," Phi Delta Kappan 65 (September, 1983), pp. 33-48.

²Irwin A. Hyman and John D'Allessandro, "Oversimplifying the Discipline Problem," Education Week III, 29 (April 11, 1984), 24 and 18.

³Birch Bayh, Challenge for the Third Century: Education in a Safe School Environment - Final Report on the Nature and Prevention of School Violence and Vandalism, (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1977).

same report states that only one-sixth of criminal acts are ever reported.⁴

The causes for these problems are many and certainly historical precedent must be considered when looking for an overall causal picture. John Feldhusen believes that problems in schools can be related to four reasons. These are: 1) psychological and sociological; 2) television; 3) political and social influences; and 4) the school itself.⁵ Feldhusen also states that a student is more likely to be a problem in school if he or she "does not value academic achievement . . . and lacks interest in conventional institutions such as church and school."⁶

Gonzalo Garza believes that the problem of discipline in school is directly related to the disintegration of the family unit.⁷ Johnson, Vickers, and Gadson see the greatest number of discipline problems coming from youth of poor or minority backgrounds and between the ages of

⁴National Institute of Education, Violent Schools - Safe Schools, (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1977).

⁵John F. Feldhusen, "Behavior Problems in Secondary Schools," Journal of Research and Development in Education, 11, 4 (1978), p.20.

⁶Ibid.

⁷Gonzalo Garza, "Discipline, Corporal Punishment, and Suspension," A paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National School Boards Association (36th, San Francisco, California, April 10-13, 1976) p. 4.

thirteen and sixteen.⁸ Marohn partially agrees with this and believes most problems come from poorer areas and communities. He also believes that a record of past violence is a good predictor for future violence.⁹

Dr. Irwin Hyman has identified many causes for violence or disruption in schools. These can be summarized into ten statements. These are:

- 1) the organization of contemporary society
- 2) the rapid pace of change
- 3) the disruption of traditional childrearing methods
- 4) violence on television
- 5) economic stress
- 6) ineffective teacher training in discipline
- 7) larger schools with more discipline problems
- 8) physical factors relating to individual students
- 9) unnecessary punitiveness on the part of the school
- 10) poor self esteem by students and staff¹⁰

The types of methods used over the years to address discipline issues has changed some, but this does not mean that the traditional method of dealing with discipline problems is no longer used. Research shows that not only is corporal punishment still used in a great number of schools but also that students "are beaten, pushed, kicked, paddled,

⁸Alex B. Johnson, Lelia L. Vickers, and Melvin Gadson, "School Violence: Perspectives, Characteristics and Deterrents," American Secondary Education, 12 (Summer, 1982), p.12.

⁹Richard C. Marohn, "Adolescent Violence: Causes and Treatment," Journal of the American Academy of Child Psychiatry, 21, 4 (1982), p. 357.

¹⁰Hyman, p. 24

punched, and stomped."¹¹ Some students have been forced to eat such items as cigarettes and Tobasco sauce. Some have been locked in vaults, boxes or closets.¹²

Certainly, these extremes do happen. However, a great many administrators have seen both positive and negative changes in the area of discipline. Mr. Guy Robberson, who was superintendent of the Lindsay, Oklahoma schools for 27 years, relates that

school discipline procedures have gotten harder to enforce (and that) school personnel are quite limited . . . due to threats of lawsuit. Immediate punishment of acts which require disciplinary action is almost impossible due to due-process hearing requirements. Expulsion from school is of short duration for most serious acts which are short of incarceration in penal institutions. Many who are guilty of felony and misdemeanor action are given suspended sentences (sic) and are required by courts to return to the school room. Most of these continue to be discipline problems but are protected by the courts.¹³

Mr. Jack Clifford, retired from the Oklahoma State Department of Education and who once served as superintendent in the Dewar, Oklahoma school system, believes that the job of a school administrator is much more difficult than in the past. (See Appendix I for interview questions.) He states,

¹¹Ibid.

¹²Ibid.

¹³Guy Robberson, Written response to questions, February, 1985.

The Do's and Don'ts have become more numerous. An Administrator feels hemmed in and cautious. Too much rigidity can be as harmful as too much freedom of choice.¹⁴

He also attributes some of the difficulty to parents.

Parents are away from their children more. Therefore, Discipline (sic) is left to the school and that responsibility is being challenged perhaps by the same people who is (sic) creating the problem. If the parent doesn't discipline and the school is not allowed to do so, it is fairly easy to see the problem of some delinquency.¹⁵

A great many of the difficulties in administering a discipline program today rests not in the schools but in the courts. Although this paper is not designed to address the legal issues of discipline, one certainly can not ignore the impact of court cases such as the Tinker case,¹⁶ Goss v. Lopez,¹⁷ Wood v. Strickland,¹⁸ and the Gault case.¹⁹ A recent Supreme Court decision in the case of New Jersey v. T.L.O.²⁰ is perceived as loosening the restrictions of the

¹⁴Jack Clifford, Written response to questions, February, 1985.

¹⁵Ibid.

¹⁶Tinker v. Des Moines Independent Community School System, 393 U.S. 506 (1969).

¹⁷Goss v. Lopez, 419 U.S. 565 (1975).

¹⁸Wood v. Strickland, 420 U.S. 308 (1975).

¹⁹In re Gault, 387 U.S. 1 (1967).

²⁰New Jersey v. T.L.O., 83-712 (1985).

previous court decisions by allowing for a liberalization of search and seizure rules when they pertain to schools. Only time will tell whether this decision will impact significantly on discipline in schools.

Yet, the issue of discipline is not new. As Leslie Chamberlin states "historically, discipline has meant maintaining order and dispensing punishment."²¹ Although methods of discipline have varied in America, too often it has meant physical punishment directed towards the misbehaving student. Only recently, within the past thirty years, have discipline methods emphasized techniques that were deemed more appropriate than the use of the strap, rod, switch, or paddle.

The historical view that equated discipline with punishment was based on the belief that students must be fearful of the teacher and that those with unruly attitudes must be brought into line. A good teacher in America's past was a teacher who controlled the class. This too often is the definition of a good teacher today.

A great many of the ideas regarding discipline came from our European past. According to Joan Newman, by the seventeenth century whipping students had become a "basic

²¹Leslie J. Chamberlin, Effective Instruction Through Dynamic Discipline, (Columbus, Ohio: Charles Merrill, 1971), p.4.

teaching aid."²² Jesuit schools had initiated in Europe the stripping of students and publicly whipping of them until they bled. In 1672 in Harvard a student was publicly whipped for blasphemy.²³ Even Beethoven is reported to have whipped his pupils with knitting needles if they did not perform to his expectations.²⁴

Teachers before the 1840's had very little formal training and often only repeated what they themselves had endured. A great deal of the educational process was an extension of the Puritanical theological demands of obedience and order. During the 1840's normal schools began to come into existence and some formal training began to take place. However, this did not mean an enlightened period in the history of discipline but rather a period that stressed order with rules demanding obedience and conformity.²⁵

The idea that the teacher could punish an unruly

²²Joan Newman and Graeme Newman, "Crime and Punishment in the Schooling Process: A Historical Analysis," Theoretical Perspectives on School Crime, Vol. 1, National Council on Crime and Delinquency, (Washington, D.C.: Department of Health, Education and Welfare, February, 1978), p.890.

²³Ibid., p.895.

²⁴Ralph S. Welsh, "Delinquency, Corporal Punishment, and the Schools," National Council on Crime and Delinquency (Hackensack, New Jersey: Newgate Resource Center, February, 1978), p.1498.

²⁵Chamberlin, Effective Instruction Through Dynamic Discipline, p. 5.

student was and is grounded in the idea of loco parentis.²⁶ Not all teachers resorted to corporal punishment; many found that sarcasm and ridicule were just as effective. A list of typical school rules of the 1800's and typical punishments may prove enlightening.²⁷ In addition, a schoolmaster's list of punishments meted out aptly illustrates the degree of violence found in public schools. The second table charts the career of a teacher and his discipline techniques over a fifty-one year career.²⁸

Typical School Rules (1800's)

Prohibited Activity	Lashes
Quarreling	4
Fighting	5
Gambling	4
Lying	7
Swearing	8
Drinking	4
Truancy	10
Nicknaming Others	4
Long Fingernails	8
Playing with Girls	4

²⁶Mauritz Johnson and Harry Brooks, "Conceptualizing Classroom Management" in Classroom Management, Seventy-Eighth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, ed. Daniel L. Duke (University of Chicago Press, 1979), p.5.

²⁷Charles L. Coon, North Carolina Schools and Academics (Raleigh: Edwards and Broughton Co., 1915), p.763-764 as quoted in Chamberlin, p.6.

²⁸A. D. Bernard, American Journal of Education V (October, 1830), p.509 as quoted in Chamberlin, p.5.

Punishment (1700's)
A Teacher's Report

Punishments	Number of Lashes
Blows with cane	911,257
Blows with rod	124,010
Blows with ruler	20,989
Raps on the head	1,115,800
Blows with book	22,763
Blows on the ear	7,905
Blows on the mouth	12,235

Dr. Irwin Hyman relates that a favorite saying of the 1800's was, "A boy has a back, when you hit it he understands."²⁹ He also points out that very few good records were kept prior to 1960 and most information concerning discipline and violence in schools is anecdotal at best. Horace Mann, however, described American schools before 1860 as full of idleness and disorder.³⁰ Yet this did not mean that the only violence was that of teacher on student. In 1857, a student was wounded by his own pistol while in school.³¹ In 1860, four students stoned a young female Massachusetts teacher to death for keeping them after school.³²

By the 1860's, many states had organized common schools and adopted uniform courses of study. Because of the size of some schools in larger urban areas, the board

²⁹Hyman, "Oversimplifying the Discipline Problem," p. 24.

³⁰Ibid.

³¹Newman, "Crime and Punishment," p. 897.

³²Hyman, "Oversimplifying the Discipline Problem," p. 24.

often "appointed a principal teacher to administer the school."³³ This period also saw the argument for the abolition of corporal punishment when Dr. Morrill Wyman argued that corporal punishment should be abolished because: 1) it had been done so in the Navy and many prisons, 2) it was no longer used extensively in European schools, 3) many parochial schools no longer used it, 4) it was not used in church extensively any longer, and 5) other methods might prove to be more productive.³⁴ Needless to say, Dr. Wyman's suggestions were not greeted enthusiastically by many educators of the day.

Between 1890 and 1910, a great deal was written about appropriate methods to be used in teaching. The idea of organization became very important with an orderly classroom being one that provided moral training or moral instruction directly or indirectly.³⁵ However, when one looks at discipline procedures one finds much the same as before. The unruly student was severely punished or often dropped out to go to work in one of the rapidly expanding industries.

Between 1910 and the 1930's, education had discipline were greatly influenced by the efficiency studies of

³³Bernard as in Chamberlin, "Effective Instruction Through Dynamic Discipline," p. 6.

³⁴Ibid., p. 7.

³⁵Johnson and Brooks, "Conceptualizing Classroom Management," p. 7.

Frederick Taylor and the scientific approaches to classroom management of Frederick Breed.³⁶ Certainly an outcome of this emphasis on science was William Wirts' "Gary Plan" which called for the precision movement of students from one activity to another.³⁷ A response to the Gary Plan was seen in New York City with rioting by students who opposed the structure and formalization of the plan. These students burned books and stoned schools.³⁸ The guidance movement of this time emphasized individualized instruction and was reflected in the short lived "Dalton Plan" of Helen Parkhurst or the "Unit Plan" of Henry C. Morrison which were designed to keep the student very busy and to isolate the more disruptive learner from the students of higher or average ability.³⁹

Brophy and Putnam feel that the period between the 1930's and the 1960's was one that placed an emphasis on the intellectual capabilities of the student. "Humanistic ideologies stressing individual freedom and creativity, self-actualization, and spontaneity thrived."⁴⁰ The result as these authors see it was a reduction in the control

³⁶Ibid., p. 10-11.

³⁷Ibid., p. 13.

³⁸Newman, "Crime and Punishment in the Schooling Process," p. 908.

³⁹Johnson and Brooks, "Conceptualizing Classroom Management," p. 14-16. 12.

⁴⁰Ibid., p. 214.

exercised by teachers and administrators over students.⁴¹ This did not mean that many schools did not exercise traditional discipline methods such as suspension or corporal punishment. What it does mean is that many schools because of changing societal guidelines, laws, or court mandates found themselves with an unclear, unsupportive discipline system.

The period between the mid 1960's and the present found a backlash of sorts against the excesses of the previous period. No longer would teachers attempt to work in chaos under the name of Humanism. However, the response to the previous period was not one of only a return to the old methods of abuse and violence. Instead education has seen a proliferation of discipline methods and techniques. Some are based on traditional vindictive or deterrent (power) philosophies. But a great many of the more successful and widely recognized discipline methods are formulated on the idea that discipline should be retributive, remedial, or preventive in nature. Ray Puckett in an unpublished dissertation found the ERIC alone had over 946 research studies pertaining to discipline that could be categorized into 114 areas including the largest category of discipline methods, theories, or techniques.⁴²

⁴¹Ibid.

⁴²Ray Boyd Puckett, Jr., "A Review of Selected

So a primary concern since the early attempts at education by our American forefathers to our highly technological world of today has been discipline. This paper will not attempt to discuss the vast multitude of programs dealing with discipline, but instead will focus on the more successful ones. Successful will mean that the method of program has been widely accepted or adopted by public school teachers and administrators. It will also limit itself to programs receiving widespread recognition since 1960, although it must be acknowledged that some of the authors of various techniques, procedures, or methods may have written or lectured on their programs prior to 1960 but only as part of a formative process.

Research Findings Pertaining to Classroom Discipline," (St. Louis University, 1978) quoted in Elizabeth Karnes, et.al., Discipline in Our Schools: An Annotated Bibliography (Westport, Connecticut: Greenwood Press, 1983), p.290.

CHAPTER II

ORGANIZATION OF THE DISSERTATION

Statement of the Problem

This study will identify, define, and explain the major discipline programs used in public education since 1960. This descriptive/historical study will look at nine identified discipline programs that have been adopted by public schools to decrease perceived or actual discipline problems. In addition to describing the nine methods this work will seek to discover any commonalities existing between the programs, and will provide an overview of these major programs. The discipline programs to be explored in detail are: 1) the Kounin Model, 2) the Ginott Model of Discipline, 3) Dreikurs Mistaken Goals Model, 4) Redl and Wattenberg's Model, 5) the L.E.A.S.T. Program developed by the National Education Association, 6) the Systematic Management Plan for School Discipline devised by Daniel Duke, 7) the Effectiveness Training programs of Thomas Gordon, 8) Reality Therapy developed by William Glasser, 9) Lee Canters' Assertive Discipline.

The first four programs were chosen because of the impact they have had on discipline studies and current discipline programs. Each program author contributed significantly to the study of discipline. The remainder of the programs, with the exception of Duke's SMPSD program, were selected because of the widespread popularity and success they have enjoyed among public educators. Each has been extensively written about and their effectiveness researched to various degrees. The Duke program is relatively new but because of the reputation of the author among professional educators and because of his incorporation of effective strategies from other discipline programs, it is believed that the Duke program will be an important contribution to discipline in public schools. The popularity and use of each program is different, with the last four listed in the paragraph above enjoying the greatest usage among public school teachers and administrators.

Definition of Terms

Two terms should by necessity be defined. One of these is the word discipline. Too often the term discipline is equated with punishment or, in reality, corporal punishment. However, for use in this work discipline will mean maintaining orderly conduct. That orderly conduct may relate to an individual classroom or a total school. An additional term that needs definition is that of program. Program will be defined as the means or procedures used to

attain a desired end. Program will be synonymous with method or process.

Delimitation of Study

The time span covered in this research is from 1960 to the present. It is important to note the reason that 1960 was chosen as the year to begin the study. That year, 1960, marks the beginning of a more positive, rational approach to discipline that grew out of reinforcement theory, social learning theory, and self-enhancement theory. It denotes the beginning of rediscovered "needs for structure, limits, and security from threat"¹ and the end of humanistic ideologies that were too often misused and abused.

Methodology/Study Design

This study of discipline methods/programs since 1960 will be a historical/descriptive study. Data for the work will be collected from both primary and secondary sources. Primary sources will include interviews with Dr. William Glasser of the Institute of Reality Therapy and Dr. Irwin Hyman, the director of the National Center for the Study of Corporal Punishment and Alternatives in Schools, which is located at Temple University. Other sources contacted will

¹C. M. Charles, Building Classroom Discipline: From Models to Practice, (New York: Longman, 1981), p.2.

include administrators who use some of the various identified discipline methods. Government documents and research will also be included in the primary sources.

Secondary sources will include, but not be limited to, a manual search of books and materials at the University of Oklahoma Library, a computer search of the ERIC database, Sociological Abstracts, Psychological Abstracts, Magazine Index, Education Index, and the Comprehensive Dissertation Index. Material will also be gathered from newspaper articles.

The material will be organized so that it will address the two main areas of this study. These areas are: 1) the nine identified discipline programs, and 2) commonalities that exist in the identified discipline methods. Material reviewed and compiled will be primarily that written in the last seven to ten years, except for those significant works that specifically relate to the subject of the study.

CHAPTER III

LITERATURE REVIEW

Any literature review that addresses the area of discipline or specific discipline programs needs to begin with several relevant general works and then move to more specific ones that deal with the various identified programs. In looking at the historical perspective of discipline, several works are important because they provide a needed insight into early educational/discipline techniques. Dr. Irwin Hyman in "Oversimplifying the Discipline Problem"¹ and Joan and Graeme Newman in "Crime and Punishment in the Schooling Process: A Historical Analysis"² provide an excellent look at some of the excesses of school discipline and an understanding of Europe's impact on early American discipline methods. Ralph Welsh in his "Delinquency, Corporal Punishment, and the Schools"³ provides insight into discipline methods used in Europe and

¹Hyman, "Oversimplifying the Discipline Problem."

²Newman and Newman, "Crime and Punishment."

³Welsh, "Delinquency, Corporal Punishment, and the Schools."

in early America. Eggleston's The Hoosier Schoolboy provides one with a description of the power that a schoolmaster possessed as well as the means that were employed to maintain order in the classroom.⁴ Falk found that such schoolmasters used cruel punishments to keep order in the classroom.⁵

Not until the mid-nineteenth century did anyone technically address the issue of order in the classroom. David P. Page in Theory and Practice of Teaching felt that classroom control was essential if one wished to be a success as a school teacher. He felt good planning was essential in maintaining classroom decorum.⁶ John Prince in his Courses of Study and Methods of Teaching envisioned good classroom control as one of the necessary ways to provide moral training for students.⁷ In this era of Social Darwinism and rapid industrialization this was something that would make one a better, more productive employee or employer. Joseph Baldwin identified five laws to good classroom control and management. In his 1897 work, School Management and School Methods, these were identified

⁴Johnson and Brooks, p. 4 and Chamberlin, p. 5.

⁵Herbert A. Falk, Corporal Punishment: A Social Interpretation of Its Theory and Practice (New York: Columbia University, 1941), p. 47.

⁶Johnson and Brooks, "Conceptualizing Classroom Management," p. 5-6.

⁷Ibid., p. 7.

as regularity, promptitude, quietude, propriety and duty.⁸

One of the most important early works was The Philosophy of School Management by Arnold Thompkins. This 1902 text equated classroom order to school management and purported that a theoretical approach was best. He also equated the school classroom to that of a community or residence.⁹ John Dewey would refine this idea when he envisioned the classroom as a model of democracy.¹⁰

Other early turn-of-the-century works were attempts to relate scientific management or efficiency techniques to the public school. It was assumed that if the schools were organized more efficiently then discipline problems would be minimal. The early result of these beliefs were works such as Frederick Taylor's The Principles of Scientific Management¹¹ which dealt with the steel industry but was applied to education by Joseph Rice's Scientific Management in Education.¹² Throughout the period 1910 to 1935, the idea of applying scientific management methods to education was

⁸Ibid., p. 8.

⁹Ibid., p. 9.

¹⁰John Dewey, Moral Principles in Education, (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin and Co., 1909).

¹¹Frederick W. Taylor, The Principles of Scientific Management (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1911) as quoted in Johnson and Brooks, p. 10.

¹²Joseph M. Rice, Scientific Management in Education (New York: Noble and Noble, 1912) as quoted in Johnson and Brooks, p. 11.

popularized in seeking what Raymond Callahan calls a "cult of efficiency."¹³

The period of 1935 to the early 1960's saw an increased emphasis on "life adjustment and democracy in the classroom."¹⁴ Although this did not match the early calls for efficiency, it did not necessarily follow that a great deal of learning did not take place in the classroom.

After 1960, there seemed to be a greater concern for discipline in the classroom which prompted the search for more effective discipline programs. The reasons public educators sought better discipline programs are many but relate primarily to philosophical changes by both educators and society; court decisions dealing with student rights, integration, and corporal punishment; a more human approach in working with children; and parental/educator concerns for designing a better educational system.

Causes for discipline problems in schools are best addressed by Dr. Irwin Hyman in "Oversimplifying the Discipline Problem"¹⁵ and Gonzalo Garza in "Discipline, Corporal Punishment, and Suspension."¹⁶ Johnson, Vickers,

¹³Raymond E. Callahan, Education and the Cult of Efficiency, (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1962).

¹⁴Johnson and Brooks, p. 12.

¹⁵Hyman, "Oversimplifying the Discipline Problem."

¹⁶Garza, "Discipline, Corporal Punishment, and Suspension."

and Gadson in "School Violence"¹⁷ and Marolin in "Adolescent Violence"¹⁸ arrive at the same conclusion in stating that economic and minority status often are causes of disruptive behavior or violence in schools. Feldhusen in "Behavior Problems in Secondary Schools"¹⁹ believes that the lack of academic achievement and the absence of traditional values are directly related to discipline problems.

Nine identified programs will be reviewed in the dissertation. The best place to begin when looking at these programs is in the writings of the individual authors of the programs. The work of Jacob Kounin is highly significant in that it provides a groundwork and information for later program designers. Kounin in his work, Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms, identified several important behaviors of teachers (firmness, roughness, and clarity) as well as the ripple effect and withitness.²⁰ Both Feldhusen²¹ and Charles²²

¹⁷Johnson, Vickers, and Gadson, "School Violence."

¹⁸Marolin, "Adolescent Violence."

¹⁹Feldhusen, "Behavior Problems in Secondary Schools."

²⁰Jacob S. Kounin, Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1970).

²¹John Feldhusen, "Problems of Student Behavior in Secondary Schools" in Classroom Management, Seventy-Eighth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, ed. Daniel L. Duke (University of Chicago Press, 1979), p. 237.

²²Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 47-58.

see the significant contribution of Kounin being that of the importance of understanding group and subgroup behavior. Brophy and Putnam felt that Kounin identified a major cause of classroom management problems as being "any factor that results in delays or confusion."²³ Kounin's research provides us with the first major attempt to ascertain why certain behavior happens and how to deal with it or avoid it.

The works of Haim Ginott originally discussed the opening of communication lines between parents and their children. His two early books, Between Parent and Child²⁴ and Between Parent and Teenager,²⁵ provided the reader with a communication model that included "I" messages similar to those of Thomas Gordon. Ginott's discipline ideas were later expressed in Teacher and Child and advocate "congruent communication" with an expression of real feelings and an avoidance of defeating techniques such as sarcasm.²⁶

²³Jere E. Brophy and Joyce G. Putnam, "Classroom Management in the Elementary Grades" in Classroom Management, Seventy-Eighth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, ed. Daniel L. Duke (University of Chicago Press, 1979), p. 191.

²⁴Haim G. Ginott, Between Parent and Child (New York: Avon Books, 1965).

²⁵Haim G. Ginott, Between Parent and Teenager (New York: Macmillan, 1969).

²⁶Haim G. Ginott, Teacher and Child (New York: Macmillan, 1971).

Charles sees the real strength of Ginott's model in that he attacks the situation not the character of the child.²⁷ Duke states that the approach of Ginott is important because it stresses the "importance of good teacher-student communications."²⁸

Three specific works spell out the ideas of Rudolf Dreikurs. These books, Psychology in the Classroom,²⁹ Maintaining Sanity in the Classroom,³⁰ and Discipline Without Tears³¹ express the Adlerian philosophy and training of Dreikurs. Dreikurs, according to Brophy and Putnam, opposed artificial punishment but "stresses the value of allowing natural consequences of maladaptive behavior to occur."³² Dreikurs, like Glasser, believes that discipline is not punishment but the setting of limits and accepts the importance of logical or natural consequences. He also emphasizes the importance of recognizing mistaken goals in

²⁷Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 74.

²⁸Daniel L. Duke, Managing Student Behavior Problems (New York: Columbia University, 1980), p. 83.

²⁹Rudolf Dreikurs, Psychology in the Classroom (New York: Harper and Row, 1968).

³⁰Rudolf Dreikurs, et.al., Maintaining Sanity in the Classroom (New York: Harper and Row, 1971).

³¹Rudolf Dreikurs and P. Cassel, Discipline Without Tears (New York: Harper and Row, 1972).

³²Brophy and Putnam, "Classroom Management in the Elementary Grades," p. 210.

dealing with discipline problems. Duke believes the acknowledgement by Dreikurs, that too often traditional punishments do not fit the offense, is an important contribution to the study of discipline.³³

The works of Fritz Redl and William Wattenberg focus on group behavior as opposed to individualized behavior. They recognize the importance of allowing students to have a say in setting rules and deciding consequences. This has some similarities to the class meeting concepts of William Glasser. Although their separate works are many, perhaps the best joint effort is Mental Hygiene in Teaching.³⁴ Separate works of interest are Redl's "Disruptive Behavior in the Classroom"³⁵ and Wattenberg's "Ecology of Classroom Behavior."³⁶ Johnson and Brooks point out that Redl believes a "teacher cannot ignore either the immediate interest or the long-range welfare of the pupil in question"³⁷ when dealing with class disruptions. Chamberlin feels a significant contribution was made by Redl and

³³Duke, Managing Student Behavior Problems, p. 18.

³⁴Fritz Redl and William Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1959).

³⁵Fritz Redl, "Disruptive Behavior in the Classroom," School Review (August, 1975), pp. 569-94.

³⁶William Wattenberg, "Ecology of Classroom Behavior," Theory into Practice Review 16 (October, 1977), pp. 256-61.

³⁷Johnson and Brooks, "Conceptualizing Classroom Management," p. 37.

Wattenberg in helping one realize that "goals of discipline vary" and "that they change with age groups."³⁸

The discipline programs described above provide a foundation for the more recent and popular programs that will be discussed in the remainder of this literature review. These programs have borrowed some of the concepts previously advanced. Their measure of popularity is, at times, a reflection of their advocacy by different groups or by their ability to match with various educational philosophies of public school educators.

The L.E.A.S.T. program, adopted by the National Education Association, is an example of a discipline program vigorously advocated by a group or organization. The L.E.A.S.T. program was designed by Robert Carkhuff and the title is an acronym for 1) leaving things alone; 2) end the action indirectly; 3) attend more fully; 4) spell out directions; and 5) track student progress.³⁹ Although the program has been actively supported by the N.E.A. and state education organizations, very few schools have adopted the program. The primary reason for this is that the L.E.A.S.T. program is primarily counseling oriented and many teachers

³⁸Chamberlin, Effective Instruction Through Dynamic Discipline, p. 25.

³⁹"The L.E.A.S.T. Approach to Classroom Discipline," Project on Utilization of Inservice Education and Research and Development Outcomes, (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, July 1978).

do not feel comfortable using it. It is also not seen as being concrete enough.

The Systematic Management Plan for School Discipline designed by Daniel Duke is a relatively new program (1980) and is an outgrowth of Duke's previous writing and research on discipline including editing the National Society for the Study of Education's Yearbook Classroom Management.⁴⁰ This yearbook which addressed a variety of discipline causes, programs, and ideas gave Duke the impetus to design his own discipline program. Duke's SMPSD is an organizational approach for the total school system that draws heavily on the management and group ideas of Kounin, Redl, and Wattenberg as well as the issue of responsibility advanced by Dreikurs and Glasser. It also incorporates problem solving strategies similar to those of Thomas Gordon. Perhaps the best aspect of Duke's program is that it provides an assessment instrument so that each school can adequately plan for the implementation of the SMPSD program. This is the only discipline program that provides this type of instrument. SMPSD has not been widely disseminated and therefore has very little research validation from the educational community. It should become more widely known and utilized in the future.

⁴⁰Daniel L. Duke, ed., Classroom Management, The Seventy-Eighth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (University of Chicago Press, 1979).

The remaining three programs are the best known and recognizable discipline approaches today. They have been widely utilized, and each has known its moment of popularity with Canter's Assertive Discipline being the most popular today. However, both Gordon's Effectiveness Training and Glasser's Reality Therapy still remain popular and are utilized in some form by many schools.

Thomas Gordon's Effectiveness Training programs were designed not only for discipline problems but also for personal use. The programs which are basically communication models are best expressed in Gordon's P.E.T.: Parent Effectiveness Training⁴¹ and T.E.T.: Teacher Effectiveness Training.⁴² Two of the most important aspects of Gordon's programs relate to the establishment of the ownership of a particular problem or problems as well as the extensive use of "I" messages and active listening techniques. He has designed a six step program that seeks to find the best solution to a problem for all concerned. Gordon does not sanction the use of power by a teacher except that "he does admit it may be necessary when danger is involved."⁴³ Duke feels that Gordon's approach is "quite unlike the typical

⁴¹Thomas Gordon, P.E.T.: Parent Effectiveness Training, The Tested New Way to Raise Responsible Children, (New York: Peter H. Wyden, 1974).

⁴²Thomas Gordon, T.E.T.: Teacher Effectiveness Training, (New York: Peter H. Wyden, 1974).

⁴³Brophy and Putnam, "Classroom Management," p. 213.

way problems are resolved in class" and does away with the dependence on teachers "to impose a settlement."⁴⁴ Many of Gordon's ideas are borrowed from Ginott and are very similar to some of the approaches recommended by Glasser.

In 1965, Dr. William Glasser published his first book, Reality Therapy, which advanced a new approach to counseling.⁴⁵ By 1969, Dr. Glasser had evolved his eight step counseling model into a ten step discipline program for schools that was detailed in his book, Schools Without Failure.⁴⁶ A great deal of research has been conducted on Reality Therapy in a wide variety of settings. This research which represents a more substantial amount than that conducted on the other programs has so far shown that the place and manner in which the research was conducted seems to greatly affect the results more than any other variable. Generally speaking, Reality Therapy can be a time consuming process that "involves teachers taking a personal interest in students, making clear to them that they can control themselves and follow school rules, which they must do if they expect to stay in school."⁴⁷ Glasser himself

⁴⁴Duke, Managing Student Behavior Problems, p. 85.

⁴⁵William Glasser, Reality Therapy: A New Approach to Psychiatry (New York: Harper and Row, 1965).

⁴⁶William Glasser, Schools Without Failure (New York: Harper and Row, 1969).

⁴⁷Brophy and Putnam, "Classroom Management," p. 212.

states that there is nothing remarkable about his program but that it works when used correctly and does make school a better place for teachers and students.⁴⁸ Charles believes that the reason for the attractiveness of Reality Therapy is the "emphasis on helping, together with the acknowledgement that a large part of discipline is the student's responsibility."⁴⁹ Cates and Gang believe that Reality Therapy is successful because it humanizes the classroom and school.⁵⁰ Dr. Glasser has expanded Reality Therapy into the area of Control Theory. Basically, Control Theory is simply the belief that we all control for certain things in life and see reality through certain filters that may change our perceptions or understandings. Dr. Glasser's control theory ideas are best expressed in his Stations of the Mind⁵¹ and his new work, Take Effective Control of Your Life.⁵² Glasser's program borrows some of its ideas from the works of Ginott and Dreikurs and utilize some of the communication

⁴⁸Personal interview with Dr. William Glasser, April 1984.

⁴⁹Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, pp. 93-94.

⁵⁰J. T. Cates and N. J. Gang, "Classroom Discipline Problems and Reality Therapy: Research Support," Elementary School Guidance and Counseling 11 (December, 1976), pp. 131-137.

⁵¹William Glasser, Stations of the Mind (New York: Harper and Row, 1981).

⁵²William Glasser, Take Effective Control of Your Life (New York: Harper and Row, 1984).

aspects of Gordon's programs.

The final discipline program, and currently the most popular among educators, is Assertive Discipline which was developed by Lee Canter. The ideas of Canter, which are an outgrowth of assertion training, were expressed in his book, Assertive Discipline: A Take Charge Approach for Today's Educator.⁵³ Assertive Discipline is designed to be implemented through a five step process. Canter states that the program "is designed to give an educator the skills and confidence necessary to 'take charge' in the classroom."⁵⁴ Assertive Discipline provides both positive and negative consequences to behavior. Charles believes that "its unique contribution is the view that teachers must care enough about students to limit their self-defeating behavior" and "that they must insistently and firmly guide students and apply natural consequences of student behavior."⁵⁵ Canter reports that an eighty percent reduction in discipline problems results in schools where Assertive Discipline is used.⁵⁶ Mandlebaum, et.al. supports Canter's contentions in

⁵³Lee Canter, Assertive Discipline: A Take Charge Approach for Today's Educator (Los Angeles: Canter and Associates, 1976).

⁵⁴Lee Canter, "Taking Charge of Student Behavior," National Elementary Principal 58 (June, 1979), p. 33.

⁵⁵Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 130.

⁵⁶Lee Canter, "Competency-Based Approach to Discipline--It's Assertive," Thrust for Educational Leadership 8

a research project conducted with third graders in the midwest. Significant improvement of the students' behavior was recorded over the course of the study.⁵⁷ However, not everyone supports all the contentions of the success of Assertive Discipline. Watson states that it undermines "both the socialization and educations process" of schools.⁵⁸ Crockenberg believes that Assertive Discipline works "only by distorting moral language, by pandering to the defensiveness of teachers about their work, and by ignoring or denying that children have any significant rights or needs."⁵⁹ The research results are obviously not conclusive on Assertive Discipline and only time and continued study will provide an adequate answer.

(January, 1979), p. 13.

⁵⁷Linda Higbee Mandlebaum, "Assertive Discipline: An Effective Classwide Behavior Management Program," Behavioral Disorders 8, 4 (August, 1983), pp. 258-264.

⁵⁸Marilyn Watson, "Classroom Control: To What Ends? At What Price?" California Journal of Teacher Education 9 (Fall, 1982), p. 75.

⁵⁹Vincent Crockenberg, "Assertive Discipline: A Dissent," California Journal of Teacher Education 9 (Fall, 1982), p. 73.

CHAPTER IV

JACOB KOUNIN AND GROUP MANAGEMENT

Jacob Kounin is one of the most important entities in the study of discipline and classroom management. His research into group management has become the foundation for a multitude of discipline plans, approaches, or schemes. Kounin observed teacher and student behavior and its interaction in a variety of settings and came to a series of remarkably useful conclusions regarding these observations. Redl and Wattenberg had previously researched the nature of groups and how they functioned, but Kounin researched the manner and method by which a teacher affected group behavior and how ineffective or effective teaching skills impacted on group management, discipline, and behavior. This is what gives Kounin an ascendant position in the study of discipline. Even before hearing of Jacob Kounin, a great many experienced teachers will recognize and be familiar with many of Kounin's findings. It must be remembered and appreciated that he was the first to identify and disseminate information regarding teacher and student behaviors found in the classroom setting.

Kounin, who has a Ph.D. from Iowa State, began his interest in classroom and group management one day when a student was verbally reprimanded for reading a newspaper during class time. The result was that the student singled out began to behave better but so did others in the classroom.¹ Kounin later identified this reaction in others in the classroom as the ripple effect. This discovery led to a great body of research in four various settings. The four settings were college, kindergarten, high school, and summer camp. As a result of this research and an exhaustive study of the data obtained, Kounin published the work, Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms.²

Kounin's research emphasizes group management because of his belief that "planned and unplanned realities of a classroom necessitate a teacher having skills that go beyond curricular planning and managing individual children."³ In looking at the impact and broad outcome of the ripple effect, Kounin found that the ripple effect was found in each of his four chosen settings but not as

¹Jacob Kounin, Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms, p. 1.

²Ibid.

³Ibid., p. iv.

extensive in summer camp as compared to the others.⁴ The reasons may be many, but the most obvious is that summer camps are more loosely structured and the adult reaction to misbehavior is substantially different in a summer camp as compared to a highly structured classroom setting.

Kounin, after recognizing the universality of ripple effects, then addressed the subject of desists and the manner in which they are issued. A desist is a term used "to designate a teacher's doing something to stop a misbehavior."⁵ The subsequent "ripple effect will refer to the effect of this desist event upon other members of the classroom."⁶ Kounin identified three qualities of desists. Charles summarizes these as:

- 1) Clarity--the desist carried information that named the deviant, specified the behavior that was unacceptable, and listed the reasons for the desist.
- 2) Firmness--an "I-mean-it" attitude was projected with follow through until the child stopped the misbehavior.
- 3) Toughness--the desist included anger, threats, physical handling, and punishment.⁷

Two general statements can be made about desists. These

⁴Ibid., p. v.

⁵Ibid., p. 2.

⁶Ibid.

⁷Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 48.

are: "(1) that students who are not themselves targets of a desist are affected by it; and (2) there is a difference between a supporting desist and a threatening desist."⁸ A supporting desist is one that provides a better, more appropriate behavior pattern while a threatening desist implies only the use and importance of punishment. Kounin also discovered in his analyzing of desists that "the prestige and role of the emitter of the desist makes some difference."⁹ Those students who have a high motivation to learn and a high regard for their classroom instructor will react more positively to desists with "task related behavior" and "judge desist events more around learning ..."¹⁰

In studying the impact of desists and their relationship to ripple effects, Kounin produced a large amount of information useful for developing one into an effective classroom teacher. Perhaps what stands out the most in Kounin's research is the importance of the type of teacher and the relationship between the teacher and class and how this effects the quality and potency of the desists. This is the area of the research that has proven so useful in training of teachers and developing an effective

⁸Kounin, Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms, p. 4.

⁹Ibid., p. 6.

¹⁰Ibid., p. 31.

classroom atmosphere. Duke even states that Kounin deserves special credit for the advancement of teacher training and the identification of behaviors that the classroom teacher needs to acquire.¹¹ Jones and Jones relate that Kounin's research "substantiates that the majority of classroom discipline problems can be alleviated by effective teaching."¹²

Kounin feels that "the commitment to the teacher is the predominant determinant of students' evaluation of teachers' desists, when these evaluations have clear good-bad connotations."¹³ In effect, his studies found that the desist is more powerful at the elementary level and becomes weaker at the secondary and college level with the position or prestige of the instructor directly related to the students' reaction to the desist and the general reaction to the ripple effect phenomenon.¹⁴

Kounin did not limit his studies of classroom management to the impact of desist or the ripple effect but continued studying teacher and student behavior by utilizing videotape sessions and materials. In doing this, Kounin

¹¹Duke, Managing Student Behavior Problems, p. 139.

¹²Jones and Jones, Responsible Classroom Discipline, p. 11.

¹³Kounin, Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms, p. 37.

¹⁴Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 49.

discovered that "there were specific categories of teachers' behaviors that correlated with their managerial success ..."15 and that these behaviors were related to "work involvement, deviancy rate, contagion of misbehavior, and effectiveness of desists."16 Teachers' behaviors included such items as withitness, overlapping, and transition smoothness or movement management.

Withitness is probably one of the most important of the identified teacher behaviors. "Withitness was defined as a teacher's communicating to the children by her actual behavior ... that she knows what the children are doing or has the proverbial 'eyes in the back of the head'."17 Charles identifies two important aspects of withitness. The "first is the ability to select the correct student for a desist. The second element is attending to the more serious deviancy when two are occurring simultaneously."18 Duke addresses the same situation when he defines poor management practices in the following manner.

Poor management practices were: 1) reprimanding the wrong child for a deviant act, 2) dealing with a less serious deviancy, while overlooking a more serious one, 3) permitting a deviance to spread

¹⁵Kounin, Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms, p. 74.

¹⁶Ibid.

¹⁷Ibid., p. 80-81.

¹⁸Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 49.

before intervening, and 4) permitting a deviancy to intensify before intervening.¹⁹

Kounin further defines the teacher who has withitness as one who "communicates she knows."²⁰

Two elements of withitness include timing and target. Timing of a desist and the target of the desist are both important, because they regulate the degree to which the desist will be successful. Charles states that "handling the correct deviant on time was more important to classroom control than was the firmness or clarity of a desist."²¹

Another identified group management teacher behavior is overlapping. "Overlapping refers to what the teacher does when she has two matters to deal with at the same time."²² Overlapping means being able to handle more than one happening in the classroom at the same time. This is something that all teachers develop to a certain degree. However, the key is that the students must know attention was paid to the various issues. Kounin states that "any overt act, no matter how short or mild, manifesting some

¹⁹Duke, Managing Student Behavior Problems, p. 140.

²⁰Kounin, Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms, p. 81.

²¹Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 50.

²²Kounin, Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms, p. 85.

attention to both issues was adequate to code an overlapping event."²³ The overt act "might be a remark, a direction, or a simple look."²⁴

As is well known, there is a great deal of movement and shifting of learning activities in a self contained classroom. "A teacher in a self contained classroom ... must manage considerable activity movement: she must initiate, sustain, and terminate many activities."²⁵ The ability to manage this activity has a great deal to do with classroom effectiveness. Brophy and Putnam report that "the lessons of effective teachers proceeded smoothly and at a good pace, but the lessons of teachers who had management problems lacked coherence."²⁶ They also found that "students were attentive and involved when lesson followed a logical structure and move along at a good pace."²⁷ There are, however, two mistakes, deemed transitional mistakes, that can interfere with effective movement management. These were identified as jerkiness and slowdowns.

Jerkiness consists of four acts that may result in an ineffective transition from one activity to another.

²³Ibid., p. 87.

²⁴Ibid., p. 86.

²⁵Ibid., p. 92.

²⁶Brophy and Putnam, "Classroom Management in the Elementary Grades," p. 189.

²⁷Ibid.

These four acts are thrusts, dangles, truncations, or flip flops. A thrust is when a teacher bursts into sudden activity before the class or group has been sufficiently prepared.²⁸ Thrusts are jarring and jerky transitions to the students. A dangle is another act that relates to jerkiness. This usually happens when a teacher leaves one activity "hanging in mid-air" and begins another. The teacher then realizes that the first activity is still dangling and returns to that activity. This leaves some students focusing on both the first and second classroom activities.²⁹ Truncations are "the same as a dangle, except that in a truncation the teacher does not resume the initiated, then dropped activity."³⁰ The final aspect of jerkiness is identified as flip-flops. In a flip-flop "a teacher terminates one activity, starts another, and then initiates a return to the activity she had terminated."³¹ This and the other jerkiness activities interfere with classroom learning and contribute to misbehavior. Corno states that learning is "significantly greater when the

²⁸Kounin, Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms, p. 93.

²⁹Ibid., p. 100-101.

³⁰Ibid., p. 101.

³¹Ibid.

classroom activity has a high degree of continuity."³²

The second transitional mistake is identified by Kounin as slowdowns. "Slowdowns consisted of those behaviors initiated by teachers that clearly slowed down the rate of movement in a[n] ... activity."³³ Two main categories of slowdowns were identified. These were overdwelling and fragmentation. Each of these categories of slowdowns had one or more sub-categories.

Overdwelling means that a teacher spent too much time on an issue "that was clearly beyond what was necessary for most children's understanding or getting with an activity."³⁴ Behavior overdwelling is also known as nagging or preaching. This type of overdwelling was "beyond what was adequate to get a misbehavior stopped or to produce conformity."³⁵ Actone overdwelling is different in that it concentrates on "a sub-part of a more inclusive behavior unit."³⁶ In effect the concepts are not as important as the details. The third type of overdwelling is prop

³²Lyn Corno, "Classroom Instruction and the Matter of Time," Classroom Management, ed. by Daniel Duke, Seventy-Eighth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (Chicago, Illinois: University of Chicago Press, 1979), p. 273.

³³Kounin, Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms, p. 102.

³⁴Ibid.

³⁵Ibid.

³⁶Ibid., p. 103.

overdwelling. Charles explains that "this happens when teachers devote more time and attention to physical props than to the lesson."³⁷ In effect, the pencil or worksheet become more important than the lesson, thus extending the lesson beyond a normal time span. Task overdwelling is the final example identified by Kounin. This is very similar to behavior overdwelling but instead the focus is on the task. Kounin states that:

In task overdwelling, the teacher overelaborates explanations and direction beyond what will be required for most children to understand, to the point where most children would actually be held back from progressing with the task if they were listening to her.³⁸

Overdwelling tends to extend the lesson and inhibits learning by the students. Fragmentation inhibits learning also but by breaking up the learning activity into very small components.

Fragmentation, as stated, "is a slowdown produced by a teacher's breaking down an activity into sub-parts when the activity could be performed as a single unit."³⁹ Two types of fragmentation were identified by Kounin. Group fragmentation takes place when an instructor has "members of

³⁷Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 53.

³⁸Kounin, Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms, p. 104.

³⁹Ibid., p. 105.

a group do something singly and separately what a whole group could be doing as a unit and at one time."⁴⁰ The result of this action by the teacher is that there is a significant amount of time when some students may be idle. This slows down class activities. The second type of identified fragmentation is prop or actone fragmentation. This happens when an action or behavior is broken into smaller components and the focus is on "these separate sub-parts when the behavior could have been performed as a single, uninterrupted sequence."⁴¹ Sub-parts may be either props or actones. It may seem that jerkiness and slowdowns are not that important, but according to Charles, "Kounin found that teachers' ability to manage smooth transitions and maintain momentum was more important to work involvement and classroom control than any other behavior management technique."⁴² Jones and Jones state "that one important aspect of prevention is assuring that the class runs smoothly and that students are not faced with frequent or extensive periods of confusion or boredom."⁴³

Kounin knew that teachers had as their paramount job "to work with a group of children in one room at one

⁴⁰Ibid.

⁴¹Ibid., p. 106.

⁴²Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 54.

⁴³Jones and Jones, Responsible Classroom Discipline, p. 201.

time."⁴⁴ He also recognized that the hardest thing facing a teacher was to maintain a strong, concerted group focus. Kounin identified three parts or dimensions of group focus. These were:

- (1) Format--designed to get at the set up of the activity in regard to the amount of participation required of members of the group;
- (2) Group Alerting--designed to ascertain the degree to which teachers keep children on their toes; and
- (3) Accountability--designed to measure how much the teacher holds the members of the group accountable for their performances.⁴⁵

He also developed a series of techniques that may help the individual teacher a higher amount of group focus. Charles effectively summarizes Kounin's suggestions to increase group alerting which Charles calls attention as well as summarizing accountability techniques.

Techniques which may be employed to increase group alerting are:

- 1) The teacher attracts attention by looking around the group in a suspenseful manner, or saying "Let's see who can..."
- 2) The teacher keeps in suspense who will be called on next and avoids a predictable pattern of response.

⁴⁴Kounin, Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms, p. 109.

⁴⁵Ibid., p. 113.

- 3) The teacher varies unison responses with individual responses.
- 4) Nonreciters are alerted that they may be called on in connection with a reciter's response...⁴⁶

Techniques are also given which may increase accountability on the part of the student. These are:

- 1) All students hold up props for the teacher to see...
- 2) The teacher asks all members to observe and check on accuracy while one member performs.
- 3) The teacher asks all members to write the answer, and then at random calls on several students to respond.
- 4) The teacher circulates and observes the responses of nonreciters.
- 5) The teacher calls for a unison response and then checks individuals at random.⁴⁷

Although all three dimensions of group focus are important, Kounin found that group alerting or attention was the most important.⁴⁸ He also found that "two gross kinds of academic activities: recitation and seatwork"⁴⁹ are used extensively which can result in satiation.

⁴⁶Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 55.

⁴⁷Ibid., p. 54-55.

⁴⁸Kounin, Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms, p. 124.

⁴⁹Ibid., p. 125.

"Satiation means getting filled up with something, getting enough of it, getting bored."⁵⁰ Kounin has identified behavioral signs such as "more frequent and longer pauses, more looking elsewhere, more escapes (tying shoe laces, sharpening pencils...)"⁵¹ as signals that satiation exists. However, "satiation does not occur, or occurs very slowly, when there is a feeling of progress since the essential condition for producing satiations is repetitiousness"⁵² without noticeable progress. In addition to progress, challenge and variety help reduce incidence of satiation. All three are addressed when an instructor utilizes "a wide range of instructional skills to ensure that students were more consistently and actively engaged in instructional activities."⁵³ Kounin calls for a change in the duration of activities; challenges to various levels of learning within the class; an altering of routine; changes in group configuration; and, a wide variance of lesson presentations.⁵⁴ Perhaps many of the problems classroom teachers face today are a result of satiation and the

⁵⁰Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 56.

⁵¹Kounin, Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms, p. 127.

⁵²Ibid.

⁵³Jones and Jones, Responsible Classroom Discipline, p. 161.

⁵⁴Kounin, Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms, p. 128-135.

failure of the teacher to address the need for true progress, variety, and an educationally challenging environment.

The work of Jacob Kounin is not only important because it began the movement towards a different manner in which to handle discipline situations but also because of the vast information and techniques it provides to the novice as well as the experienced educator. The issue of classroom management is of utmost importance and "refers to the provisions and procedures necessary to establish and maintain an environment in which instruction and learning occur."⁵⁵ Contrary to what many educators think, the concern for group management does not neglect the individual child. Kounin states that "the mastery of group management actually enables the teacher to program for individual differences and to help individual children."⁵⁶ It certainly is true that "students behave more appropriately and learn more when teachers employ sound instructional methods."⁵⁷

Although Kounin addresses discipline as only an element of classroom management, the insight he provides has

⁵⁵Duke, Managing Student Behavior Problems, p. 139.

⁵⁶Kounin, Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms, p. 144.

⁵⁷Jones and Jones, Responsible Classroom Discipline, p. 180.

been used by many others who have actively addressed the issue of discipline, including Ginott, Glasser, Dreikurs and Duke. The techniques of classroom management provided are useful regardless of the discipline program one elects to use. Feldhusen calls Kounin's work a "classic study of teacher's techniques for classroom management and discipline in elementary and secondary classrooms."⁵⁸ Certainly, "teachers who exhibit the kinds of management skills identified by Kounin ... are usually able to deal successfully with behavior tasks."⁵⁹ His research does indicate that students respond better to those "who are better able to monitor and react to situations and create a well organized atmosphere in which students are actively involved."⁶⁰ Kounin says it best when he indicates that "mastery of group management techniques enables a teacher to be free from concern about management."⁶¹ Brophy and Putnam, however, wonder if Kounin's work does not leave "little room for the systematic use of ignoring in an attempt to extinguish misbehavior that is not trivial and

⁵⁸Feldhusen, "Problems of Student Behavior in Secondary Schools," p. 237.

⁵⁹Chamberlain, Effective Instruction Through Dynamic Discipline, p. 13.

⁶⁰Jones and Jones, Responsible Classroom Discipline, p. 48.

⁶¹Kounin, Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms, p. 145.

persistent."⁶² But they do admit that Kounin's work is the only large scale research done in the area of classroom management.⁶³

Even this relatively insignificant criticism can not lessen the impact of the group management studies of Kounin. His contribution to the study of discipline and future discipline programs is obvious. It is no wonder that many other designers of programs incorporate his ideas and observations of group management into their own programs.

⁶²Brophy and Putnam, "Classroom Management in the Elementary Grades," p. 206.

⁶³Ibid., p. 200.

CHAPTER V

THE GINOTT MODEL FOR DISCIPLINE

The Ginott Model for Discipline was developed by Dr. Haim G. Ginott. Dr. Ginott, before his death in 1973, had been a professor of psychology at New York University. His basic philosophy was first expressed in two works. These are Between Parent and Child¹ and Between Parent and Teenager.² His work, Teacher and Child,³ published in 1972 sets forth a method by which the classroom teacher may effectively address discipline problems.

The philosophy that Dr. Ginott espoused centers around a remarkably true statement found in Teacher and Child. This statement aptly illustrates the power that a teacher possesses in a classroom. Dr. Ginott states:

I have come to a frightening conclusion. I am the decisive element in the classroom. It is my personal approach that creates the climate. It is my daily mood that makes the weather. As a

¹Ginott, Between Parent and Child.

²Ginott, Between Parent and Teenager

³Ginott, Teacher and Child**

teacher I possess tremendous power to make a child's life miserable or joyous. I can be a tool of torture or an instrument of inspiration. I can humiliate or humor, hurt or heal. In all situations it is my response that decides whether a crisis will be escalated or de-escalated, and a child de-humanized.⁴

Ginott believed his approach would enable the teacher to handle the awesome responsibility of teaching and provide the skills needed "for dealing effectively and humane with minute-to-minute happenings - the small irritations, the daily conflicts, the sudden crises."⁵

Ginott's Model of Discipline is basically a communication model that advances the use of congruent communication which is essentially "a way of talking that is harmonious and authentic in which teacher messages to students match the student's feeling about the situations and themselves."⁶ Congruent communication is important in the classroom because it establishes and can control the climate of a particular classroom. Ginott states that "learning depends on the emotional climate engendered by empathy and civility . . . the chronological distance and psychological chasm that separates children from adults can

⁴Ibid., pp. 15-16.

⁵Ibid., p. 38.

⁶Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 75.

be bridged only by genuine empathy . . ."⁷ Duke states that teachers too often "underestimate the power of words they use."⁸

In order to communicate effectively with students, Ginott advocates the use of sane messages. The cardinal principle and attribute of sane messages is to talk to the situation, not to be the personality and character."⁹ Dealing with the situation at hand and not becoming vindictive or personal is very important. Ginott feels that adults often send insane messages that tell "children to distrust or deny their feelings or inner reality . . . they tell children to deny their feelings about themselves and to rely on others for judgement of their self worth."¹⁰ One can only win respect when one is authentic and the words adequately fit the feelings that exist in the situation.

Ginott's method provides for both the use of "I" and "you" messages. The "I" messages are very similar to those envisioned by Thomas Gordon and his Effectiveness Training programs. Ginott believes that "I" messages are especially appropriate when the teacher is angry or upset about the existing classroom behavior. When the teacher is angry, "I" messages avoid attracting the problem student personally,

⁷Ginott, Teacher and Child, p. 77.

⁸Duke, Managing Student Behavior Problems, p. 83.

⁹Ginott, Teacher and Child, p. 84.

¹⁰Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 76.

but do address the situation. Ginott states "the salvation of communication between teacher and child depends on learning to express nuances of anger without nuances of insult."¹¹ Dealing with anger appropriately allows the teacher to model effective behavior in stressful situations and also gives the teacher the opportunity to show the diversity of the English language by "expressing anger in eloquent terms."¹² Even simple statements such as "I am angry" can be very appropriate. These direct statements are very timely and found in several other discipline programs especially those of Glasser and Gordon. When the words are authentic and fit the feelings one wins respect from the students.¹³

"You" messages are used when "responding to the child's plight, complaint, or request."¹⁴ "You" messages are essentially feeling messages and are found in a great many counseling methods but especially those espoused by Carl Rogers. "You" messages that are effective have the following attributes according to Ginott:

It accurately acknowledges the child's statement
or state of mind.
It does not deny his perception.

¹¹Ginott, Teacher and Child, p. 87

¹²Charles, Building Classroom discipline, p. 77.

¹³Ginott, Between Parent and Teenager, p. 55.

¹⁴Ginott Between Teacher and Child, p. 96.

It does not dispute his feelings.
 It does not disown his wishes.
 It does not deride his taste.
 It does not denigrate his opinions.
 It does not derogate his character.
 It does not degrade his person.
 It does not argue with his experience.¹⁵

The effective use of both "I" and "you" messages helps one to avoid labeling and provides the opportunity for the child to cooperate in a situation and to choose a more productive behavior in the future. These messages also work very well in dissipating anger that may exist between a parent and child without creating a crisis situation.¹⁶

Ginott feels that "children need guidance, not criticism"¹⁷ and that "helpful correction is direction. It describes process. It does not judge products or persons."¹⁸ Thus, Ginott believes that efficacious communication in the classroom not only establishes the climate but controls the learning environment. "Simply because students do not appear to pay attention in class does not mean they are unaware of what teachers are saying."¹⁹

The proper use of "I" and "you" messages provides an opportunity to openly express one's feelings and also

¹⁵Ibid., p. 97.

¹⁶Ginott, Between Parent and Teenager, pp. 98-99.

¹⁷Ginott, Teacher and Child, p. 104.

¹⁸Ibid., p. 103.

¹⁹Duke, Managing Student Behavior Problems, p. 83.

address the needs and concerns of children in the classroom. This communication when used properly allows the acceptance and acknowledgement of the beliefs and feelings of the students in the class as well as providing a means to correct or direct behavior. It also avoids sarcasm, therefore avoiding damaged self esteem or the labeling of students which Ginott sees as disabling.²⁰

Ginott provides a summary of the types of things that a teacher is called upon to do in the course of the daily routine. Congruent communication, when learned and practiced, can provide the skills to:

- motivate learning
- encourage autonomy
- bolster self-esteem
- engender self-confidence
- allay anxiety
- diminish fear
- decrease frustration
- defuse rage
- de-escalate conflict²¹

Ginott believes that the use of praise need to be carefully evaluated and observed by the classroom teacher. He states that "praise consists of two parts: what we say to the child and what he in turn says to himself."²² Ginott feels that too many teachers use praise to "manipulate

²⁰Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, pp. 79-80.

²¹Ginott, Teacher and Child, p. 120.

²²Ibid., p. 126.

student feelings about themselves."²³ Praise may have a detrimental effect if it is used about the character of a student. "Teachers need to concentrate applauding specific acts without including . . . the personality."²⁴ Praise should not be judgmental or evaluative but descriptive in nature. Praise appropriately designed and used should encourage, motive, and support.²⁵

It should be obvious that Ginott sees the teacher and the teacher's behavior as the most important element in maintaining classroom discipline. The use of congruent communication with its sane messages and the effective use of "I" and "you" messages contribute to the overall learning atmosphere of the classroom and helps reduce discipline problems. To Ginott "the essence of discipline is finding effective alternatives to punishment."²⁶ Good communication allows one a means to direct or re-direct inappropriate behavior. It must be remembered that "good discipline is a series of little victories"²⁷ and that threats and punishment do not necessarily make a child more honest or more responsible but it may certainly make the child more

²³Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 81.

²⁴Ibid.

²⁵Ibid., p. 82.

²⁶Ginott, Teacher and Child, p. 147.

²⁷Ibid., p. 148

careful.²⁸

Ginott holds that the teacher's own self discipline is very important. By modeling appropriate behavior, when a discipline problem arises, the teacher is able to help children learn how to handle difficult situations. Teachers using Ginott's model and exhibiting appropriate discipline should:

- Recognize feelings
- Describe the situation
- Invite cooperation
- Are brief
- Model appropriate behavior
- Discourage physical violence
- Do not criticize, call names, or insult
- Focus on solutions
- Allow face saving exits
- Allow the children to set their own standards
- Are helpful
- De-escalate conflicts²⁹

Ginott borrows heavily from the work of Jacob Kounin³⁰ when discussing how to handle unpredictable group behavior in the classroom. Ginott re-emphasizes and confirms the importance of a teacher having "withitness" or the ability to know what is going on at all times in the classroom.³¹ He also supports the relevance and importance

²⁸Ibid., p. 151.

²⁹Charles, Building Classroom discipline, pp. 83-84.

³⁰Kounin, Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms.

³¹Ginott, Teacher and Child, p. 174.

of overlapping, movement management, and group focus as emphasized by Kounin. (See Chapter 4.)³² Ginott's work as well as Kounin's stresses the importance of an effective classroom climate and the role of a teacher in creating and maintaining this climate.

Ginott's Model of Discipline is not a "recipe" model but one that accepts the importance of the teacher in creating an appropriate learning atmosphere. Through short vignettes, Ginott effectively illustrates the best and the worst of teachers. Over and over again, he emphasizes the importance of the educational, social, and emotional atmosphere of the class. Teachers who use congruent communication methods are viewed as being more successful because they succinctly state the situation, what is to be done, and that they respect and are aware of the feelings of the student. The use of "I" and "you" messages contributes greatly to the success of the teacher and allows for an effective manner in which one may deal with very strong emotions. Punishment is seen as solving nothing. But guidance, re-direction, and praise used properly help the student become more responsible and thus more successful in class.

Ginott's message is a strong one and, in reality, expresses not only the importance of communication skills

³²Ibid., pp. 175-178.

but human relation skills as well. Certainly, his ideas and techniques may be highly appropriate for the majority of classroom difficulties and, just as certainly, the climate of the classroom effects learning, discipline, and human growth. However, Ginott's method fails to address the habitual problem student in need of psychological help, or the student who does not wish to remain in school and is actively seeking dismissal. Ginott's basic premise of establishing a climate that promotes optional learning is valid regardless of the discipline method chosen by the classroom teacher.

CHAPTER VI

REDL AND WATTENBERG'S APPROACH TO DISCIPLINE

Fritz Redl and William W. Wattenberg wrote only one major work together, Mental Hygiene in Teaching,¹ although a great many of their individual efforts or works with others closely paralleled each other. Redl had been born in Vienna, Austria, and came to the United States in 1936 where he became a professor at Wayne State University. Redl also wrote When We Deal with Children² and Controls from Within³ with David Wineman in addition to several journal articles addressing the maladaptive child. William Wattenberg received his doctorate from Columbia University and eventually taught at Wayne State University. Redl and Wattenberg's Mental Hygiene in Teaching looks at both the psychological and social forces that affect behavior in the

¹Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching.

²Fritz Redl, When We Deal With Children, (New York: The Free Press), 1966.

³Fritz Redl and David Wineman, Controls From Within: Techniques for the Treatment of the Aggressive Child, (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press), 1952.

classroom. They believe that, as Kounin does, the group is distinctly different from the individual and that a teacher needs to understand group processes as well as individual nuances in order to effectively teach and maintain order.

Redl and Wattenberg envisioned the group as an organism⁴ and that each individual group has a particular pattern of cliques and subgroups that provide unique characteristics of that group.⁵ In addition, they believe that one must understand the reason behind certain behavior and that often "motivation is . . . a key concept in the study of behavior."⁶ Redl and Wattenberg were cognizant that a great amount of knowledge had been collected on the individual and the individual's development, goals, and behavior. However, they also admitted "that teachers seldom deal with students on a purely individual basis"⁷ and "we never work with the individual in mid-air; school classes are groups."⁸ To them a group "creates conditions such that its member parts will behave in certain ways because they belong to it: at the same time, the manner in which the

⁴Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching, p. 266.

⁵Ibid., p. 267.

⁶Ibid., p. 46.

⁷Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 32.

⁸Redl, When We Deal With Children, p. 257.

parts function affects the whole."⁹ Essentially, this means that "group expectations strongly influence individual behavior, and individual behavior, in turn, affects the group."¹⁰ Their main goal was to assist the teacher in dealing with group behavior. As they stated, "teachers need as much help in their task of effective group leadership as in studying the individual child."¹¹

Each group has several individuals playing different roles. The most easily recognizable and significant roles are the leader, the clown, fall guys, and instigators. The leader is one who "is almost sure to stand out by giving instructions, settling disputes, co-ordinating activity, or setting an example which others follow."¹² Most leaders share certain qualities according to Charles and these are an above average intellect, socio-economic skills, better social skills, and a greater degree of exhibited responsibility.¹³ Each group also may or may not have an advocate. According to Redl and Wattenberg this person may not have all the skills to be a leader but is often superior to the

⁹Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching, p. 267.

¹⁰Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 258.

¹¹Redl, When We Deal With Children, p. 258.

¹²Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching, p. 271.

¹³Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 33.

leader because he/she is "more facile with words or ideas" and can defend "the group against charges from adults."¹⁴

The class clown is someone who teachers are very cognizant of and often deal with on a daily basis. Clowns often play the group entertainer but may do so to hide "feelings of inferiority."¹⁵ Clowns often reflect the true feeling of the group about the teacher and class and have the group's tacit approval for their behavior. Clowns also may act as a facilitator for the teacher and class in getting through a particularly difficult situation.

Fall guys are those who provide others in the group "a great psychological security"¹⁶ because they often take the blame for something done by others. The fall guy allows others to misbehave because he/she can be manipulated to take the punishment. The instigator is similar to the fall guy but only in an opposite sense. An instigator "may be skillful in setting the stage for fights; they suggest pranks, they spread gossip,"¹⁷ but they never are blamed for the group's action. It is important for the teacher to ascertain whether an instigator is guilty of causing some of

¹⁴Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching, p. 274.

¹⁵Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 33.

¹⁶Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching, p. 275.

¹⁷Ibid., p. 290-293.

the group's problems and to unmask the instigator.

Each of these roles provides a person a sense of belonging to the group. The totality of all the roles and the manner in which they interface is called group dynamics. Group dynamics is especially important to Redl and Wartenberg because it helps one understand some of the problems that may exist in a classroom. As important as group dynamics is group climate. Group dynamics is a result of the actions of members of the group. Group climate is a result of the actions and beliefs of the teacher and directly affects the manner in which group dynamics develop. Group climate can be described as the "basic feeling that underlies the life of a group, the sum total of everybody's emotions toward one another, toward work and organization, toward the group as a unit, and toward things outside."¹⁸ Redl has identified four distinct group climates. The punitive climate reflects the teacher's lack of respect for the students and is highly autocratic. The emotional-blackmail climate is one in which the teacher plays on the emotions of the students and makes them feel guilty for their behavior. The class that finds competition as the only answer for their daily school life reflects the

¹⁸Redl, When We Deal With Children, p. 290.

hostile-competition climate. Finally, the group-pride climate is one which finds everyone emotionally tied to each other for the good of the group, class or school. This is the most acceptable to Redl of the four groups.¹⁹

Redl believes that not only will group climate affect group dynamics but also group morale. The "morale of a class is . . . influenced by relationships between groups and by community conditions."²⁰ The community conditions mentioned can be those in the classroom community which may be adversely affected by mistakes in organization by the teacher. These mistakes may create emotional strain on the group exhibited by anxiety or boredom. Redl lists the possible mistakes in organization as follows:

- Too Much Autocratic Pressure
- Too Little Security
- Too High or Too Low Standards for Group Behavior
- Too Much Organization
- Out of Focus Group Organization
- Lack of Tact
- Inconsistency in Promise and Threat
- Wrong Use of Techniques
- Plan for Revenge Instead of Educational Change²¹

All of this may directly affect the way a group behaves towards others as well as itself. Redl and Wattenberg recognize six distinct behaviors that reflect

¹⁹Ibid., p. 290-293.

²⁰Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching, pp. 282-290.

²¹Redl, When We Deal With Children, pp. 293-296.

group dynamics. These are: contagion of behavior, scapegoating, cultivation of mascots, teacher's pets, reaction to strangers, and group disintegration.²² Each of these behaviors is important and are encountered by every educator.

Contagious behavior simply means that when one student does something in class there is a possibility that others may also respond with the same behavior. If the behavior is inappropriate "other students may follow, especially, if the instigator has high status."²³ The manner in which the behavior is handled by the teacher will directly relate to its extinction or spread. However, if the behavior is a good behavior, teachers can and should "enthusiastically encourage it, reinforce it, and give status to those who behave appropriately."²⁴

Scapegoating takes place when the group is "likely to displace this feeling of hostility upon an unpopular individual or subgroup."²⁵ This is obviously not only unacceptable but can be highly detrimental to the person involved. Sometimes, groups instead of scapegoating the

²²Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching, pp. 282-290.

²³Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 34.

²⁴Ibid.

²⁵Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching, p. 284.

less popular student will cultivate them as mascots. This usually involves a student whom the others view as "different from themselves but in a way which makes them feel superior in a nonpunitive style."²⁶ The person chosen to serve as a mascot may be undersized or handicapped in some manner. Redl and Wattenberg see the cultivation of a student as a mascot "less harmful than open prejudice or discrimination."²⁷

The impact of teacher's pets is obvious. The group generally "reacts with jealousy and resentment."²⁸ This does not mean that an educator should not provide extra help when needed but does call for caution in the manner in which the assistance is provided. It is not uncommon for the group to also be stressed by a stranger in the classroom. "One effect of a stranger is to increase group tension."²⁹ If the stranger is a new student the group may either choose to help the student or may elect to test the student by exhibiting a wide variety of behaviors. If the stranger is an adult, the group may react in a way that exhibits support for the teacher. They may just as well respond to the stranger by being rude and discourteous. Each teacher would

²⁶Ibid., p. 285.

²⁷Ibid.

²⁸Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 35.

²⁹Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching, p. 288.

be wise to establish "a standard procedure to be followed whenever a stranger enters the classroom."³⁰

Perhaps the worst thing that can happen to a once coherent, unified group is group disintegration. The reasons for group disintegrations are several and may be reflected in minor ways such as boredom or more seriously with the demonstration of verbal abuse or fighting. Redl and Wattenberg feel that the teacher needs to look at his/her method and organization if disintegration begins. Some readily recognizable causes for group disintegration include extensive periods of empty waiting; the assignments of tasks that can not be completed; poor teaching methods; extreme emphasis on competition; excessive criticism of the students; and, any major changes in the structure of the group.³¹

As previously stated groups are effected by the climate established by the teacher as well as by any organizational mistakes committed by the instructor. This re-emphasizes the importance of the role or roles chosen by the classroom teacher. Each teacher is called upon to fill many different roles or images. Charles summarizes these roles very aptly. Some of them are:

³⁰Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 35.

³¹Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching, p. 289-290.

Teachers are representatives of society.
 Teachers are judges.
 Teachers are a source of knowledge.
 Teachers help students to learn. . .
 Teachers are referees.
 Teachers are detectives.
 Teachers are models.
 Teachers reduce anxiety. . .
 Teachers support student egos. . .
 Teachers are group leaders.
 Teachers are surrogate parents.
 Teachers are targets for hostility.
 Teachers are friends and confidantes
 Teachers are objects of affection. . .³²

Additionally, the teacher must "influence the behavior and growth of the individual and to influence the behavior and growth of the group."³³ But even if the teacher effectively fulfills all possible roles, this does not mean that problems will not exist. However, given the knowledge of group behavior one should be able to manage most disruptive behavior. Fully ninety percent of "all discipline cases are at least partially group-or-socially-oriented."³⁴

Redl has identified three factors that are involved when disruptive behavior takes place in the classroom. These are:

- 1) disruptive behavior is produced by one child and flows primarily from within him. . .

³²Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 36-37.

³³Redl, When We Deal With Children, p. 262.

³⁴Chamberlin, Effective Instruction Through Dynamic Discipline, p. 294.

- 2) disruptive behavior is produced by something that the classroom setting did to our youngster . . .
- 3) disruptive behavior of an individual child only seems to be 'his problem.' In reality, the whole group is in a state of unbearable tension or disorganization, and what looks like disruption . . . is really a breakdown of the group.³⁵

Redl has identified twenty reasons for disruptive behavior. Instead of giving them all, only a portion will be stated. They are:

- 1) Bored stiff
- 2) Waiting for 'hurdle help'
- 3) Normal reaction to mismanagement
- 4) Misperception of adult's intent
- 5) Communicational despair and motivational accusation
- 6) Spillover effect from preceding events
- 7) Testing the limits
- 8) Just for the heck of it
- 9) Practice of group-manipulation skills
- 10) Eruption of interpersonal tensions and feuds³⁶

The majority of these are self-explanatory but communicational despair and motivational accusation is an expression of disillusionment with the "intensity of disruption and disillusionment."³⁷ Whatever the reason for the disruption or discipline in the classroom, it becomes necessary and appropriate for the teacher to engage in diagnostic

371. ³⁵Redl, Disruptive Behavior in the Classroom, p.

³⁶Ibid., p. 572-588.

³⁷Ibid., p. 577.

thinking.

The essential characteristic of such thinking is that it is primarily concerned with determining the nature of a situation, figuring out the constellation of factors which produced it, and finding the point of attack.³⁸

Charles feels that "diagnostic thinking is not magic. Diligence and persistence are necessary for making it an effective tool."³⁹ Diagnostic thinking is seen as a five part process that "involves first hunch, fact gathering, hidden factors, acting and flexibility."⁴⁰

Redl and Wattenberg's first hunch is nothing overly remarkable. They "are rarely reasoned" and "represent the echoes of a person's previous experience."⁴¹ It is simply a feeling about a situation before any data is gathered and is based on past activities. As Redl and Wattenberg state "before logical thought can be brought to bear, these memories merge and suggest a theory. . . ."⁴² The next step in dealing with a situation "is to bring to bear the facts we already know and those that we can gather readily by

³⁸Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching, p. 328.

³⁹Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 37.

⁴⁰Ibid., p. 38.

⁴¹Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching, p. 328.

⁴²Ibid.

observation."⁴³ Once the facts and motivation or other hidden factors have been gathered, the teacher can then develop a workable hypothesis. "Although the full pattern of causation is not know, it is possible to take a first step on the basis of our understanding of the meaning of conduct."⁴⁴

Once the hypothesis is developed, it must be acted upon. It is important to remain flexible when acting and to appropriately judge the timing of the action. As Redl and Wattenberg state, "it is essential that we do not only decide what to do but when to do it."⁴⁵ Charles states that "feelings are very important . . ., teachers should . . .try to put themselves in the students' place, see how the students feel, and vary their actions accordingly."⁴⁶

Each teacher employs a great many techniques to maintain discipline. These techniques are called influence techniques and depend upon two preliminary considerations. The first is clarity. The "effectiveness of influence techniques depends upon how clear children are as to the issue involved."⁴⁷ The second consideration is authority

⁴³Ibid.

⁴⁴Ibid., p. 329.

⁴⁵Ibid., p. 339.

⁴⁶Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 38.

⁴⁷Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching,

hierarchy and it concerns the manner in which children react to authority and ascribed prestige. It should also be remembered that "goals of discipline vary and also that they change with age-groups."⁴⁸ In looking at various discipline influence techniques, Redl and Wattenberg were able to isolate four broad categories. These are supporting self-control, offering situational assistance, appraising reality, and invoking the pain-pleasure principle.⁴⁹ Redl also feels that "the 'discipline we have' . . . usually refers to the degree of organization we have achieved in a group" and that the "'discipline we use' . . . mean[s] anything we do to establish, maintain, or repair order in our groups."⁵⁰ Whichever influence techniques chosen should be applicable to Redl's law of marginal antisepsis. This simply means that the "technique that is right in terms of . . . problems must be at least harmless in its effects upon the total group."⁵¹

Those methods that are part of the supporting self control influence technique are effective "because all are low pressure methods, the teacher awards the problem of

p. 346-347.

⁴⁸Chamberlin, Effective Instruction Through Dynamic Discipline, p. 25.

⁴⁹Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 39.

⁵⁰Redl, When We Deal With Children, p. 260.

⁵¹Ibid., 264.

having to deal with the aggression which forceful interventions produce."⁵² Six methods are applicable to supporting self control techniques. These, all of which allow the student to maintain his autonomy, are: signals, proximity controls, interest boosting, humor, playful ignoring, and irritability drain-off.⁵³ All of the methods are used by successful teachers to a varying degree.

Signals may mean simply to look at a child or to "catch the eye of a child beginning to get in to mischief."⁵⁴ Proximity controls means closing the distance between teacher and student. Very often "the mere fact of coming close to youngsters or having them around or near the adult . . . have a calming effect on the children."⁵⁵ It may even include a "friendly, steadying gesture"⁵⁶ and often a friendly pat on the back "may make all the difference between failure and success."⁵⁷ Interest boosting means to show interest in the students work by observing or checking the work.

⁵²Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching, p. 348.

⁵³Ibid., p. 348-349.

⁵⁴Ibid., p. 349.

⁵⁵Redl, Controls from Within, p. 164.

⁵⁶Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching, p. 350.

⁵⁷Redl, Controls from Within, p. 165.

Humor has long been recognized as an effective discipline method. Redl states that "a sense of humor is so obviously the most vital characteristic of the skillful handler of discipline problems or tough group situations that its possession must be among the prime requisites for the job"⁵⁸ as an educator. By effectively using humor in a volatile situation "the teacher retains leadership of the group while wiping out the anxiety which the defiance may have created."⁵⁹

Planful ignoring means that the "offense or offender is ignored"⁶⁰ because "ignoring makes it easier for it to stop."⁶¹ Many other discipline programs including L.E.A.S.T. advocate planned ignoring. The final method in the supporting self control technique is irritability drain-off. This simply is the use of a gripe session or class meeting. Redl and Wattenberg state that "holding of a gripe session can work wonders in accomplishing"⁶² as an irritability drain-off.

⁵⁸Redl, When We Deal With Children, p. 303.

⁵⁹Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching, p. 351.

⁶⁰Ibid.

⁶¹Redl, Controls from Within, p. 158.

⁶²Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching, p. 352.

If the misbehavior has progressed past the point where it is difficult for the student or students to regain self-control then the second level of influence techniques providing situational assistance is accessed. There are six methods providing situational assistance. They are helping over hurdles, restructuring the situation, establishing routines, non-punitive exile, the use of restraint, and the removal of seductive objects.⁶³ Situational assistance does not solve long range problems but "momentary trouble has been avoided."⁶⁴

The method of helping over the hurdles is useful and valid when "youngsters do not know how to cope with some phase of the work."⁶⁵ Redl describes it as "the most ego-supportive thing to try."⁶⁶ Restructuring the situation calls for one to "change the nature of the activity or to give a new center for attention."⁶⁷ In effect one changes "the quality of the situation."⁶⁸ Establishing routines

⁶³Ibid., pp. 354-358.

⁶⁴Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching, p. 354.

⁶⁵Ibid., p. 354.

⁶⁶Redl, Controls from Within, p. 176.

⁶⁷Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching, p. 354.

⁶⁸Ibid.

reflects "the establishment a group pattern of doing things . . ."⁶⁹ Charles sees the establishment of routines as adding consistency to daily learning activities.⁷⁰

The non-punitive exile, similar to timeout, takes place when the "child must be removed for his own good as well as for the order of the class."⁷¹ It is important to remember that this is not to be construed as punishment.⁷² If the extent of the misbehavior is such that non-punitive exile is inappropriate or impossible it may become necessary to use restraint on the student. This means the teacher "may have to hold him physically either to remove him from the scene of danger and involvement, or to prevent him from doing physical damage to others or himself."⁷³ The use of restraint must be "entirely a protective action"⁷⁴ and the student should be "held firmly but not roughly."⁷⁵ Physical restraint should only last until such time that the student has regained control of himself. Finally, with many

⁶⁹Ibid., p. 355.

⁷⁰Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 41.

⁷¹Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching, p. 355.

⁷²Ibid.

⁷³Redl, Controls from Within, p. 210.

⁷⁴Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching, p. 356.

⁷⁵Ibid.

students, the answer may be removal of seductive objects. A seductive object is anything that the student focuses on more than the learning taking place in the class.⁷⁶

The third influence technique of Redl and Wattenberg is reality and value appraisal. This technique is appropriate when "values which we want to involve or the sense of reality are either weak or absent."⁷⁷ "The key to reality appraisal is that teachers must make it very clear to students which behaviors are unacceptable and what the consequences will be for those behaviors."⁷⁸ Reality and value appraisal consists of five distinct modes. These are direct appeals, criticism and encouragement, defining limits, postsituational followup, and a limited use of interpretation.⁷⁹

The use of direct appeals and the "effectiveness of any appeal depends upon . . . the basis for it."⁸⁰ A direct appeal for appropriate, proper behavior is a common disciplinary approach. The use of criticism and encouragement is also a common procedure. Yet, Redl and Wattenberg caution that criticism and encouragement is only

⁷⁶Ibid., p 357.

⁷⁷Ibid., p. 364.

⁷⁸Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 42.

⁷⁹Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching, p. 359-363.

⁸⁰Ibid., p. 359.

effective when properly used "to give a child or group greater insight into the adequacy of their conduct."⁸¹ Criticism should be given "in such a way that it stimulates effort to try harder."⁸²

Setting or establishing limits is important but it must be remembered that "limits are guidelines, not guarantees."⁸³ Charles states that "clarity and consistency are vital to setting limits."⁸⁴

Postsituational follow-up refers to the teacher's efforts to resolve a situation or to seek clarification once the disciplinary difficulty has stabilized. Once this has happened, "the individual or the group may need to rearrange their feelings."⁸⁵ This is not a time to pompously lecture the errant student but is instead a relevant time to understand each others' actions. This ties in directly with the limited use of interpretation. Certainly, too much can be read into any situation and this would serve little purpose and only hinder the seeking of a solution to the problem.

⁸¹Ibid.

⁸²Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 42.

⁸³Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching, p. 362.

⁸⁴Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 43.

⁸⁵Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching, p. 362.

The final influence technique and one that is all too often used is invoking the pleasure-pain principle. Four systems are found within this technique. They are rewards and promises, threats, praise and blame, and punishment.⁸⁶ Each of these methods may be highly negative in nature. For instance, the use of rewards and promises can be useful when the "rewards tend to build a positive self image"⁸⁷ But the use of rewards and promises holds great peril unless, as Redl states, it is "wise to establish some well-thought out pressures and rewards . . . " but "without putting the whole weight of motivation upon premiums and threats."⁸⁸

Threats as a disciplinary method will not work if one can not support the threats. "Empty threats are always perilous."⁸⁹ Threats are often seen as a challenge issued by the teacher to the student. Praise and blame is much like threats in that it too has a dangerous aspect. Too often praise and blame "seek to mold conduct by making the child feel good or bad about himself."⁹⁰ As Ginott and Dreikurs aptly illustrate, over-praising can also have

⁸⁶Ibid., p. 364-368.

⁸⁷Ibid., p. 364.

⁸⁸Ibid.

⁸⁹Ibid., p. 365.

⁹⁰Ibid., p. 367.

detrimental effects.

Finally, Redl and Wattenberg are adamant on the issue of punishment. They state: "[W]e reject the idea that physical pain will 'teach' the youngster . . . or will motivate him toward a more social approach to life, people, and values."⁹¹ The very nature of punishment calls for "the person being corrected always suffers some type of hurt or loss."⁹² Corporal punishment is "the denial of everything an education should stand for"⁹³ and states to the student that the teacher feels that deep down might is right.⁹⁴ Redl believes that often an "authoritative Verbot"⁹⁵ is more useful than corporal punishment. Redl and Wattenberg also believe that a child should never be excluded from school but rather included which "is the real issue."⁹⁶

The total issue of discipline is best summed up by the statement that "the problem is to help children develop standards of conduct in the classroom which make for the

⁹¹Redl, Controls from Within, p. 211.

⁹²Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching, p. 368.

⁹³Ibid., p. 375.

⁹⁴Ibid.

⁹⁵Redl, Controls from Within, p. 221.

⁹⁶Redl, Disruptive Behavior, p. 593.

best possible conditions for learning and development."⁹⁷
The basic goal is to "foster adjustment and obtain a degree of behavioral compliance by improving the life conditions of the student."⁹⁸

The essential premise of Redl and Wattenberg is that it is as important to understand group development as it is to understand individual development. In working with students it is important to be aware of not only the motivation for their behavior but how to address any subsequent misbehavior. Redl and Wattenberg feel the answer is through understanding roles within the group and the psychological forces that shape these roles. These forces and the group roles provide for insight into the dynamics of the group.

Each teacher who understands group dynamics is more capable and ready to engage in diagnostic thinking which is an ongoing evaluation process dealing with a specific situation. Once this is done the teacher is ready to use one of the four influence techniques and their various methods or modes recognized by Redl and Wattenberg. The technique and method chosen should be in direct relationship to the disciplinary problem. The one thing that Redl and

⁹⁷Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching, p. 384.

⁹⁸Brophy and Putnam, "Classroom Management in the Elementary Grades," p. 211.

Wattenberg are adamantly against is the use of corporal punishment.

Redl and Wattenberg provide no revolutionary insight into how to deal with behavior problems. What they do provide is a great amount of understanding of group behavior and group dynamics. The techniques provided may be "good for one purpose . . . " but "do not always coincide with the techniques that are effective for the other angle of the problem."⁹⁹ Yet as any educator knows it is better to employ some type of techniques in solving a discipline problem, even if it is wrong, because one is not precluded from "making up for such unavoidable mistakes by additional actions later."¹⁰⁰

Redl and Wattenberg never claimed to have all the answers. As Redl said even "claims by the most brilliant experts that their techniques 'work' remain meaningless for you until you examine those incidents in the light of the individuals you have to deal with."¹⁰¹ Yet, they did provide insight into group structure and along with Ginott, Kounin and Dreikurs became the foundation for many of the subsequent discipline programs.

⁹⁹Redl, Controls from Within, p. 263.

¹⁰⁰Ibid.

¹⁰¹Ibid., p. 275.

CHAPTER VII

DREIKURS' MODEL OF MISTAKEN GOALS

Rudolf Dreikurs was born in Vienna, Austria, in 1897. In 1937, he came to the United States and began his life long association with the Alfred Adler Institute in Chicago. His work is psychoanalytic in nature and directly reflects the beliefs of Alfred Adler. Stress is placed on "the importance of early family dynamics in understanding children"¹ as well as understanding the goals/mistaken goals that children seek. His major works include Psychology in the Classroom,² Maintaining Sanity in the Classroom,³ and Discipline Without Tears.⁴

A majority of Dreikurs' work is based on five premises espoused by Alfred Adler. These premises are envisioned as related to democratic principles and are as

¹Brophy and Putnam, "Classroom Management in the Elementary Grades," Classroom Management, p. 210.

²Dreikurs, Psychology in the Classroom.

³Dreikurs, Maintaining Sanity in the Classroom.

⁴Dreikurs, Discipline Without Tears.

follows:

- 1) Man is a social being and his main desire is to belong. This is true for adults and children alike.
- 2) All behavior is purposive. One cannot understand behavior of another person unless one knows to which goal it is directed, and it is always directed towards finding one's place.
- 3) Man is a decision-making organism. He decides what he really wants to do, often without being aware of it ...
- 4) Man is a whole being who cannot be understood by some partial characteristic. The whole is greater than the sum total of the parts ...
- 5) Man does not see reality as it is, but only as he perceives it, and his perception may be mistaken or biased.⁵

Thus, to both Adler and Dreikurs, "children are social beings who want to belong."⁶

The teacher is viewed as a very important component in the total educational process. The teacher "is the first person besides his parents to exert deliberate educational influences."⁷ The teacher not only is called on to instruct but to administer discipline as it becomes necessary. Each instructor, to some extent, contributes to the climate of the classroom and the type of discipline problems that may be encountered. Dreikurs recognizes three

⁵Ibid., p. 8-9.

⁶Ibid., p. 9.

⁷Dreikurs, Psychology in the Classroom, p. 41.

types of teachers. They are permissive, autocratic, and democratic.

A permissive teacher is one who finds nothing wrong with any child's actions and, in effect, condones "everything he does with the idea that he will turn out eventually to be a good and worthwhile member of society."⁸ A great many learning experiences are provided with the students selecting what they wish to learn as well as when they wish to learn. The climate of the classroom reflects confusion and the absence of any effective structure. A permissive teacher often creates a classroom climate that may "generate problem behavior."⁹ Dreikurs states that a permissive teacher is really a "laissez-faire anarchist."¹⁰

The autocratic teacher is an individual too easily recognized in American education. An autocratic teacher is one who "is committed 'to making' pupils do as they are told, forcing them to learn ... and denying any creative freedom of expression."¹¹ Other attributes of an autocratic teacher reflect the need to be boss, to dominate, to impose ideas utilizing power and pressure to maintain a disciplined classroom climate.

⁸Ibid., p. 16.

⁹Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 98.

¹⁰Dreikurs, Discipline Without Tears, p. 17.

¹¹Ibid., p. 15.

Dreikurs sees the third type of teacher, democratic, as the ideal. He claims that "the successful formula for guiding children in the classroom is based on the belief that democracy is not just a political ideal, but a way of life."¹² Dreikurs' personal political philosophy is directly related to his view of the democratic teacher. A democratic teacher provides guidance, encouragement, and recognizes achievement. Additionally, a democratic instructor works at cooperating with others and sharing responsibility in team efforts. Charles states that "democratic teachers teach that freedom is tied to responsibility" and students are given the freedom "to choose their own behavior."¹³

Dreikurs fully recognizes the impact that a good teacher has on a child. He states that a teacher occupies "a crucial position in each child's life. Your influence is long lasting ... You are responsible for setting an atmosphere in which attributes and achievements will grow with continuous progress."¹⁴ Dreikurs provides ten points for a teacher to utilize in creating a learning environment. These are:

¹²Ibid., p. 19.

¹³Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 98.

¹⁴Dreikurs, Discipline Without Tears, p. 24.

- 1) You are warm, friendly, and kind but firm.
- 2) You act and speak with confidence and sincerity and express a sense of humour naturally.
- 3) You always have work well planned before the class starts.
- 4) You treat all pupils with equal respect by listening to their opinion and considering their feelings.
- 5) You are encouraging at all times, in order to develop or restore the self confidence of your pupils ...
- 6) You are as impartial as possible. You try not to favour the pleasant, likable child or reject the one who is provocative or deficient.
- 7) You are able to integrate the class as a whole or divide it for group instruction in order to get optimum learning.
- 8) You encourage group discussion and participation in decision-making, set boundaries for expected behavior, and maintain these boundaries with effective, stimulating teaching.
- 9) You are not mistake centered, but always accent the positive by marking only the correct answers. You give recognition for any genuine effort.
- 10) You rotate the class monitors weekly, and involve all pupils in the chores and responsibilities of the classroom.¹⁵

Charles, in his work Building Classroom Discipline, recognizes the following elements of the work of Dreikurs as important for a democratic classroom. These are:

¹⁵Ibid., p. 22-23.

1. Order
2. Limits
3. Firmness and kindness. Firmness from teachers shows they respect themselves. Kindness shows they respect others
4. Student involvement in establishing and maintaining rules
5. Leadership from the teacher
6. Inviting cooperation--eliminating competition
7. A sense of belonging to a group
8. Freedom to explore, discover, and choose acceptable behavior through understanding the responsibilities and consequences associated with it¹⁶

Yet, even if a teacher is truly democratic in nature, discipline problems will still exist. The behavior exhibited by all children in class is chosen and purposeful. The child is not a victim of forces such as talent, genetics, environmental aspects, or trauma.¹⁷ When a child misbehaves in class it is important to avoid criticism because this can provoke hostility.¹⁸ But it is significant to recognize that behavior has four mistaken goals. These are: "1) to gain attention, 2) to seek power, 3) to seek revenge, 4) to display inadequacy (real or imagined)."¹⁹ (See Appendix II for a complete analysis of the goals.)

¹⁶Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 98-99.

¹⁷Dreikurs, Maintaining Sanity, p. 5.

¹⁸Dreikurs, Discipline Without Tears, p. 32.

¹⁹Dreikurs, Maintaining Sanity, p. 11.

According to Charles, Dreikurs gives three reasons children choose mistaken goals. All students are "social beings who want to belong."²⁰ Additionally, students may choose their behavior and whether it is acceptable or not. Thirdly, "students choose to misbehave because they are under the mistaken belief that it will get them the recognition they seek."²¹ Dreikurs states that five steps must be taken by the teacher in order to deal with the mistaken goals of the student. These steps are 1) observe the students behavior; 2) be aware of your own psychological reaction to the student; 3) confront the student with the four mistaken goals; 4) observe the recognition reflex of the student; and, 5) choose an appropriate correction process.²² (See Appendix II for complete analysis of goals.)

The first of the four mistaken goals is attention getting. Dreikurs holds that students often seek attention so that they will know they have a certain amount of status. He calls this faulty logic.²³ The student seeking attention constantly asks questions, needs help, or doesn't understand. If it becomes obvious that the student is so actively seeking behavior, the response of the teacher

²⁰Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 99.

²¹Ibid., p. 99.

²²Dreikurs, Discipline Without Tears, p. 34.

²³Ibid.

should be given to these students when they are not seeking it. "This encourages students to develop motivation from within instead of depending on attention from without."²⁴ If attention seeking continues, one may "privately confront the student with his goal."²⁵ Another way is to simply caution the student by calling his/her name.

A second mistaken goal is power seeking. "A need for power is expressed by arguing, contradicting, lying, temper tantrums, and hostile behavior."²⁶ Power seeking students win if they can get the teacher to fight with them. If the teacher, however, withdraws as an authority then the student has no one to fight with and the conflict will end. "The power seeking child is always ambitious" and one should "try to redirect his ambition to useful channels."²⁷ Power seeking students can also be defused by being placed in conflict with their peers. There is no glory in this, so the problem will cease. If students lose in the power struggle, they may seek revenge.

"The revenge seeking child is so deeply discouraged that he feels that only by hurting others as he feels hurt by

²⁴Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 102.

²⁵Ibid., p. 103.

²⁶Ibid., p. 100.

²⁷Dreikurs, Discipline Without Tears, p. 37.

them can he find his place."²⁸ Revenge seeking students are often cruel, violent, and angry. They often "set themselves up to be punished . . . they consider it a victory to be disliked."²⁹ Revenge seeking children often need professional help to solve their problems. "They pose the greatest problem, both scholastically and in their behavior."³⁰ Punishment often will only lead to further anger and rebellion. The democratic teacher must strive to find a way to involve the revengeful student in a more satisfactory manner. This may mean seeking the assistance of the entire class as well as seeking to recognize and support any areas of strength or talent the revengeful student may possess.³¹ Revenge seeking behavior is extremely difficult to change. The teacher "should not retaliate or become emotionally upset . . ." and "will need to make a special effort to show respect to the child."³²

The fourth mistaken goal is a display of inadequacy or a desire to be left alone. The children who have chosen this goal have concluded that "they are not as capable as

²⁸Ibid., p. 38.

²⁹Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 100.

³⁰Dreikurs, Psychology in the Classroom, p. 32.

³¹Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 104.

³²Dreikurs, Maintaining Sanity, p. 24.

others and have no chance to find a place."³³ The child feels helpless and sees himself as a failure. They feel they are nothing better than "a blob."³⁴ They simply want to be left alone. If they are not left alone, "they hide behind a display of real or imagined inadequacy, which justifies their resignation."³⁵ This type of student, by appearing stupid or inept, "prevents anything being demanded or expected of him."³⁶ Too often this student is simply ignored since normally they are not disruptive or, in any manner, hostile. A teacher needs to provide a great deal of encouragement to a student that has selected this goal. Each minor success, no matter how small or insignificant, should be built upon.

Dreikurs has made it fairly easy to understand which goal the student is seeking by observing the teacher's reaction to the student. If the teacher feels annoyed, then the student is seeking attention. If the student is seeking power, the teacher will respond by feeling defeated or threatened. A teacher who feels hurt is responding to a revengeful student. Finally, a teacher who feels helpless

³³Ibid., p. 24-25.

³⁴Ibid., p. 45.

³⁵Ibid., p. 25.

³⁶Dreikurs, Discipline Without Tears, p. 39.

and defeated is working with a student that desires to be left alone.³⁷

In looking at the mistaken goals, it is very possible that often a conflict situation will arise. This is especially true when dealing with revenge or power seeking individuals. Dreikurs recommends a four point approach be taken when working with conflict. These are:

- 1) Respect the other person.
- 2) Don't fight, don't give in.
- 3) Pinpoint the issue.
- 4) Change the agreement.³⁸

Finally, when one understands the issue of mistaken goals and the impact that these have on classroom climate and learning, one is ready to move to the important issue of discipline. Dreikurs states that "discipline is the fulcrum of education. Without discipline, both teacher and pupil become unbalanced and very little learning takes place."³⁹ Discipline is not punishment, especially corporal punishment. "Punishment teaches the child what not to do but fails to teach the child what to do."⁴⁰ Dreikurs sees discipline as understanding mistaken goals and how to

³⁷Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 101.

³⁸Dreikurs, Discipline Without Tears, p. 70-71.

³⁹Ibid., p. 19.

⁴⁰Dreikurs, Maintaining Sanity, p. 81.

effectively correct these goals (see appendix). He also envisions discipline as the effective use of encouragement, praise, and the use of logical and natural consequences. Children must be taught to not only discipline themselves but how to do so effectively.

The establishment of a democratic climate in the classroom is very important as has been previously mentioned. The learning process sought should be cooperative in nature with the recognition that limitations are needed and are important. The students should be actively involved in setting limits and cooperatively establishing classroom rules for behavior. The rules must provide room for trust and growth of independence on the part of the children. This, in effect, means teaching the student to be responsible and to accept responsibility.⁴¹

All students should be encouraged. "Encouragement consists of words or actions that convey teacher respect and belief in student's abilities."⁴² Encouragement makes a student feel like he/she is part of a group and contributes to the success of the group.⁴³ Encouragement is important when a child fails.⁴⁴ "Deliberate use of encouragement, and

⁴¹Ibid., p. 80-88.

⁴²Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 107.

⁴³Ibid.

⁴⁴Dreikurs, Maintaining Sanity, p. 109.

the knowledge and skill to use it effectively are prerequisites to any constructive and corrective influence."⁴⁵

Praise is generally given when a task is well done. Dreikurs believes that praise should only be given with great caution. "Praise puts emphasis on the child; encouragement puts emphasis on the task."⁴⁶ Dreikurs feels that "praise can be terribly discouraging. "If the child's efforts fail to bring the desired amount"⁴⁷ he may give up.

Charles has provided a very good summary of Dreikurs points in helping teachers encourage students. These are:

1. Always be positive; avoid negative statements.
2. Encourage students to strive for improvement, not perfection.
3. Encourage effort . . .
4. Emphasize strengths and minimize weaknesses.
5. Teach students to learn from mistakes . . .
6. Stimulate motivation from within . . .
7. Encourage independence . . .
8. Let students know that you have faith in their abilities.
9. Offer to help overcome obstacles.
10. Encourage students to help classmates who are having difficulties.

⁴⁵Dreikurs, Psychology in the Classroom, p. 41.

⁴⁶Dreikurs, Maintaining Sanity, p. 109.

⁴⁷Dreikurs, Discipline Without Tears, p. 55.

11. Send positive notes home . . .
12. Show pride in students work . . . Display it
13. Be optimistic and enthusiastic . . .
14. Try to set up situations that guarantee success for all.
15. Use encouraging remarks often . . .⁴⁸

According to Charles, the teacher should not:

1. Encourage competition or comparison with others.
2. Point out how much better the student could be.
3. Use 'but' statements such as, 'I'm pleased with your progress, but . . .
4. Use statements such as, 'It's about time.'
5. Give up on those who are not responding.
6. Praise students or their products.⁴⁹

Even though one has created a classroom with extensive student involvement founded on the principle of cooperation and with appropriate encouragement for everyone, problems will still exist. Dreikurs, as stated previously, does not accept punishment as the answer. Dreikurs actively opposes punishment.⁵⁰ Instead, he proposes allowing

⁴⁸Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 107-108.

⁴⁹Ibid., p. 108.

⁵⁰Brophy and Putnam, "Classroom Management in the

students to experience logical or natural consequences of inappropriate behavior. These consequences are not to be viewed as punishment. A natural consequence is one that just happens. If a child falls on rocks, he/she will probably cut or bruise his/her knee. This just happens and is not imposed on the child by anyone else.

Logical consequences, however, "are guided and arranged."⁵¹ In order that logical consequences not be seen as punishment, they should be "discussed with, understood, and accepted by the child . . ."⁵² The intent of a logical consequence is to motivate the student toward proper behavior. Logical consequences must be applied universally and consistently. They also must be related to the misbehavior. It is also important that a choice be given. It is very important that the teacher understand the mistaken goal of the student before attempting to mete out the consequence.⁵³ A key to logical consequences is that they are related to the behavior. Punishment has "no direct

Elementary Grades," p. 210.

⁵¹Dreikurs, Maintaining Sanity, p. 119.

⁵²Ibid.

⁵³Vernon F. Jones and Louise S. Jones, Responsible Classroom Discipline: Creating Positive Learning Environments and Solving Problems (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1981), p. 55.

relationship to the misbehavior.⁵⁴ Logical consequences, however, are not very effective in working with the power seeking student.⁵⁵ Natural consequences are much more effective.

Dreikurs does not support the idea of rewards. He envisions rewards as bribery.⁵⁶ Too often the use of rewards will induce false values. Rewards also do not help develop a sense of responsibility in students.

As mentioned previously, Dreikurs believes that students should be actively involved in the classroom and that joint cooperation is very relevant. A method to insure classroom involvement is to effectively use classroom and group discussions. These discussions should be built into the weekly curriculum. Group discussions are important because they "provide the teacher with an opportunity to help the children understand themselves . . . which will eventually change their motivation from hostile to cooperative living."⁵⁷ Group discussions serve three distinct purposes. These are: 1) students learn to listen; 2) they begin to understand themselves and others better; 3) each

⁵⁴Dreikurs, Maintaining Sanity, p. 125.

⁵⁵Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 109.

⁵⁶Dreikurs, Maintaining Sanity, p. 127.

⁵⁷Dreikurs, Discipline Without Tears, p. 79.

student learns to help the other.⁵⁸ The classroom discussion session is an ideal place to set the limits of behavior in the class and to devise logical consequences for any misbehavior. the instructor should exercise timely caution that the classroom meeting does not become an opportunity for the teacher "to impose their own ideas, to preach, and to hold lectures about what the students should or should not do."⁵⁹

Although the Dreikurs discipline model is not as well defined or structured as other discipline models, it still has a great deal to offer. Dreikurs envisions the teacher as being very important for the establishment of a classroom climate conducive to learning and individual growth. The teacher is also vital in providing the necessary acceptance of each student so that the student will not elect to choose inappropriate, mistaken goals such as attention getting, power seeking, revenge, or apathetic inadequacy.

The teacher is provided an understanding of these mistaken goals and given assistance in effectively dealing with them. In addition, Dreikurs emphasizes the need for student involvement in the democratic classroom where encouragement is rampant and each student is allowed a

⁵⁸Ibid., p. 81.

⁵⁹Dreikurs, Maintaining Sanity, p. 149-150.

modicum of success and input into classroom rules and the logical consequences necessary for the violation of these cooperatively established rules. At the same time, one must fully understand that logical consequences reflect a way to handle the misbehavior appropriately while natural consequences are those over which no control is exercised.

Dreikurs' model and its mistaken goals provide students the opportunity to choose. Both William Glasser and Lee Canter also believe that students may choose to behave or not. Dreikurs' view of punishment as not being the same as discipline is exactly that as expressed by Glasser. The great many similarities between Glasser and Dreikurs comes from similar frames of reference and extensive training in psychoanalytic theory. Although they both began writing at approximately the same time period, Glasser has achieved a much greater success. This can be contributed to many factors with the prevalent one being that Glasser's Reality Therapy is much more highly formalized than is the work of Dreikurs. Yet, a great deal of Dreikurs' conclusions are very useful and worthwhile.

Certainly, his contention that students should be actively involved in the classroom in matters other than academic has merit. His belief that the teacher is of utmost importance can not be debated. His positive use of encouragement versus praise, which is similar to the work of

Ginott, has merit for every educator. Finally, his recognition of mistaken goals of students and the manner in which one may ascertain which mistaken goal a student is pursuing is of use to everyone who works or associates with others. The Dreikurs model has a great deal to offer the educator, either through formalized training or just recognition of what is happening in the classroom and how to appropriately respond.

CHAPTER VIII

THE L.E.A.S.T. APPROACH TO DISCIPLINE

The L.E.A.S.T. program for discipline was formulated in 1978 by Robert Carkhuff for the National Education Association. The N.E.A. describes it as "a simple survival strategy for the teacher."¹ The program consisting of five simple steps or approaches was the result of Carkhuff's research at his Institute of Human Technology and additional input from the Instruction and Professional Development unit of the National Education Association. The program was field tested in several areas of the country, primarily in the South, and finally, nationwide in 1979.

The basic premise of this discipline program is that the teacher "must use the least amount of guidance and control necessary to achieve the specific results desired."²

13. ¹L.E.A.S.T. Approach to Classroom Discipline, p.

²Ibid., p.16.

This premise includes the concept that the L.E.A.S.T. program does not address behavioral problems that may be clinical in nature and that a great majority of classroom discipline problems are directly related to the instructor's degree of involvement with each class.

L.E.A.S.T. is an acronym that stands for 1) leaving things alone; 2) end the action indirectly; 3) attend more fully; 4) spell out directions; and, 5) track student progress.³ Each of the first four items is a teacher selected option in dealing with a specific behavior problem and the particular option selected is in direct relationship to the severity of the problem. The final item, track student progress, is viable at all times and viewed as probably the most important of the five step plan.

The "L" in the L.E.A.S.T. program is for leaving things alone. Every teacher does this to a certain extent and there is really nothing new in this concept. The L.E.A.S.T. program believes this option should be selected when the following three criteria are all met. They are 1) the behavior will end without instructor involvement; 2) no student or students are in danger or being harmed; and, 3) there is no possibility of a "ripple effect" or other students repeating the behavior.⁴ The L.E.A.S.T. program

³Ibid.

⁴Ibid., p.19.

emphasizes that if option or step one is selected this does not mean that one is ignoring a classroom discipline problem. It means that the problem will end by itself but, also that option 5, tracking student behavior, will be in effect (as it will at all levels of the program).

The second option or step of the L.E.A.S.T. program is to end the action indirectly. This also is something that all teachers do in dealing with minor discipline problems in the classroom. It is often done by calling the student or students by name or moving towards the problem or simply looking, with an authoritarian look, at the student or students involved. The second option of the L.E.A.S.T. program is not for major discipline problems but for those that can be handled quite easily. The L.E.A.S.T. program states that option 2 is selected when one of the following three criteria is met. These are: 1) the discipline problem is disrupting learning activities; 2) the situation will worsen if left alone; and, 3) a student could be injured.⁵ If this option works by handling the problem then tracking continues. If the problem is more severe then the next option is selected.

The next step of the L.E.A.S.T. program is to attend more fully. This option (#3) is selected when one of the following conditions exist. They are: 1) the student

⁵Ibid., p. 23.

appears to be, or is highly emotional or upset: 2) the student or students need to know that they are being heard and listened to, and, 3) student input is needed in order to solve the problem effectively.⁶ Option three is meant to handle problems that could rapidly escalate into an even more severe, complex problem. This option calls for one to ask questions and to respond to what is being said. It is highly Rogerian in approach and centers around the feelings of the student or students involved and calls for extensive questioning. It also acts as a defusing system for a volatile program or situation by allowing the student input.

The questioning centers around what Carkhuff calls the "5WH."⁷ These questions are who, what, when, where, why, and how. In addition, a second type of questioning is identified that may only result in Yes or No answers. The purpose of these two questioning approaches is to identify the source of the problem by listening to both content and feeling in the answers. At this stage, the L.E.A.S.T. program is not explicit in how to deal with the problem. After "attending more fully" one will either assume the problem is over because one listened and got answers or one

⁶Ibid., p. 28.

⁷Ibid., p. 29.

may move to the next option of spelling out directions for the future. It seems that, in reality, these two options actually go hand in hand. Option three (attending) is listening and option four (directions) is solving the problem. The L.E.A.S.T. program, however, sees these two as separate entities and that the two need not be used together. This separation can create a greater problem if one only listens and does nothing. Tracking, of course, continues at each level.

The next option, spell out directions, is designed for the more severe problems encountered in the classroom. One of the following two criteria should exist before one moves to option four. These are: 1) learning is impossible because of the severity of the disruption and, 2) students may potentially be harmed or they may do harm to others.⁸ Two steps are involved at the option level. These are to first tell the student or students what you want done and that it must be done immediately and then to establish consequences if the behavior persists. The first step is designed to gain immediate control of the situation and is obviously very important. The second aspect of establishing consequences is similar to Reality Therapy and Dreikurs' discipline model, yet the establishment of the consequences at this stage of the problem is a little late and not quite

⁸Ibid., p. 32.

as effective. The L.E.A.S.T. program stresses that the consequences should not be worded or seen as threats.⁹

Carkhuff emphasizes that any directions given should be in positive terms if possible and that consequences should be designed to make the student responsible.¹⁰ In selecting consequences they should be feasible and should be appropriate to the circumstances of the discipline problem. Obviously, when one finds it necessary to select option four, the other three options may also be simultaneously used, such as the attending fully option which is step three. Finally, again the program calls for constant tracking of student progress and behavior.

The last step of the L.E.A.S.T. program is not an option but is mandatory at all levels or options. Tracking of student progress is important for several different reasons, including legal, if the need arises. Carkhuff has identified four activities that track the students' progress. These are: 1) evaluating new behavior through instructor observation; 2) enforcing stated consequences with the goal of helping the student or students to accept responsibility for their actions; 3) to reinforce any appropriate new behaviors that are exhibited through praise and recognition; and, 4) maintaining a continual record of

⁹Ibid.

¹⁰Ibid., p. 34.

student behavior.¹¹ Reinforcement for positive behaviors is important and may be done either directly through appropriate comments, or indirectly by giving more responsibility to the student or students in question. The L.E.A.S.T. program envisions tracking student behavior as the most important aspect of the total program.

The L.E.A.S.T. program is a result of a large teacher organization, the National Education Association, becoming more involved in the discipline activities of a school or individual classroom management. This program development by Robert Carkhuff is a communication model that provides little new insight into dealing with discipline problems. It is basically Rogerian in approach and when it does establish consequences for behavior (which may have been done earlier as rules) it does so too late. The primary aspect of the program is to track student behavior and this, in itself, is the chief concern teachers have for the program. It is too time consuming because of the constant behavioral problems of a student or students day after day. Finally, it must be noted that this program with its multi-media presentation came about at a time when discipline first entered into the educational arena as a negotiable item. In fact, the first part of the program workbook is designed to enable the local association to

¹¹Ibid., pp. 38-39.

better negotiate a discipline program with the local board.¹²

The L.E.A.S.T. program has achieved little recognition or success in education circles. The primary reasons are its Rogerian counseling approach and its time consuming tracking of students behavior. The program in many areas has given way to Lee Canter's Assertive Discipline which is more highly formalized when compared to L.E.A.S.T.

¹²Ibid., pp. 1-8.

CHAPTER IX

DUKE'S SYSTEMATIC MANAGEMENT PLAN FOR SCHOOL DISCIPLINE

Daniel Duke is Assistant Professor of Education at the School of Education, Stanford University. He earned his doctorate from the State University of New York at Albany. He has taught at both the high school and college level. He has written extensively with a great many of his writings reflecting his interest in classroom management and discipline. He has called for massive organizational and managerial changes in schools and, often, blames adults for the problems that exist in public education.¹ It is not surprising that Duke has developed his own plan to improve discipline and the management of schools. His plan which he calls a Systematic Management Plan for School Discipline is organizational in nature and encompasses the whole school

¹Daniel Duke, "How the Adults in Your Schools Cause Student Discipline Problems--And What to Do About It." American School Board Journal, 165, 6, June 1978, p. 29-30, 46; and "Looking at the School as a Rule-Governed Organization," Journal of Research and Development in Education, VII, 4, Summer 1978, p. 116-26.

system. Duke's plan is different from most of the other discipline programs discussed in this work because it deals with the total school system, and not the individual classroom, and attempts to include a questionnaire to ascertain the discipline needs of the school. (See Appendix III.)

The complete program of Systematic Management Plan for School Discipline (hereafter referred to as SMPSD) is aptly described in the 1980 book Managing Student Behavior Problems.² This work also discusses alternative control procedures for school before emphasizing SMPSD and how to implement this particular program. Duke's approach is to first identify the vast majority of student behavior problems and then to classify these into five broad categories. The categories are: 1) Attendance-related problems; 2) Out of Class Problems which include Criminal and Non-Criminal Behavior; and 3) In-Class Behavior which includes Classroom Deportment and Conduct Related to Academic work.³ Duke, after studying over 200 high schools identified the most pressing discipline problem as being attendance related with other types of misbehavior closely

²Duke, Managing Student Behavior Problems.

³Ibid., p. 4-5

following.⁴

These behaviors which range from minor, mundane actions to serious, threatening offenses are often dealt with in a variety of ways by schools and educators. Duke calls these approaches to problems control procedures. He states "control procedures are distinguishable from less formalized or deliberate control actions . . ." which "implies some degree of intentionality and planning, as well as organizational legitimacy."⁵ Duke then groups these control procedures into clusters which he calls control strategies.⁶ Six control strategies are identified. These are: 1) problem avoidance, 2) problem acceptance, 3) problem compensation, 4) problem prevention, 5) problem intervention, and 6) problem management.⁷

Problem avoidance is essentially a choice to ignore certain behavior that will probably abate. This is the same as leaving things alone found in the L.E.A.S.T. program. Problem acceptance is based on three questions. The first two, according to Duke, are ethical in nature and relate to treating students differently than adults and imposing rules on the whole when only a small minority cause or create a

⁴Nighswander, Guidebook for Discipline Program Planning, p. 2-3

⁵Duke, Managing Student Behavior Problems, p. 5.

⁶Ibid.

⁷Ibid., p. 7.

problem. The third question is a practical one. This revolves around the school's ability to enforce certain rules and whether the rule creates more problems than enforcement is worth.⁸ Problem compensation deals with providing assistance to victimized students or teacher.⁹ These three control strategies are not as commonly utilized by schools as the next three.

Problem prevention "depends on the capacity to isolate so-called 'root causes' of problematic behavior."¹⁰ Duke identifies seven prevention strategies. These are: 1) rules; 2) sanctions; 3) rewards; 4) curriculum adaptation; 5) curriculum augmentation; 6) self-esteem enhancement; and, 7) parent education.¹¹ Generally speaking, the first two, rules and sanctions, reflect the methods chosen by most schools. There is some question as to whether or not too many rules

may actually contribute to the creation of behavior problems by overtaxing the capacity of teachers and administrators to enforce them, thereby leading to inconsistent discipline, teacher frustration, and the undermining of the school's credibility as a rule-governed organization.¹²

⁸Ibid., p. 10-11.

⁹Ibid., p. 12.

¹⁰Ibid., p. 16.

¹¹Ibid., p. 17.

¹²Ibid., p. 18.

Each of the separate problem prevention strategies is self-explanatory. The self-esteem strategy is based on William Glasser's Reality Therapy and is meant to break the "failure cycle."¹³

Duke has identified six problem intervention control procedures. These are: 1) Directive communication; 2) Non-directive communication; 3) Behavior modification; 4) Sanctions; 5) Problem referral; and, 6) Parental Involvement.¹⁴ Intervention strategies are probably the best known in education today. Directive communication is the most prevalent of discipline methods and centers around direct commands. Various Rogerian approaches which include those exhibited by the Effectiveness Training methods of Thomas Gordon represent the non-directive communication approaches.¹⁵ Behavior Modification means one should "concentrate on reinforcing appropriate behavior . . . rather than sanctioning inappropriate behavior."¹⁶ The last two strategies, problem referral and parental involvement, are fairly self explanatory.

¹³Ibid., p. 20.

¹⁴Ibid., p. 22.

¹⁵Ibid., p. 22-23.

¹⁶Duke, "Environmental Influences on Classroom Management," Classroom Management, p. 336.

The final strategy, and the one that Duke feels is the best and most appropriate, is problem management. This final "strategy is based on the belief that behavior problems will always exist."¹⁷ Problem management strategies address problems on a school-wide basis as opposed to the classroom level. Seven problem management control strategies are identified. These are: 1) Special personnel; 2) Team troubleshooting; 3) Data collection; 4) Conflict-resolution mechanisms; 5) Decentralized authority; 6) Smaller organizational units; and, 7) Environmental redesign.¹⁸ Most of these are self explanatory, but a couple should be explained for better understanding. Conflict-resolution mechanisms and decentralized authority relate to the nondirective communication category of strategies for problem intervention. Environmental design refers to designing a school or classroom that is more conducive to learning and is not drab and unattractive. The creation of an appropriate learning environment is a major part of environmental redesign.

SMPSD, which is a problem management strategy, is based on two premises. These are that they must be "1) applicable on a schoolwide rather than a class-by-class

¹⁷Duke, Managing Student Behavior Problems, p. 25.

¹⁸Ibid., p. 26.

basis and 2) comprehensive rather than partial."¹⁹ The schoolwide concept is supported because most serious problems do not occur in the classroom but within the building. Additionally, a schoolwide approach increases the effectiveness of administrative support as well as teacher consistency. Duke believes that traditionally schools have not been very good at communicating rules or expectations to the student body and that part of this failure can be attributed to the absence of a well communicated schoolwide program.²⁰ A program for the total school will better address potential legal questions because everyone is taking the same approach.²¹

The actual program for SMPSD has seven key components. Each component is viewed as a goal with subsequent subgoals called recommendations that number between four and eight. SMPSD identifies these seven components as: "1) school rules and sanctions; 2) school records and information-processing; 3) conflict resolution procedures; 4) troubleshooting mechanisms; 5) community involvement; 6) environmental design; and, 7) staff

¹⁹Ibid., p. 39.

²⁰Nighswander, Guidebook for Discipline Program Planning, p. 109.

²¹Duke, Managing Student Behavior Problems, p. 40.

development."²²

SMPSD is "based on the belief that schools can increase their credibility as rule-governed organizations by encouraging the collaborative development of discipline policies, rules . . . and consequences for disobeying rules."²³ Essentially, Duke calls for student involvement in making the rules and emphasizing student responsibility. This is the same concept espoused by Reality Therapy. Students will not only know the rules but the consequences if they act irresponsibly and disobey them. Duke even calls for the testing of the students over school rules with rewards or privileges given to those who pass the test.²⁴ Duke also believes that students need a way to voice their feelings either through a forum or class meetings (again similar to Reality Therapy).

The second component of SMPSD calls for better data gathering and maintenance of school records. Keeping effective school records provides a wide variety of information ranging from attendance to discipline referrals to suspensions. This data can also provide ethnic, racial, and student grade distribution. It also enables one to compare past years with present ones. An additional

²²Ibid., p. 41.

²³Ibid., p. 46.

²⁴Ibid., p. 52.

important aspect of data collection is that it becomes part of the due process procedure. As Duke so aptly point out, data and records are very important in the "Age of Liability."²⁵

Conflict-resolution is the third component of Duke's discipline program. SMPSD sees conflict as inevitable in school. Many of these conflicts are not necessarily caused by students but "result from inconsistencies, misperceptions or poor teaching on the part of school personnel."²⁶ Duke believes that a key to conflict resolution is to help teachers learn to listen to their students and to communicate more effectively. Duke advocates a combination of communication skills as developed by Haim Ginott, Thomas Gordon, and Ken Ernst. Duke believes the use of these models will assist in resolving classroom conflicts.²⁷

Not all disputes can be solved at the classroom level. A great many conflicts can be better solved if students are involved in the discipline process through the implementation of student courts or peer counseling. Some conflicts are so serious that they require the assistance of the police or highly trained personnel. Duke has recognized that in times of crises, a crisis intervention program needs

²⁵Ibid., p. 23.

²⁶Ibid., p. 79.

²⁷Ibid., p. 83-85.

to be developed that utilizes the very best teachers and is designed to be fair and consistent in resolving the problem. Conflict resolution truly only works when students are treated as individuals and are provided "equal protection under the law."²⁸

The fourth part of SMPSD calls for a team approach to troubleshooting in the school. This team approach calls for teachers, counselors, administrators, and other specialized personnel to work together to provide solutions to particularly difficult problems or students. Students should also be involved in this approach because their input can be very valuable when the matter relates to them and their involvement will increase their sense of ownership in the school and subsequently bring about better behavior.

The next component of Duke's SMPSD calls for parental and community involvement. This of course is something that other programs also call for, such as Reality Therapy and Effectiveness Training program. The involvement of parents will prove especially beneficial when one remembers, as Duke states, that parents should not be treated as a homogeneous group that require the same interactions with schools.²⁹ Duke believes that school-home communications are very important and that parents should be

²⁸Ibid., p. 93.

²⁹Ibid., p. 110.

kept informed as to school rules, changes, and requirements. Involving parents ensures a more rapid solution to conflicts that may exist and makes them feel like they have valuable input.

The sixth component of Duke's SMPSD involves the idea of providing an environment that is conducive to learning. This not only means designing school better but also obtaining desirable student behavior for a better school climate. This component borders on behavior modification and asks that teachers be "systematic in their use of rewards and praise so as to ensure order in the classroom."³⁰ Duke states that "rewards should be perceived as beneficial . . . and sanctions as costly."³¹ This, in effect, means the use of logical or natural consequences such as those espoused by Dreikurs and Glasser. Duke believes that no one method is best and that a school may need to borrow from several programs or methods. What is important is "to involve as many members of the school community as possible in determining school rules and the consequences for disobeying them."³² For those students who habitually violate school rules and for whom normal sanctions have very little effect, Duke recommends

³⁰Duke, "Environmental Influences on Classroom Management", p. 336.

³¹Duke, Managing Student Behavior Problems, p. 122.

³²Ibid., p. 125.

alternative learning environments which include alternative schools, in-school suspensions, learning centers, work-study programs, and Saturday schools.³³

Duke also advocates the development of positive peer influence. Group dynamics are important and positive aspects need to be nurtured and accentuated. Corporal punishment is not acceptable as part of SMPSD because all it does is teach students that "physical force is a legitimate way to resolve problems."³⁴ Punishment such as corporal punishment does little to encourage self discipline. Providing students input into rules, having logical supportable consequences, and rewarding those who act in a positive manner is much more appropriate than other actions that only reward negative behavior or fail to change inappropriate behavior.

The final component of SMPSD recommends continual and ongoing training of the faculty and staff. Learning how to cope with behavior disorders requires special training and the development of skills. These skills, according to Duke, include many of those recognized by Jacob Kounin. Classroom management skills such as "withitness", overlapping, and smoothness and momentum are important and

³³Ibid., p. 127-128.

³⁴Ibid., p. 130.

advantageous.³⁵ In addition, staff development needs to include general theories of student behavior, the development of interpersonal skills, conflict-resolution training, and developing intervention strategies for academic problems.³⁶

The implementation of SMPSD begins with a preliminary assessment using the Duke Assessment of School Discipline. (See Appendix III for these and a complete list of SMPSD goals and recommendations.) In addition to the survey, Duke advocates observation of the school, students, and teachers along with interviews and evaluating existing discipline data. The second phase involves development and implementation of the plan using as many of the SMPSD goals as possible. Duke even provides answers to typical concerns that may be expressed by parents, students, and teachers.³⁷ Duke cautions that implementation is difficult and will take time. He also believes that parts of SMPSD will need to be adjusted to meet local concerns and issues.³⁸ An important consideration also rests with the impact that change will have upon the adults and how they will react to those

³⁵Ibid., p. 140.

³⁶Ibid., p. 140-146

³⁷Ibid., p. 156.

³⁸Ibid., p. 158.

massive organizational and managerial changes.³⁹

The final phase calls for a periodic review and revision of the SMPSD program once it is implemented. Duke feels that "providing objective feedback on performance to individuals involved in implementation can be a vital component of quality control efforts."⁴⁰ He also sees the periodic review as a way to correct mistakes which may have been originally made because of the urgency to implement a program.⁴¹ (See Appendix III for the complete program.)

The Duke program, SMPSD, is not a cure all. Even Duke admits that the complete elimination of discipline problems is unlikely. The Systematic Management Plan for School Discipline is unique for several reasons. First, it calls for re-organization or re-structuring of schools and how they deal with discipline problems today. Secondly, it attempts to implement a great number of attributes of other discipline programs into its concepts. These programs, such as Reality Therapy, Effectiveness Training, Ginott's communication model, and Dreikurs' logical consequences all have been and are successful to a certain extent. Duke's program calls for an improvement of the total school

³⁹Daniel Duke, "How the Adults in Your Schools Cause Student Discipline Problems - And What to Do About It," American School Board Journal, 165, 6, June 1978, p. 29-30, 46.

⁴⁰Duke, Managing Student Behavior Problems, p. 189.

⁴¹Ibid., p. 160.

environment, and thus discipline, through the involvement of faculty, staff, students, parents, and the community. SMPSD opens communication lines and increases human relation activities throughout the school systems. Consistency is emphasized as is fairness and understanding.

Duke's SMPSD program's greatest strength may also be its greatest weakness. This strength is the fact that the program is a schoolwide one, thus providing some degree of consistency. Yet, the very fact that the program is schoolwide is also its greatest weakness. In a school of any size it is very difficult to get every faculty and staff member to do anything in the same manner. Discipline is a highly emotional and individualized concept to many teachers and thus getting everyone to follow a specific plan may prove very difficult. The one way to ensure success of the program is to take the needed time to design it and correlate it with the school's needs as well as providing the needed staff and faculty training through extensive staff development programs. Only then will implementation of SMPSD expect some degree of success.

CHAPTER X

THOMAS GORDON'S TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS TRAINING

The Effectiveness Training seminars organized by Dr. Thomas Gordon were highly popular and widely disseminated during the early to mid-1970's. Dr. Gordon, who is a licensed clinical psychologist, has presented his Parent Effectiveness Training (P.E.T.), Teacher Effectiveness Training (T.E.T.), and Youth Effectiveness Training (Y.E.T.) programs nationwide to more than 200,000 parents, educators, and young people. Dr. Gordon has a Ph.D. from the University of Chicago and has developed a very well organized training program that includes a multi-media presentation format complete with guides and workbooks. His works include P.E.T. Parent Effectiveness Training¹ and T.E.T. Teacher Effectiveness Training.²

The focus of this chapter will be primarily on Teacher Effectiveness Training although much of the material presented serves as the basic foundation for all of the

¹Gordon, P.E.T. Parent Effectiveness Training.

²Gordon, T.E.T. Teacher Effectiveness Training.

programs designed by Dr. Gordon. Effectiveness Training is designed as a communication process that rests "basically on the assumption that the quality of the teacher-learner relationship is crucial if teachers are to be effective in teaching anything."³ Duke sees T.E.T. as a non-directive communication program which follows the tenets of Carl Rogers and includes "active listening and a six step negotiation process aimed at conflict negotiation."⁴ Gordon states that "students are freed to learn only when the teacher-student relationship is good."⁵

An effective relationship between student and teacher must have certain components. These are:

- 1) Openness or transparency, so each is able to risk directness and honesty with the other;
- 2) Caring, when each knows that he is valued by the other;
- 3) Interdependence of one on the other;
- 4) Separateness, to allow each to grow and develop his uniqueness, creativity, and individuality;
- 5) Mutual Needs Meeting, so that neither's needs are met at the expense of the other's needs.⁶

³Ibid., p. 5.

⁴Duke, Managing Student Behavior Problems, p. 23.

⁵Gordon, T.E.T. Teacher Effectiveness Training, p. 24.

⁶Ibid.

To facilitate the creation of this relationship, Gordon envisions a rectangle that is divided into two areas. The areas consist of unacceptable and acceptable behaviors of a student. The degree to which the number or percentage of behaviors are found in each area depend upon place, time, concern, or incident.⁷ The behaviors are divided by a line that is constantly shifting depending upon "a) changes in self (teacher), b) changes in the other person (student), and c) changes in the situation or environment."⁸ Gordon does caution against false acceptance of behaviors in order to make things easier on the teacher.⁹

Once it is understood that there are two kinds of behavior, acceptable and unacceptable, Gordon introduces the idea of problem ownership. The problem is owned by the teacher if a behavior exhibited by the student interferes "with the teacher's meeting his or her needs, or cause the teacher to feel frustrated, upset, irritated . . . obviously such behaviors cause the teacher a problem."¹⁰ The problem is owned by the student if it only affects the student and does not interfere with the teacher's right to teach. The understanding of problem ownership is crucial and is the

⁷Ibid., p. 30.

⁸Ibid., p. 31.

⁹Ibid., p. 35.

¹⁰Ibid., p. 38.

"first hurdle to problem solving . . . Problems may be owned by the teacher, the students, or both."¹¹ At one end are problems owned by the teacher, at the other are problems owned by the students. One will react differently depending upon who owns the problem. In the center of this rectangle is a no problem area where learning may actively take place without interference from behaviors. "It is only in the No-Problem area of the relationship that teaching and learning can be effective."¹² This finally brings one to the central goal of T.E.T. That goal is to:

help teachers increase the size of the Teaching-Learning area so that a greater proportion of their time is spent productively engaged in teaching and far less time is spent dealing with behavior in the two problem areas.¹³

In order to facilitate the extension of the no-problem area it becomes important to understand how to deal with students when they have the problem (one end of the rectangle).

When a student owns the problem, most teachers find it very difficult to help the student in need. Teachers are not trained to respond effectively and instead of helping, often use roadblocks to keep from assisting the student.

¹¹Brophy and Putnam, "Classroom Management in the Elementary Grades," p. 212.

¹²Gordon, T.E.T. Teacher Effectiveness Training, p. 41.

¹³Ibid.

Too often the response by the teacher is to "stop having whatever problem he has."¹⁴ Gordon summarizes a multitude of roadblocks into twelve categories. These are:

- 1) Ordering, commanding, directing.
- 2) Warning, threatening.
- 3) Moralizing, preaching, giving "shoulds" and "oughts."
- 4) Advising, offering solutions or suggestions.
- 5) Teaching, lecturing, giving logical arguments.
- 6) Judging, criticizing, disagreeing, blaming.
- 7) Name-calling, stereotyping, labeling.
- 8) Interpreting, analyzing, diagnosing.
- 9) Praising, agreeing, giving positive evaluations.
- 10) Reassuring, sympathizing, consoling, supporting.
- 11) Questioning, probing, interrogating, cross-examining.
- 12) Withdrawing, distracting, being sarcastic, humoring, diverting.¹⁵

Although all of the above responses may not appear to be roadblocks, they often are because of the manner in which they are utilized. Students who hear these roadblocks often interpret them as a statement about their abilities and this can be dangerous. Gordon states that "your messages of today become his self-concept tomorrow."¹⁶ Gordon and T.E.T. call for utilizing what is categorized as the language of acceptance. The language of acceptance is shown by passive listening; using acknowledgement responses that

¹⁴Ibid., p. 47.

¹⁵Ibid., p. 48-49.

¹⁶Ibid., p. 51.

work and show empathy; employing door openers that consist of open ended questions or statements; and, the use of active listening.¹⁷ Active listening is particularly successful in T.E.T. because it provides feedback to problem owners about the underlying meaning of their messages.¹⁸ Active listening allows one to decode a message from someone and respond appropriately to the true message or problem.¹⁹ "Active listening . . . involves interaction with the student, and it also provides the student with proof (feedback) of the teacher's understanding."²⁰

Active listening and its components frees up more time for classroom activities and learning because it often diverts possible behavioral problems. In addition, Gordon identifies several other attributes of active listening. These are:

- 1) Active listening helps students deal with and "defuse" strong feelings . . .
- 2) . . . With active listening, teachers can help students understand that "feelings are friends."
- 3) Active listening facilitates problem solving by the student . . .

¹⁷Ibid., p. 61-62.

¹⁸Brophy and Putnam, "Classroom Management in the Elementary Grades," p. 213.

¹⁹Gordon, T.E.T. Teacher Effectiveness Training, p. 66.

²⁰Ibid.

- 4) Active listening keeps the responsibility with the student for analyzing and solving his problems . . .
- 5) Active listening makes students more willing to listen to teachers . . .
- 6) Active listening promotes a closer, more meaningful relationship between a teacher and a student . . .²¹

If one employs active listening properly it can be useful not only for the dependent or resistant student but for student discussion groups, parent-teacher conferences, and teacher-administrator meetings.²²

Problems may also be owned by the teacher and thus, will need to be dealt with by the teacher in a different manner. Gordon states:

The clues that should tell them they own these problems are the teacher's own feelings: annoyance, frustration, resentment, anger, distraction, irritation. Quite another set of clues are the physical manifestations of their inner feelings: tension, discomfort, upset stomach, headache, jumpiness.²³

If the problem, which is often misbehavior by the student, bothers the teacher then the teacher, in effect, owns the problem. Manifestation of this ownership may be indicated in the manner stated above. As often happens, when one

²¹Ibid., p. 78-79.

²²Ibid., p. 100-124.

²³Ibid., p. 126.

experiences discomfort or confronts a problem, a solution is sought. These messages may include warnings, orders, commands, preaching, or advising.²⁴ Generally,

[s]olution messages tell a student exactly how to modify his behavior--what he must do, had better do, should do, or might do . . . In these messages the teacher hands out solutions to his^{own} problems and expects the student to buy them.²⁵

In addition to solution messages, some teachers elect to use put down messages, indirect messages, or you messages. All of these offer little success.

Gordon and T.E.T. recommend the use of "I" messages. Gordon is not the first nor the last to recommend "I" messages. Brophy and Putnam state "the three parts of an "I" message link a specific behavior, as the cause, to a specific effect on the teacher, which in turn leads to undesirable feelings."²⁶ "I-messages put responsibility for what is happening where it belongs-- . . . inside the person experiencing the problem."²⁷ The success of "I" messages lies in the fact that they promote a desire to change with only a minimum of negativism and do not injure

²⁴Ibid., p. 131-132.

²⁵Ibid., p. 131.

²⁶Brophy and Putnam, "Classroom Management in the Elementary Classroom," p. 212.

²⁷Gordon, T.E.T. Teacher Effectiveness Training, p. 132.

any kind of relationship existing between the student and teacher.²⁸ In reality, the teacher is simply stating what is happening and the effect it has upon the teacher or the ability to instruct. It is also important to indicate how the behavior and its effect makes one feel. If the "I" message is correctly given the feeling should be surmised as being part of the effect of the behavior, not the student.²⁹ In using I-messages, anger should be avoided because too often anger messages are "attempts to punish rather than communicate."³⁰

The development of listening skills and the use of "I" messages are two of the central components of T.E.T. One actively addresses the problems owned by students while the second addresses teacher owned problem. Two other components remain of T.E.T. The third component deals with changing the classroom environment in a positive manner so that the no-problem area of the rectangle can be enlarged thus increasing the amount and degree of quality instructional time. Gordon believes that "teachers can prevent many unacceptable behaviors of students with relative ease

²⁸Ibid., p. 140.

²⁹Ibid., p. 145.

³⁰Brophy and Putnam, "Classroom Management in the Elementary Grades," p. 213.

just by modifying the classroom environment."³¹ In order to create a more conducive environment, it must be understood that there are three types of time existing in each classroom for each student in varying degrees. These types of time are diffused, individual, and optimum. Diffused time is when everything, a virtual plethora of stimuli impact upon the student. Individual time is a withdrawal from stimuli often characterized by daydreaming or fantasizing on the part of the student. Optimum time is when there is a quality one to one interpersonal relationship between the teacher and student.³² Of the three types of time, diffused is the most obvious but individual time is necessary and optimum time critical. In order to develop an environment that maximizes time, Gordon supplies several suggestions. These suggestions on how to improve the environment may consist of expanding it or reducing it in some method depending upon the needs at the time. They are:

1. Enriching the environment.
2. Impoverishing the environment.
3. Restricting the environment.
4. Enlarging the environment.
5. Rearranging the environment.
6. Simplifying the environment.
7. Systematizing the environment.
8. Planning ahead for the environment.³³

³¹Gordon, T.E.T. Teacher Effectiveness Training, p. 156.

³²Ibid., p. 169-173.

³³Ibid., p. 160.

All of these suggestions are aimed at facilitating functioning in the no-problem area and expanding this area. This area needs to be large "because learning stops when students have problems and teaching stops when students cause teachers problems."³⁴

However, this does not mean that conflict will not happen within the classroom. They are inevitable. Gordon feels conflicts will occasionally result and states:

when confrontation and environmental modification fail it is usually because 1) the needs that motivate the unacceptable behavior of students are so strong that they cannot or will not change; or 2) the relationship with the teacher is so poor that students couldn't care less about helping to meet their teacher's needs.³⁵

Conflicts that happen between two or more people generally indicates that both or all own the problem. Duke points out that teachers need "to refrain from thinking about settling disputes in terms of winners and losers."³⁶ Gordon and T.E.T. has identified three methods for handling conflicts within the classroom.

Method I refers to a settlement of a conflict by the teacher using power to win. Method II refers to the student

³⁴Ibid., p. 176.

³⁵Ibid., p. 179.

³⁶Duke, Managing Student Behavior Problems, p. 84.

winning in the conflict and the teacher losing.³⁷ T.E.T. rejects both of these and instead seeks to utilize Method III which is a no-lose method. Method III is a system that seeks to find a solution that all parties find acceptable. Method III allows a teacher to "view conflicts as relationship strengthening, not relationship damaging."³⁸ In choosing Method III as the means to resolve conflict, many of the coping mechanisms often utilized by students to react to power and authority are impotent. These mechanisms that often include rebelling, defying, withdrawing, and blaming others will simply not work.³⁹

A teacher that elects to use T.E.T. and utilizes Method III to solve conflict does not sanction the use of power by a teacher unless there is danger or if "strong time pressure that does not allow for more leisurely problem solving."⁴⁰ Method III is really a system for negotiating the settlement of a conflict. The system consists of a six step program or process. These six steps are:

- 1) defining the problem
- 2) generating possible solutions
- 3) evaluating the solutions

³⁷Gordon, T.E.T. Teacher Effectiveness Training, p. 184.

³⁸Ibid., p. 225.

³⁹Ibid., p. 201-208.

⁴⁰Brophy and Putnam, "Classroom Management in the Elementary Grades," p. 213.

- 4) deciding which solution is best
- 5) determining how to implement the decision
- 6) assessing how well the solution solved the problem⁴¹

These six steps are easy to follow and provide a logical sequence to resolve classroom conflicts. The process "is quite unlike the typical way problems are resolved in class" because "traditionally, students have learned to depend exclusively on the teacher to impose a settlement."⁴²

Gordon summarizes Method III by explaining that its benefits include the absence of student resentment; implementation of a solution; the absence of power or authority; an increase in positive relationships between students and instructors; a desire to solve real problems; and, develops students into more mature, responsible individuals.⁴³ An additional benefit of Method III is that it facilitates the utilization of rule setting class meetings. These class meetings allow the students to design classroom rules and guidelines for conduct. However, "the group can only make determinations within the teacher's 'area of freedom'"⁴⁴ and cannot move beyond the confines of the classroom.

⁴¹Gordon, T.E.T. Teacher Effectiveness Training, p. 228.

⁴²Duke, Managing Student Behavior Problems, p. 84.

⁴³Gordon, T.E.T. Teacher Effectiveness Training, p. 241-247.

⁴⁴Ibid., p. 268.

If a student fails to abide by an agreement reached through Method III, then T.E.T. provides for three options. The first is to provide the student another opportunity to keep the agreement. The second option is to find some method by which the student is reminded of his commitment so it will be followed. The third option is to repeat the six step process of Method III in order to arrive at a better, more workable solution.⁴⁵

Even Gordon, however, realizes that the use of listening activities and skills or utilizing I-messages or changing the environment or even employing Method III will not resolve all conflicts. These conflicts that do not respond to one of the four aspects of T.E.T. are called value collisions. Simply put it means that the values exhibited and prized by the student are alien or unacceptable to the teacher and resolution of this conflict is almost impossible. The best way to handle value conflicts is 1) for the teacher to become a more effective consultant; 2) for the instructor to model the values that are acceptable; 3) to modify one's own values so that the students are more acceptable; or, 4) to accept the values of the students as valid.⁴⁶ None of these are easy and, in reality, they will not resolve the conflict but possibly

⁴⁵Ibid., p. 274.

⁴⁶Ibid., p. 293-306.

will make it more bearable. Accepting unacceptable values certainly illustrates that "teaching is a way of loving."⁴⁷

Thomas Gordon and his Effectiveness Training programs offer a communication model for parents and children, teachers and students, and employees and employers. However, even Gordon realized that not all conflict or problems could be solved and addressed this issue in discussing value collisions. His philosophy does stress "freedom and responsibility, and abandonment of power and authority in favor of negotiation of 'no-lose' arrangements resulting in mutual meetings of needs."⁴⁸ Duke states that T.E.T. "points out that problems students do not need more severe external controls - they need better internal controls."⁴⁹ Gordon avoids the use of punishment because it "does little to encourage the development of self discipline."⁵⁰

T.E.T. and the other Effectiveness Training programs provide a useful means to resolve conflict and to open communication lines. The T.E.T. program has not been as successful as the Parent Effectiveness one but one cannot doubt that P.E.T. has provided many parents the means to talk with their children and to solve problems. But the

⁴⁷Ibid., p. 124.

⁴⁸Brophy and Putnam, "Classroom Management in the Elementary Grades," p. 212.

⁴⁹Duke, Managing Student Behavior Problems, p. 130.

⁵⁰Ibid.

strength of these programs lies in the inherent belief that understanding and recognizing the ownership of the problem or problems is in itself a guide to the solution of these problems. Too often one strikes out to solve the unsolvable and to do so when it is not even a problem one needs to be concerned about. A second strength of the program is that it provides the educator knowledge and techniques to hold classroom meetings in order to set classroom rules.

This humanistic approach to discipline seeks to understand and recognize individual differences and to accomodate these differences. It respects the student and asks for the teacher to be treated in the same manner. It recognizes responsibilities and rights of the students as well as the teacher. It does not address the totally disruptive, violent, antisocial student or provide a great deal of toughness in handling severe problems. However, for the majority of misunderstandings and conflicts, T.E.T. does provide a communicative method and procedure to resolve these relatively simple conflicts.

CHAPTER XI

WILLIAM GLASSER AND REALITY THERAPY

Reality Therapy as developed and designed by Dr. William Glasser provides both a counseling model and a school discipline program. Dr. Glasser's educational background includes a degree in chemical engineering as well as counseling psychology. He also is an M.D. and a trained psychiatrist. It was his psychiatric training, which was highly traditional in nature, that resulted in Dr. Glasser developing Reality Therapy.

While continuing his psychiatric training at the Ventura School for delinquent girls, Dr. Glasser began to question traditional psychiatric practices and believed that "the basic thing I was involved in was helping them avoid responsibility for what they were doing now."¹ Too often the girls assigned to this institution refused to accept responsibility for their actions and blamed others in their lives for their problems. Some of the girls constantly

¹Donna Evans, "What Are You Doing? An Interview with William Glasser," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, 60 (April, 1982), 460.

acted out and sought to manipulate their counselors as well as the system.² Glasser questioned a great deal of the typical treatment system and over the next few years developed the basic tenets of Reality Therapy.

The premise for this treatment method includes several unique aspects that together form the core of Reality Therapy. Glasser believes that all people have needs which when fulfilled are viewed as pathways to success. These needs include power and recognition, love and belonging, freedom, and fun.³ The most basic of these needs is "the need to love and be loved and the need to feel that we are worthwhile to ourselves and others."⁴ If these needs are not fulfilled, dissonance is created and some people react to this failure to meet their needs or to match the pictures in their head by denying "the reality of the world around them."⁵ Glasser considers this escape behavior irresponsible and does not "like to use the terms 'sick' and 'well'."⁶

²Glasser, Reality Therapy, p. 1-6.

³Glasser, Stations of the Mind, p. 3-9 and Take Effective Control of Your Life, p. 9-16.

⁴Glasser, Reality Therapy, p. 10.

⁵Ibid., p. 6.

⁶Evans, "What Are You Doing? An Interview with William Glasser," p. 461.

Glasser also believes that everyone has choices in how to meet the needs of life. Those who act irresponsibly and make inappropriate choices will suffer the consequences for their poor choices. Responsibility is defined "as the ability to fulfill one's needs and to do so in a way that does not deprive others of the ability to fulfill their needs."⁷ Those who fail to fulfill needs often become troublemakers in school, discontents, or even patients in mental institutions. Those in prisons, psychiatric hospitals, or mental hospitals are irresponsible in Glasser's views.⁸ Glasser refuses to accept mental illness in the traditional manner, and this is a belief that many do not accept.

Glasser identifies two types of individuals in a broad sense. There are those individuals who have chosen a failure identity and those who have a success identity. Those who exhibit a failure identity include the negatively addicted person who may be addicted to drugs, gambling, or some other negative problem. Another failure identity is the symptom person who acts out various types of maladaptive behavior and who also may exhibit psychotic or psychosomatic problems. The give up person is a third type of individual who meets the failure identity criteria. A give up person

⁷Glasser, Reality Therapy, p. 15.

⁸Ibid., p. 16.

is often found in schools and exhibits a defeatist behavior. Between the failure identity person and the success identity individual is the security person. Almost everyone, according to Glasser, is a security person at times in their lives. A security person is concerned only about the basic needs of life such as food, shelter, and safety. Survival needs take precedence over everything else. The success identity person is one who has the pathways fulfilled and is a more well adjusted, happy individual who is willing to take risks in life and exhibits marked confidence.⁹

Reality Therapy also views the traditional psychiatric/counseling techniques of delving in the past as non-productive. Glasser says "de-emphasize history."¹⁰ This does not mean that the past is not important but that the past cannot be changed and so the emphasis is placed on the present and any plans for the future. Historical, past oriented questions, such as why, too often reflect attitudes, but Reality Therapy is "much more concerned with behavior than with attitudes"¹¹ and the reasons for a

⁹William Glasser, The Identity Society (New York: Harper and Row, 1972). Chapters 2, 3, and 4 discuss success and failure identities in detail.

¹⁰Evans, "What Are You Doing? An Interview with William Glasser," p. 461.

¹¹Glasser, Reality Therapy, p. 33.

patient's behavior do not make a difference in therapy.¹² Instead, Glasser states "all aberrant behavior is either an attempt to evade or an inability to take the responsibility of doing right."¹³ Reality Therapy is designed to teach a patient or a student responsibility by helping the individual to make better choices. As more productive, acceptable choices are made the failure identity person slowly achieves success and may eventually become a success identity person. The basic process by which this positive movement takes place is through the eight step counseling model.

The eight steps are:

- 1) Make Friends and Ask What Do You Want?
- 2) Ask: What Are You Doing Now?
- 3) Ask: Is It Helping? Or Is It Against the Rules?
- 4) Make A Plan To Do Better.
- 5) Get a Commitment.
- 6) Don't Accept Excuses.
- 7) Don't Punish But Don't Interfere with Reasonable Consequences. Don't Criticize.
- 8) Never Give Up.¹⁴

¹²Ibid., p. 40.

¹³Ibid.

¹⁴Glasser, The Identity Society, chapter 4 and

These steps appear very simple but as Glasser says they "are simple and clear-cut to talk about. They're not simple and clear-cut to do."¹⁵ The first step is very important because it calls for a true involvement and caring relationship between the client and counselor. "Involvement is the foundation of therapy."¹⁶ If the involvement and caring are not there, then it will be impossible to move to steps two, three, and four which are called the responsibility steps.

Step two simply asks the client to ascertain what he is doing at that moment. It is important that the client realize what behavior is being exhibited. Glasser believes this step must help the client "understand that his behavior is a self-involvement that he chooses."¹⁷ The next step is a very important one, because it asks the client to make a value judgement regarding his behavior and whether or not it is helping. If the client feels the behavior is appropriate and working, then the counselor will find it difficult to

William Glasser, "The Basic Concepts of Reality Therapy." Chart revised January 1, 1982. (Los Angeles: By the Author, 11633 San Vicente Blvd., 1982).

¹⁵Evans, "What Are You Doing? An Interview with William Glasser," p. 461.

¹⁶Glasser, The Identity Society, p. 75.

¹⁷Ibid., p. 84.

impose his/her values on the client and elicit a change. Reality Therapy does not moralize.¹⁸ What it does do is allow the person to evaluate his behavior and if he finds it inappropriate or destructive, then step four allows him to make a plan to elicit better behaviors. Glasser cautions that one should "never make a plan that attempts too much, because it will usually fail and reinforce the already present failure."¹⁹ Plans should be designed so that "they should look for past successes"²⁰ and build on these.

Step five calls for the counselor to get a firm commitment from the client to carry out the plan. "Commitment means commitment to the involvement."²¹ Sometimes it is best to get the commitment in writing. This process is especially effective with students who are disruptive in school. If a person does not live up to the commitment and follow through on the plan, the counselor should accept no excuses. This step is very difficult, because many clients are highly resourceful and are able to provide a great many creative excuses. According to Glasser, "some people say that not taking excuses is

¹⁸Ibid., p. 85.

¹⁹Ibid., p. 89.

²⁰William Glasser, "Reality Therapy: An Explanation of the Steps of Reality Therapy" in What Are You Doing?, ed. by Naomi Glasser (New York: Harper and Row, 1980), p. 49.

²¹Glasser, The Identity Society, p. 91.

punitive, and to the extent of being tough about that, maybe it is, but it has to be."²² "Excuses let people off the hook; they provide temporary relief, but they eventually lead to more failure and a failure identity."²³ If one fails to follow through with a plan, not only are excuses not accepted but in step seven one doesn't criticize any failures, but one also doesn't interfere with any consequences of the failure to follow through on the plan.

It is important to note that these consequences for failure to follow through on a plan are not the same as punishment. One doesn't "learn anything in punishment. It doesn't teach you a better way."²⁴ Glasser states that "punishment reduces involvement and causes failures to identify more securely with their failure."²⁵ Consequences are something that may either be mutually agreed upon or may be something that would happen automatically or naturally. The final step, eight, ties in very closely with the non-criticism aspect of seven. If one doesn't criticize and refuses to give up, then the steps simply begin again with a re-emphasis of step one (caring) and a re-statement of what

²²Evans, "What Are You Doing? An Interview with William Glasser," p. 462.

²³Glasser, The Identity Society, p. 94.

²⁴Evans, "What Are You Doing? An Interview with William Glasser," p. 464.

²⁵Glasser, The Identity Society, p. 98.

are you doing. The idea is to find success and, as previously stated, build on that success.

The counseling model of Reality Therapy provides a simple, direct method that requires a great deal of expertise and ability to shift from step to step without overtly thinking about it. Because of the success of the counseling model of Reality Therapy and because of Glasser's interests in schools, Reality Therapy was applied to schools in a ten step process. There is a great amount of mutuality in the concepts of the school Reality Therapy and the counseling Reality Therapy. Both support the belief of choices in one's behavior as well as dealing with the present as opposed to the past. Glasser's best effort in addressing the needs of schools is his Schools Without Failure.²⁶

In this work, Glasser states that "if school failure does not exist, other handicaps can be more easily overcome."²⁷ He also states that "unless we can provide schools where children, through a reasonable use of their capacities can succeed, we will do little to solve the major problems of our country."²⁸ Glasser has some very definite views of what type of place a school should be. Schools

²⁶Glasser, Schools Without Failure.

²⁷Ibid., p. 4.

²⁸Ibid., p. 6.

should be a place "where people care for each other."²⁹ Teachers are important in developing this caring environment. They must "get involved with students . . . teachers have to care for children, and they have to show that they care."³⁰ Children cannot be treated as objects, but instead need to be treated as people who have needs to be fulfilled.³¹ A "teacher must learn to keep a consistent attitude while varying his approach and never giving up."³² In order that school be a good place, certain characteristics are listed and summarized by the Educator Training Center founded by Glasser. These are:

A good place is one where people are courteous especially the adults . . .

A good place is one where laughter is frequently heard, not because of frivolous activity but because of genuine joy brought about by involvement with caring people . . .

A good place is one where communication is practiced and not preached . . .

A good place is one that has reasonable rules, rules which everyone agrees on because they are beneficial to the individual and the group; rules which everyone has a democratic stake in because everyone has a say in making and changing the

²⁹Glasser, The Effect of School Failure on the Life of a Child (Washington, D.C.: National Association of Elementary School Principals and the National Education Association, 1971), p. 8.

³⁰Ibid., p. 9.

³¹Glasser, Reality Therapy, p. 157.

³²Ibid., p. 195.

rules as needs arise.

A good place is one where the administrators actively support and participate in an approach to discipline that teaches self-responsibility ...³³

One of the most important ways to develop a caring atmosphere in a school, as well as providing students the means to fulfill some of their needs (pathways) such as power, freedom, or self worth, is through the classroom meeting. Class meetings are especially effective, because they help students "solve the problems of living in their school world."³⁴ Glasser advocates three types of class meetings. There is the social problem meeting that addresses "all problems relative to the class as a group and to any individual in the class"³⁵ who might be willing to share a problem. The open ended meeting is useful, because it addresses the issue of learning in a creative, relevant manner. The final type of meeting, the educational-diagnostic meeting is designed to emphasize what the class is currently studying.³⁶

Class meetings require a great deal of commitment on the part of both the teacher and the students. Feldhusen

³³Educator Training Center, Glasser's Approach to Discipline (Los Angeles: Educator Training Center, 1977), p. 6.

³⁴Glasser, Schools Without Failure, p. 123.

³⁵Ibid., p. 128.

³⁶Ibid., p. 134-138.

states that "the class meeting is at the heart of the Glasser system."³⁷ However, in truth, "class meetings work as well as the imaginative, ingenuity, and conviction of those who run them."³⁸ The creative teacher is able "to motivate children, to build communication skills, and to create a trusting atmosphere for learning"³⁹ through the regular use of open-ended class meetings. Class meetings prove much more effective if the questions and format are varied, but the "meetings should always be conducted with the teacher and all the students seated in a tight circle."⁴⁰ One of the most important goals of class meetings is "to implement moral behavior through honest discussion aimed at matching our actions to our words."⁴¹ All discussion should "be directed toward solving the problem; the solution should never include punishment or fault finding."⁴²

³⁷Feldhusen, "Problems of Student Behavior in Secondary Schools," p. 240.

³⁸Glasser, Schools Without Failure, p. 161.

³⁹Frank Hewett and Phillip C. Watson, "Classroom Management and the Exceptional Learner," in Classroom Management, ed. by Daniel Duke. Seventy-eighth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1979), p. 316.

⁴⁰Glasser, Schools Without Failure, p. 32.

⁴¹Ibid., p. 186.

⁴²Ibid., p. 129.

Classroom meetings can also be used to "a) establish classroom rules, b) adjust the rules, c) develop new ones when needed, and d) deal with problems."⁴³ The rules designed for the class cannot abridge the rules developed by the school administration and school board, but the rules can address modes of conduct and behavior in the individual classroom. However, if students have "a voice in making the rules that apply to them"⁴⁴ they will more likely follow them and understand the necessity for them. If these rules are posted in each classroom, then the students will constantly be reminded of them and peer pressure will help mandate the recognition and support of them. If class meetings are effectively used, then the implementation of the ten step discipline program will be understood and accepted by the students, because the students will have input into the rules they are expected to follow.

The ten step discipline program for schools, as stated, is very similar to the eight step counseling model with some differences that make the program much more applicable to schools. The ten steps are:

- 1) What Am I Doing? (teacher step)
- 2) Is It Working? (teacher step)

⁴³Brophy and Putnam, "Classroom Management in the Elementary Grades," p. 211-212.

⁴⁴Glasser, Schools Without Failure, p. 193.

- 3) Recognition
- 4) What Are You Doing?
- 5) Is It Against the Rules?
- 6) We Need to Work It Out. (plan)
- 7) Isolate From Class
- 8) Out (In-School Suspension)
- 9) Send Student Home
- 10) Seek Outside Professional Help⁴⁵

Steps one and two are important, because they are the teacher involvement steps where the teacher is asked to evaluate himself/herself and ascertain whether or not his/her approach to a particular problem or student has been working or not. If what one has been doing is not working, then one should stop and try a new approach.⁴⁶ Step three is the same as step one in the counseling model in that the student is to be given recognition by the teacher or some type of status or support in order to build a relationship. "Treating your most difficult students well will eventually lead to their behaving better."⁴⁷

Steps four through seven are the redirection phase which seeks to change inappropriate behavior to a more

⁴⁵Educator Training Center, Glasser's Approach to Discipline, p. 7-10.

⁴⁶Ibid., p. 7.

⁴⁷Ibid.

appropriate behavior. In step four the student is simply asked what he is doing. "He will have to tell you what he's doing, or he'll remain silent, but he will usually stop what he knows he was doing."⁴⁸ If the student stops then the process ends at step four. If the student continues the behavior, simply ask if the behavior is against the rules. It is important to remember that the rules will have been decided upon in class meetings and will be conspicuously posted in the room for all to see. This step is the value judgement step and may need to be confrontive in nature if the student attempts to side step the answer.⁴⁹

Step six requires that the student and teacher jointly work out a plan for the student that will benefit both student and the class. Jones and Jones point out that "students are refreshingly creative at devising useful plans for solving their own problems."⁵⁰ This contract can be verbal or written. It should be of reasonable duration and one that "helps the student move toward responsible behavior."⁵¹ The contract should have as much student input

⁴⁸Bill Borgers, A Return to Discipline (Harlingen, Texas: Goss Printing, 1978), p. 84.

⁴⁹Educator Training Center, Glasser's Approach to Discipline, p. 8.

⁵⁰Jones and Jones, Responsible Classroom Discipline, p. 225.

⁵¹Educator Training Center, Glasser's Approach to Discipline, p. 8.

as possible and it should clearly identify "joint areas of responsibility and the structural contingencies, such as rewards."⁵² (See Appendix IV for a sample student contract.) The focus is on what the student did, not in what others did to him. No excuses should be accepted for the failure of a student to follow a plan at this step or at any step in the process. No interference with logical consequences of one's failure to follow a plan should take place either.

Step seven takes place after all attempts to maintain a contract have failed and there is no choice available but to send a student to "time-out." The place chosen for time-out may be in the classroom or another teacher's room. The placement should help the student know "that he or she is no longer involved in active participation in the class. Students may listen, but may not take part in classroom activities . . ."⁵³ They may rejoin class activities once they have developed a feasible, workable plan they are committed to follow. "If the student disrupts while he is in isolation, his only alternative is to be excluded from the classroom or quiet area."⁵⁴

⁵²Furtwengler and Konnert, Improving School Discipline, p. 61.

⁵³Educator Training Center, Glasser's Approach to Discipline, p. 8.

⁵⁴Ibid.

If the student disrupts while in time-out, the student should be sent out of the classroom to an in-school suspension center. It must be evident to the student that by choosing a continuation of an inappropriate behavior, he cannot remain in the classroom. The in-school suspension should be "a not uncomfortable, non-punitive place which is staffed by someone who communicates the basic ideas to the students"⁵⁵ that they must decide to change their behavior before they will be allowed to return to class. Behavior cannot change unless the student chooses to do so.⁵⁶ As Glasser states, once a student is placed in an in-school suspension area there are only two choices. These are to "return to class and follow reasonable rules--or continue to sit here and be outside of class."⁵⁷ Students often decide to devise a new plan and return to class within a short period of time. Separation from one's peers is a powerful motivator.

A student who chooses to disrupt while in an in-school suspension area will be sent home. This is step nine. However, it does not set a number of days in which the student will be home. Instead the student may return to step eight (in-school suspension) and to school when the

⁵⁵Ibid., p. 9.

⁵⁶Borgers, A Return to Discipline, p. 90.

⁵⁷Educator Training Center, Glasser's Approach to Discipline, p. 9.

student is ready to do so and makes a commitment to abide by the rules.⁵⁸ The last step, step ten, is rarely reached. If a student is totally out of control, then outside professional help needs to be sought. "The student should always be welcome to return to school . . . but not unless a specific plan and commitment has been made to follow reasonable rules."⁵⁹ Even here the student is not given up on but simply advised to seek other assistance which is beyond the expertise of the school.

The Reality Therapy discipline program appears very simple, but as Glasser cautions it is not that simple to do. It is based on the belief that:

a) students are and will be held responsible for their in-school behavior, b) rules are reasonable and fairly administered, and c) teachers try to be helpful and cooperative with students in making feasible adjustments, and maintain a positive, problem solving stance.⁶⁰

Probably the most appealing aspect to many and a key to the ability of Reality Therapy to solve problems is "the extent to which a pupil feels he has control over his own destiny . . .⁶¹ The concept of caring in Reality Therapy provides

⁵⁸Ibid.

⁵⁹Ibid., p. 10.

⁶⁰Brophy and Putnam, "Classroom Management in the Elementary Grades," p. 212.

⁶¹Glasser, Schools Without Failure, p. 123.

success for many high risk students to break the failure cycle.⁶²

Reality Therapy has been researched by a great many people in a wide variety of settings. Shearn and Randolph report that Reality Therapy did not effect behavior of students in a classroom situation.⁶³ Yet, a great many people who actively practice Reality Therapy have seen tremendous decreases in discipline problems. Bill Borgers reported a ninety percent reduction in fighting as well as substantial reduction in the number of drop outs.⁶⁴ In Oklahoma several schools including Edmond, Putnam City North, and Shawnee Junior High use Reality Therapy and support the contention that their discipline problems have been reduced. The debate over whether or not Reality Therapy does as claimed will probably continue as long as it is used and discipline is a concern of schools.

Glasser hopes that education will return to its original purpose through the use of Reality Therapy and that purpose is "to produce a thoughtful, creative, emotionally alive, unafraid man, a man willing to try to solve the

⁶²Duke, Managing Student Behavior Problems, p. 20.

⁶³D.F. Shearn and D.L. Randolph, "Effects of Reality Therapy Method Applied in the Classroom," Psychology in the Schools, 15 (January, 1978), p. 79-83.

⁶⁴Educator Training Center, Glasser's Approach to Discipline, p. 10.

problems he faces in his world."⁶⁵ Perhaps Brophy and Putnam best summarize the impact and importance of Reality Therapy when they state that it involves:

humanistic values, respect for student individuality, tolerance for individual differences, willingness to try to understand and assist students with special needs, and reliance on instruction and persuasion, rather than assertion of power . . . that students have responsibilities along with their rights, and that they will have to suffer the consequences if they fail to fulfill those responsibilities. These approaches mesh nicely with the evolving role of the teacher as a professional with particular expertise, with specific but limited responsibilities to students and parents, and also with certain rights as instructional leaders and authority figures in the classroom.⁶⁶

Certainly, Reality Therapy is "a process in which we teach people better ways to fulfill their needs than they [have] learned so far."⁶⁷

⁶⁵Glasser, Schools Without Failure, p. 228.

⁶⁶Brophy and Putnam, "Classroom Management in the Elementary Grades," p. 214.

⁶⁷Glasser, "Reality Therapy: An Explanation Of The Steps Of Reality Therapy," p. 49.

CHAPTER XII

LEE CANTER'S ASSERTIVE DISCIPLINE

Lee Canter and his wife Marlene have developed one of the most popular discipline programs in the United States. Assertive Discipline, which is based on many premises founded in assertion training, has been taught to approximately 400,000 educators since 1977.¹ Canter was originally trained and worked as a child guidance specialist but today serves as director of Canter and Associates. This organization is responsible for disseminating information on assertive discipline as well as providing training throughout the country. Canter has written several books and many articles, but the most relevant work and the most successful remains the basic text, Assertive Discipline: A Take Charge Approach for Today's Educators.² Assertive Discipline's multimedia presentation includes films,

¹Lee Canter with Marlene Canter, Lee Canter's Assertive Discipline for Parents (New York: Harper and Row, 1985), p. xi.

²Lee Canter, Assertive Discipline: A Take Charge Approach for Today's Educators.

worksheets, and tapes. (See Appendix V for examples of the worksheets.)

Assertive Discipline as a classroom control method is based on the premise that a classroom teacher needs to have "clear expectations, insistence on correct behavior, and consistent follow-through, overlaid with the warmth and support that all students need."³ Assertive Discipline has only one commandment and that is "thou shalt not make a demand thou art not prepared to follow through upon."⁴ The training that takes place to enable one to become a qualified practitioner of Assertive Discipline includes an understanding of why other programs do not work and why assertive discipline is better as well as establishing goals for both students and teacher and identifying skills needed to be an assertive teacher. The plan of training for Assertive Discipline centers around five phases or steps. These steps are not well delineated but can be ascertained on a closer look. The five steps as listed by Charles include:

- 1) recognizing and removing roadblocks to assertive discipline,
- 2) practicing the use of assertive response styles,
- 3) learning to set limits,

³Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 112.

⁴Canter, Assertive Discipline, p. 74.

- 4) learning to follow through on limits, and
- 5) implementing a system of positive assertions.⁵

The Canters believe that Assertive Discipline was in many ways a natural result of the changes exhibited in public education over the last ten to twenty years. They feel that many of the ideas of Skinner, Gordon, and Glasser "have often been distorted and misinterpreted to the point that teachers have been led to believe fallacies"⁶ about their abilities. When these mistaken beliefs are combined with an increase in the number of children in schools with behavior problems, then a new effective program was viewed as inevitable. Canter believes that "the only children who cannot behave are those with organic problems, such as brain damage."⁷ He sees as a misconception the belief that low socio-economic status, special education, or children with poor heredity cannot behave.⁸ Instead, Canter believes that these and all "problem students can behave, they just

⁵Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 116.

⁶Canter, Assertive Discipline, p. 4.

⁷Canter, "Taking Charge of Student Behavior," p. 35.

⁸Ibid., p. 35.

don't want to."⁹ A good teacher is one who "establishes the parameters of what she expects from the child and what the child can expect in return from the teacher."¹⁰

Canter sees three types of teachers. These are the non-assertive or passive teacher, the hostile teacher, and the assertive teacher. He defines an assertive teacher as

one who clearly and firmly communicates her wants and needs to her students, and is prepared to reinforce her words with appropriate actions. She responds in a manner which maximizes her potential to get her needs met, but in no way violates the best interests of the students.¹¹

Furthermore, when an assertive teacher "responds assertively to a child's inappropriate behavior, it is called assertive limit setting."¹² "When speaking assertively, be specific: avoid vague statements such as 'act nice', 'be good', or 'act your age.'"¹³

The non-assertive teacher is generally viewed as one who fails to communicate effectively with a child regarding expected behavior and one who is not willing to provide and enforce consequences for inappropriate behavior. Often the

⁹Canter, "Discipline You Can Do It!," Instructor, 89 (September, 1979), p. 110.

¹⁰Canter, Assertive Discipline, p. 9.

¹¹Ibid.

¹²Ibid., p. 18.

¹³Canter, Assertive Discipline for Parents, p. 16.

non-assertive teacher may delay their response to a problem until such time that the response is totally useless.¹⁴ The hostile teacher is one who has either lost control of the classroom or who is rapidly losing it. The hostile teacher uses sarcasm, threats, and intimidation to control the classroom situation. The result is that "they abuse students' feelings" and "they fail to provide for students' needs for warmth and security."¹⁵ The hostile teacher often becomes the enemy to the class.¹⁶

The assertive teacher is not born as such but must be trained in order to effectively manage a classroom. The training of an educator in Assertive Discipline requires the surmounting of a series of roadblocks that exist. This is an important first step or phase in learning how to apply Assertive Discipline. The most common roadblock for many teachers "is their negative expectation of their ability to deal effectively with the behavior of their students."¹⁷ If roadblocks are not removed then the student is in control of the situation and is a very "powerful child."¹⁸ Canter believes roadblocks can be dealt with in six different ways.

¹⁴Canter, Assertive Discipline, p. 21-24.

¹⁵Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 118.

¹⁶Canter, Assertive Discipline, p. 36.

¹⁷Ibid., p. 46.

¹⁸Ibid., p. 47.

These are:

- 1) Deal realistically with the child and your potential influence on his behavior.
- 2) Accept the reality that you have the right to set firm limits, and that all students need them.
- 3) Accept the reality that you have the right to ask for assistance in limit setting from the principal, peers, etc.
- 4) Ask for assistance from the students' parents.
- 5) Accept the reality that certain students require additional positive motivators to influence them to behave appropriately.
- 6) Utilize assertive skills.¹⁹

In effectively dealing with roadblocks it should be remembered according to Canter that "no child should be allowed to engage in behavior that is self-destructive or violates the rights of his peers or teacher."²⁰ Canter further emphasizes that the teacher has "the right to teach, and the students to learn, in a disruption free climate."²¹ An interesting part of removing roadblocks, pointed out by Charles, is that every student cannot be treated the same because "people respond differently to different

¹⁹Ibid., p. 54-60.

²⁰Ibid., p. 56.

²¹Canter, "Discipline. You Can Do It!," p. 112.

situations."²² This necessitates taking into account individual differences in any approach taken to handle a discipline problem.

The second step in learning to capably use Assertive Discipline is learning to respond in an assertive manner and practicing these responses. As previously stated, Canter envisions three types of teachers: the hostile, the non-assertive, and the assertive. Practice is needed in order to develop a true, assertive style. Canter does this through developing a series of mini-incidents or scenarios and showing the typical response of each of the three types of teachers. The hostile teacher often utilizes "you" messages while the assertive teacher chooses instead to effectively use "I" messages.²³ This use of "I" or "you" messages relates to the work of Dreikurs, Gordon, and Ginott. In learning to respond appropriately to discipline situations, Canter emphasizes that one must remember to demand and actively seek appropriate classroom behavior from the students. This behavior can be summed up as follows:

- 1) Follow directions.
- 2) Complete all assignments.
- 3) Do not leave class without permission.

²²Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 117-118.

²³Ibid., p. 119.

- 4) Work independently.
- 5) Keep hands, feet, and objects to oneself.²⁴

These needs for proper classroom decorum are appropriate but Canter believes that one must analyze whether or not they are being sought by responding as an assertively trained teacher would respond or if one is utilizing methods such as the non-assertive or hostile instructor would. In order to analyze the situation one should ask the following questions of oneself.

- 1) How effectively do you communicate your wants and needs to your students?
- 2) How effectively do you verbally assert yourself?
- 3) How effectively do you assertively follow through on your verbal responses?
- 4) How effectively do you plan how you will deal with the behavior of your students?²⁵

Once one is able to ask these questions and receive some positive indications that the responses are reasonably assertive, then step three or phase three, learning to set limits, is addressed. Setting limits is, in effect, deciding what behaviors are expected and how much of a deviation from the norm will be tolerated. Limit setting will only work if the teacher believes "she has the

²⁴Canter, Assertive Discipline, p. 63.

²⁵Ibid., p. 67-69.

influence to help the students eliminate inappropriate behaviors."²⁶ Once these behaviors have been decided upon then "teachers should instruct students very clearly on the behaviors they have identified"²⁷ as appropriate. Student input as to proper classroom behavior is not elicited. If necessary, signs should be posted or rules sent home to the parents. The behavioral goals should be very clear and students and "teachers must know what specific behavior they need the students to engage in."²⁸ Finally, teachers must decide on how they will respond when the target behaviors are complied with or not adhered to. It is important that one knows "how to systematically respond to appropriate behavior of students"²⁹ as well as the inappropriate.

Canter suggests "verbal limit setting, combined with physical acts, as the vehicle for establishing expectations and follow-through procedures."³⁰ "Eye contact, gestures, use of name, and touch are all useful in increasing the effectiveness of your verbal communication."³¹ Charles

²⁶Ibid., p. 72.

²⁷Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 120.

²⁸Canter, "Competency Based Approach to Discipline - It's Assertive," Thrust for Educational Leadership, 8 (January, 1979), p. 12.

²⁹Ibid.

³⁰Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 121.

³¹Canter, Assertive Discipline, p. 75.

identifies three aspects of verbal limit setting. The first is requesting behavior. Four methods of requesting behavior are discussed. These are hints or simple reminder statements occasionally made; I-messages regarding the effect of inappropriate behavior on the teacher; questions which are simply interrogative hints; and, demands or direct statements to a specific individual or individuals.³²

The second aspect of verbal limit setting concerns the manner and method in which the hint, demand, or whatever is delivered. Of special importance is eye contact, tone, gestures, physical touch, and the use of the offending student's name.³³ Eye contact is seen as important in dealing with behavioral problems but is as important in other instances. Canter's use of eye contact, and even gesture, are reflective of Anglo-American society and do not take into account restrictions that may exist with some students because of ethnicity.³⁴ In using gestures, one should not use hostile gestures such as waving a fist under an offending student's nose. The use of the student's name is very powerful and somewhat self explanatory. Physical touch should be limited to a light touch. Physical touch does not mean physical abuse. As Charles points out, it

³²Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 121.

³³Ibid., p. 121.

³⁴Ibid., p. 122.

must be remembered that some students respond differently to touch and may see it as an overt, aggressive act.³⁵ This illustrates the previously mentioned fact that the implementation of any discipline technique needs to be tempered with the appropriate understanding of the individual student.

The third aspect of verbally setting limits is the broken record ploy. The broken record strategy means that one must be "capable of expressing your wants and needs and ignore all sidetracking manipulations of the students."³⁶ This strategy is very difficult because it calls for apparent calmness with a constant, consistent repetition of what is wanted from the students. If the student or students try to sidetrack the teacher, one needs to acknowledge their statements but continue to emphasize what is wanted or the behavior expected. The broken record ploy should be used a maximum of three times. It should be used with those who:

- 1) refuse to listen to you
- 2) persist in responding inappropriately to your demands and/or
- 3) refuse to accept responsibility for their behavior³⁷

³⁵Ibid., p. 112.

³⁶Canter, Assertive Discipline, p. 79.

³⁷Ibid., p. 89.

If after re-stating one's wants the maximum of three times, the appropriate behavior is not achieved then one must be willing to follow through with appropriate consequences. "Follow through is essential to assertive limit setting."³⁸ Canter feels one should always remember that "you can never win in an argument with a child."³⁹

Step four of Assertive Discipline is learning to follow through on limits. Follow through is necessary when "students (1) refuse to meet the demands that were set, or (2) act in compliance with the demands."⁴⁰ Four aspects of follow through are important. These are that one should make promises, not threats; criteria for consequences should be established in advance; appropriate consequences should be used; and, one needs to practice verbal confrontations in order to effectively handle them.⁴¹

Canter sees "a very real difference between a promise and a threat." "A 'promise' is a vow of affirmative action" while "a 'threat' is a statement or expression of

³⁸Ibid., p. 92.

³⁹Canter, Assertive Discipline for Parents, p. 18.

⁴⁰Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 123.

⁴¹Ibid., p. 123.

intention to hurt or punish."⁴² An integral part "of limit-setting follow through is choice."⁴³ The student has the choice to follow prescribed behavioral objectives or to bear the consequences. Consequences should be something that the student will not like and something the teacher feels is appropriate.⁴⁴ Consequences may range the gauntlet from "time out, loss of privilege, loss of preferred activity, detention, visit to principal, and home consequences."⁴⁵ The only effective consequences are those in which "you persist in using the consequence every time as indicated by the students behavior."⁴⁶ In effect, the teacher must be willing to "provide a negative consequence every time students disrupt."⁴⁷ Consequences are viewed as especially effective by Canter "when we provide a student with a choice, we are providing him with the opportunity to learn the natural consequence of his inappropriate actions, and that he is responsible for his behavior."⁴⁸

⁴²Canter, Assertive Discipline, p. 92.

⁴³Ibid., p. 93.

⁴⁴Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 124.

⁴⁵Ibid., p. 124.

⁴⁶Canter, Assertive Discipline, p. 95.

⁴⁷Canter, "Competency Based Approach to Discipline," p. 12.

⁴⁸Canter, Assertive Discipline, p. 93.

The types of consequences previously listed are self explanatory and need little clarification. The most serious of the consequences is home consequences although it must be remembered that in extreme cases of inappropriate behavior other consequences must be invoked. These include "placement with another teacher, removal from school, or placement in a school that specializes in behavior problems."⁴⁹ These extremes indicated a failure on the part of the Assertive Discipline program.

If a student misbehaves in class then the suggested follow through technique is to write the student's name on the board, which indicates a mild consequence. If the behavior persists, checks are placed next to the name which indicates the necessity for a stronger consequence. All disruptive behavior should be recorded.⁵⁰ "At the end of the day, all names and check marks should be erased. Never erase a name or check mark as reward for good behavior."⁵¹ Consistency of response to inappropriate behavior is important and necessary.

Canter identifies several specific "keys" to follow through with any student. These are:

⁴⁹Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 126.

⁵⁰Canter, "Taking Charge of Student Behavior," p. 41.

⁵¹Ibid., p. 41.

- 1) The teacher did not assume the behavior of others.
- 2) The teacher anticipated possible problems that might occur.
- 3) The teacher left nothing in doubt.
- 4) The teacher did not approach the child until the follow through plan was completely prepared.⁵²

When these keys are timely followed, then seldom will there be a confrontation calling for a test of power and wills. The reason for the absence of confrontation is that the teacher is in charge and expresses the behavior expected, the consequences if the behavior is not exhibited, and why this is necessary in the classroom or school situation.⁵³

The final phase of Assertive Discipline concerns the implementation of a plan of positive assertions. This phase does not deal with negative behavior but instead addresses the teacher's response to positive behaviors chosen by students in the classroom. Canter states that "negative consequences may stop inappropriate behavior, but only positive reinforcement will change it."⁵⁴ Positive consequences chosen by the teacher for the student that exhibits appropriate behavior have a wide range. They include:

⁵²Canter, Assertive Discipline, p. 112-113 and 130.

⁵³Ibid, p. 114.

⁵⁴Canter, Assertive Discipline for Parents, p. 48.

- 1) Personal attention from the teacher
- 2) Positive notes to parents
- 3) Special awards
- 4) Special privileges
- 5) Material rewards
- 6) Home rewards
- 7) Group rewards⁵⁵

These rewards have as their purpose the reinforcement of good behavior. Rewards as listed range from special items such as more recess time to small inexpensive gifts, such as pencils or posters, to group rewards such as a pizza party. The group reward has proven to be one of the most effective technique because it utilizes peer pressure and the desire of the whole class to get something. The most common method is to drop marbles in a jar each time an appropriate behavior is exhibited.⁵⁶ Positive rewards and responses are best when they are;

responses you are comfortable with, something the child wants and enjoys, provided as soon as possible after the child chooses to behave appropriately, provided as often, as possible, planned out before being utilized.⁵⁷

An assertive teacher will balance "the negative consequences with positive consequences when students behave

⁵⁵Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 127.

⁵⁶Canter, Assertive Discipline, p. 140.

⁵⁷Ibid., p. 120.

appropriately."⁵⁸

Perhaps the most important aspect of Assertive Discipline is planning. "Planning is essential to good teaching."⁵⁹ Canter also emphatically states that caring is of utmost importance. He says:

If you really care, the children will really care. If you are prepared to use any means necessary and appropriate to influence the children to eliminate their inappropriate behavior they will sense your determination and will quickly care about the consequences which they will have to face consistently if they choose to act inappropriately.⁶⁰

Along with caring goes mental rehearsal which must be "used on a daily basis."⁶¹ This mental rehearsal prepares one to deal with problems that exist or may exist and allows one to establish a series of assertive plans that could address any series of scenarios. Canter also supports the idea of careful planning before the school year begins. This careful planning allows one to take charge when the year begins so that they may exhibit the "competence and confidence necessary to assert their influence and deal effectively with the discipline problems in today's

⁵⁸Canter, "Competency Based Approach to Discipline," p. 13.

⁵⁹Canter, Assertive Discipline, p. 146.

⁶⁰Ibid., p. 110.

⁶¹Ibid., p. 151.

schools."⁶²

Lee Canter's Assertive Discipline places the teacher in charge in the classroom. Consequences for inappropriate behavior or improper choices are established by the teacher. Rewards or positive consequences for proper behavior are also established. Assertive Discipline calls for the teacher to ask, and even demand, support from the building administration as well as parents. The basic philosophy of Assertive Discipline revolves around the rights of teachers. These rights are:

- 1) The right to establish a classroom structure and routine that provides the optimal learning environment in light of your own strengths and weaknesses.
- 2) The right to determine and request appropriate behavior from the students which meet your needs and encourage the positive social and educational development of the child.
- 3) The right to ask for help from parents, the principal,⁶³ etc., when you need assistance with a child.⁶³

The student has very little input into classroom rules or learning goals or objectives. The teacher is in charge.

Yet, does it work? Canter claims "an 80 percent reduction in discipline problems the first year the program

⁶²Canter, "Competency Based Approach to Discipline," p. 11.

⁶³Canter, Assertive Discipline, p. 2.

is utilized."⁶⁴ Mandlebaum seems to support this when she states that Assertive Discipline "reduced both out-of-seat and inappropriate talking behaviors."⁶⁵ She feels the strongest element of Assertive Discipline is "the ability of the teacher to organize the classroom environment."⁶⁶ But not all writers support Canter's claims. Crockenberg states that Assertive Discipline works "only by distorting moral language, by pandering to the defensiveness of teachers about their work, and by ignoring or even denying that children have any significant rights or needs."⁶⁷ Watson also finds fault with Assertive Discipline because it allows children no input into the rules, or setting limits, or consequences.⁶⁸ Finally, perhaps the most damning evidence that casts doubt on Assertive Discipline is found in the Saturday Oklahoman and Times of March 9, 1985. In an article written by Chris Brawley the tragic death of an eight year old Lawton boy is discussed. The young boy committed suicide reportedly because he had been reprimanded

⁶⁴Canter, "Competency Based Approach to Discipline," p. 13.

⁶⁵Mandlebaum, "Assertive Discipline: An Effective Classroom Behavior Management Program," p. 267.

⁶⁶Ibid., p. 258.

⁶⁷Crockenberg, "Assertive Discipline: A Dissent," p. 73.

⁶⁸Watson, "Classroom Control; To What End? At What Prices?," p. 83.

by his teacher and his name had been written on the chalkboard. Local child psychologists, as mentioned in the article, maintain that the child lost "face" with his peers because of his name being on the chalkboard.⁶⁹ The truth of the cause of this child's death, of course, may never be known.

Assertive discipline is probably the most popular discipline program in the United States today. It is highly popular primarily because it places the teacher in an ascendant position. It borrows heavily from other discipline programs. Its use of logical consequences for inappropriate behavior is similar to that of Dreikurs and Glasser. Its use of "I" and "You" messages reflect the programs of Dreikurs, Ginott, and Gordon. Positive reinforcements are equivalent to those suggested by Glasser. The program also emphasizes that one must address the situation and not the character of the student. This emphasis on inappropriate behavior parallels Glasser, Dreikurs, Redl, and Gordon. Yet, the one unique difference remains the role of the teacher and the position of power the teacher holds. Input by students is minimal, at best. This dominance by the teacher may in the future, given more research, prove to be Assertive Discipline's greatest weakness.

⁶⁹Chris Brawley, "8-Year-Old Lawton Boy's Death Ruled Suicide by Medical Examiner," Saturday Oklahoman and Times, March 9, 1985, p. 1-2.

CHAPTER XIII

COMPARISONS AND CONCLUSION

The issue of discipline is not new to the American educational system. The responses to discipline problems through the years have been as varied as the methods to teach or theories of learning. Discipline has been and will continue to be a concern of teachers, administrators, parents, and the general public. The nine programs or responses to discipline discussed within this paper have not solved the problem of discipline nor do they provide a technique that will work for all teachers and all students at all times. The programs do represent a response to the needs of the schools and an attempt at addressing the issue of discipline in a rational, effective manner. Programs developed since 1960 have attempted to provide for an effective learning environment for the student and a secure and sane teaching ambience for the instructor.

Typically, these representative programs have addressed either the needs of the group or the separate problems of the individual. Most of the earlier programs, those of Kounin and Redl and Wattenberg, were group

oriented. Their research into group interaction and functions provided a great deal of information that was not only relevant to the issue of discipline but also to the expansion and strengthening of teaching skills. As Kounin stated "the mastery of group management techniques enables a teacher to be free."¹ This freedom represented a freedom from the concern of discipline. Redl and Wattenberg also supported the belief that an effective approach to discipline must come through the understanding of group dynamics and the development of diagnostic thinking skills on the part of the teacher. As they stated "school classes are groups"² summarizes their emphasis on group dynamics.

However, not all programs address the group and the concept of group management. The majority of the programs reviewed found that working with the individual student and focusing on individual discipline problems was more successful and appropriate. Ginott felt that "children need guidance"³ and this is best done through developing an ability to communicate succinctly with the students of the class by utilizing sane messages⁴ and developing congruent

¹Kounin, Discipline and Group Management in the Classroom, p. 145.

²Redl and Wattenberg, When We Deal With Children, p. 257.

³Ginott, Teacher and Child, p. 104.

⁴Ibid., p. 82.

communication styles.⁵ Gordon also supports the importance of working with the individual student by structuring within each classroom an optimum time period so that the teacher and student can converse on a one to one basis.⁶ Dreikurs supports this individualism by emphasizing the success of praise⁷ and encouragement⁸ with each student. Reality Therapy concepts and Glasser focus on the needs of the individual student and state that "children have to see school as a place where they can fulfill their needs."⁹ Canter talks about positive rewards for the individual student.¹⁰

The general approach utilized by the vast majority of the programs was to address the needs of the individual before that of the group. However, Duke's Systematic Management Plan for School Discipline is the anomolie in most of the comparison areas selected for the various discipline programs. Duke attempts to incorporate the best of all the worlds and, in this instance, addresses both the

⁵Ibid., p. 77.

⁶Gordon, T.E.T. Teacher Effectiveness Training, p. 172-173.

⁷Dreikurs, Maintaining Sanity, p. 109.

⁸Dreikurs, Psychology in the Classroom, p. 41.

⁹Glasser, "Reality Therapy: An Explanation of the Steps of Reality Therapy," p. 58.

¹⁰Canter, Assertive Discipline, p. 140-141.

needs of the individual by recognizing their uniqueness as well as the concerns of the group within the total system.

Another method that provides insight into the programs is to compare the various program's view of punishment and whether or not it is useful or needed. The overwhelming belief by the program authors is that punishment has very little use in an educational setting and, if ever utilized, should be done so only as a last resort. Ginott says it best when he states that the "essence of discipline is finding effective alternatives to punishment."¹¹ Redl and Wattenberg concur by stating that "corporal punishment often preaches eloquently that deep down they believe might is right."¹² The remainder of the program authors concur with this view of punishment, with Glasser saying it best when he states "you don't learn anything in punishment. It doesn't teach you a better way."¹³ Dreikurs states that "punishment teaches the child what not to do but fails to teach the child what to do."¹⁴ Punishment is seen as a counterproductive, often vindictive approach to changing a student's inappropriate behavior that

¹¹Ginott, Teacher and Child, p. 147.

¹²Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching, p. 375.

¹³Evans, "What Are You Doing? An Interview with William Glasser," p. 464.

¹⁴Dreikurs, Maintaining Sanity, p. 82.

too often fails to remedy the situation and instead only creates hostility and disillusionment with the educational process.

This does not mean that one should not be reasonably dealt with when rules, regulations, or norms are violated. All of the authors, with the exception of Kounin, address the issue of consequences for inconsonant behavior. Some may call these consequences natural or logical but the meaning is the same. All organizations and institutions need rules and schools are no different. The consequences for not obeying these rules should be well known by all. If a student violates a rule then the consequence should be invoked. Canter says it best when he states that "when we provide a student with a choice, we are providing him with the opportunity to learn the natural consequences"¹⁵ of inappropriate behavior. Several programs advocate rewards or special privileges for those who elect to obey the rules. These positive consequences are best addressed by Duke¹⁶ and Canter.¹⁷ The essence of punishment is rejected by these programs but not the concept of consequences for behavior whether it be acceptable or unacceptable.

¹⁵Canter, Assertive Discipline, p. 93.

¹⁶Duke, Managing Student Behavior Problems, p. 41.

¹⁷Canter, Assertive Discipline, p. 140-141.

When one has consequences for the violation of rules it means that a set of standards of expected behavior have been established. Both the method and manner by which these standards or rules are set are addressed by several of the discipline programs. The writings of Kounin, Ginott, and Redl and Wattenberg, and the L.E.A.S.T. program do not directly address the issue of rule setting as such, but the implication is there that the necessary rules for classroom decorum have been established by the instructor. This is best illustrated in Kounin's story of the discovery of the "ripple effect" when a young man chose to read a newspaper in class in obvious violation of the teacher's rules.¹⁸

Assertive Discipline as developed by Canter mandates that the instructor establish the rules and expectations in the class. Canter states that the "teacher establishes the parameters."¹⁹ This parameter setting is also called assertive limit setting.²⁰ The remainder of the programs elicit some type of student input to a varying degree. Glasser states that "students should have a voice in making rules that apply to them . . ."²¹ Teacher Effectiveness Training speaks of class rules and regulation

¹⁸Kounin, Discipline and Group Management in the Classroom, p. 1.

¹⁹Canter, Assertive Discipline, p. 9.

²⁰Ibid., p. 72.

²¹Glasser, Schools Without Failure, p. 193.

setting.²² In Maintaining Sanity in the Classroom, Dreikurs discusses establishing classroom rules and developing rules that provide room for trust and growth of the student.²³ Duke envisions schools as rule governed organizations that often have too many unworkable, inflexible rules,²⁴ but suggests that students be involved in rule setting and even possibly tested over their knowledge of the rules.²⁵ The method by which these rules are established may differ but the intent seems to be the same. Several programs seem to support the concept that if students are involved in the rule setting process, then they, in effect, own these rules and are more inclined to support the rules and obey them as well as to bring peer pressure to bear on those students who choose not to follow them. The method favored by several programs to develop class rules is the class meeting concept.

The class meeting concept is perhaps best exemplified by Reality Therapy. Feldhusen states that "the class meeting is at the heart of the Glasser system."²⁶

²²Gordon, T.E.T. Teacher Effectiveness Training, p. 16.

²³Dreikurs, Maintaining Sanity, p. 80-88.

²⁴Duke, Managing Student Behavior Problems, p. 17.

²⁵Ibid., p. 41.

²⁶Feldhusen, "Problems of Student Behavior in the Secondary Schools," p. 240.

Class meetings in the Reality Therapy program are implemented in order to help students "solve the problems of living in their world."²⁷ Dreikurs envisions class meetings as providing "the teacher with an opportunity to help the children understand themselves."²⁸ It is important to note that class meetings must not be viewed as an opportunity for the teacher "to impose their own ideals, to preach, and to hold lectures."²⁹ Not all class meetings are for rule setting. In fact, the majority of them should be for other purposes. What seems to be important in class meetings is to provide an opportunity to allow each student time to express their thoughts and feelings regarding a particular issue or event. This opportunity should be provided in a non-critical, non-punitive manner, so that each student may achieve a degree of success and recognition that might not be afforded to them in the regular classroom situation.

However, not all of the programs accept the importance of class meetings and student involvement through these meetings and how these can improve school and classroom climate. Several of the programs attribute the teacher with having the dominant role in establishing classroom climate. Kounin states that "specific categories

²⁷ Glasser, Schools Without Failure, p. 123.

²⁸ Dreikurs, Discipline Without Tears, p. 79.

²⁹ Dreikurs, Maintaining Sanity, p. 149-150.

of teacher's behavior" correlate "with their managerial success."³⁰ Ginott supports the concept that the teacher is of utmost importance by stating that the teacher is the "decisive element in the classroom" and that it is their "personal approach that creates the climate."³¹ Dreikurs speaks of the democratic teacher but also supports class meetings, as previously mentioned. Canter, of course, places the teacher in a position of ascendancy which is one of the reasons many teachers have adopted Assertive Discipline as their classroom approach. The idea that "assertive teachers are the bosses in their classrooms"³² appeals to many. The L.E.A.S.T. program mentions neither classroom meetings or expounds on the rule or impact of the classroom teacher.

Whether or not class meetings or the role of the teacher in the classroom is more important is not as important as the manner in which the teacher communicates to and with the students. Most of the programs place a great emphasis on communication style and methods. Both Ginott and Gordon discuss the importance of I-messages. They can

³⁰Kounin, Discipline and Group Management in the Classroom, p. 74.

³¹Ginott, Teacher and Child, p. 15-16.

³²Canter, "Taking Charge of Student Behavior," p. 34.

"foster intimacy"³³ as well as serving as "responsibility messages."³⁴ Canter also discusses I-messages, but they are assertive I-messages that show the students "if you really care, the children will really care."³⁵ Dreikurs speaks of using "words that convey . . . respect and belief in students' abilities"³⁶ as well as putting the "emphasis on the child"³⁷ through the effectiveness of praise. The views of Redl and Wattenberg discuss using situational assistance³⁸ and reality and value appraisal³⁹ in order to communicate more effectively with students as well as helping them solve their problems.

Others also discuss communication styles but in different ways. Kounin, of course, talks of various teaching methods and ideas, such as the power of the "ripple effect."⁴⁰ These methods are, in reality, communication styles and means by which one may effectively communicate.

³³Gordon, T.E.T. Teacher Effectiveness Training, p. 141.

³⁴Ibid., p. 139.

³⁵Canter, Assertive Discipline, p. 110.

³⁶Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 107.

³⁷Dreikurs, Maintaining Sanity, p. 109.

³⁸Redl and Wattenberg, Mental Hygiene in Teaching, p. 354.

³⁹Ibid., p. 358-364.

⁴⁰Kounin, Discipline and Group Management in the Classroom, p. 1.

"Withitness" is described as "a teacher's communicating to the children by her actual behavior."⁴¹ Glasser sees the class meeting as the most effective way to communicate with students and to indicate caring by exhibiting it in each act. Even the L.E.A.S.T. program communicates by spelling out directions to the students.⁴² The one commonality of all of the discipline programs reviewed is to be able to communicate to the students one's concerns and desires and needs in the classroom. The manner may be different and as diverse as the assertive approach of Canter to the oblique one of Kounin, but the intent is the same. Methods such as using class meetings or allowing students more or less input or addressing the individual instead of the group are just that - methods. The main goal is to communicate and do it in a manner that works. In that sense, all of the programs are communication programs.

The other major difference in the programs may be as to which facet of discipline they may be addressing. Charles, in his work Building Classroom Discipline, discusses three facets of discipline. These three are correction, prevention, and support.⁴³ "Corrective

⁴¹Ibid., p. 80-81.

⁴²L.E.A.S.T. Approach to Classroom Discipline, p. 28.

⁴³Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 220-234.

discipline consists of the moves teachers make to suppress, correct, and rechannel misbehavior."⁴⁴ Supportive discipline consists of a variety of methods or techniques that are aimed at ending misbehavior before it gets out of hand. Preventive discipline is aimed at preventing misbehavior from happening at all.⁴⁵

The various aspects that make up good preventive discipline include the physical arrangement of the classroom; the curriculum; the expectations and limits placed upon the students; the attitude of the teacher towards students and the teaching profession, which includes a necessary flexibility toward unexpected events; and the type of support existing from administration, counseling, and parents.⁴⁶ In effect, preventive discipline necessitates a variety of group management styles such as those discussed by Kounin and Redl and Wattenberg. Supportive discipline includes the daily happenings in class as well as working with students who have minor problems or may be creating minor disturbances. Good behavior is actively reinforced and requested from those students by using methods such as Gordon and Ginott's I-messages. Students are facilitated in making good choices in the

⁴⁴Ibid., p. 221.

⁴⁵Ibid., p. 220-221.

⁴⁶Ibid., p. 222-224.

supportive discipline facet. Methods utilized in helping students make proper choices may be those discussed by Glasser, Dreikurs, Canter, Gordon, Duke, or the L.E.A.S.T. program. Conflicts, as they arise, are resolved in an equitable manner utilizing approaches espoused by Gordon's no-lose approach, Ginott's sane messages, or Glasser's contracts. Communication of wants and needs and the manner of communication as well as degree of effectiveness are very important in the supportive stage.⁴⁷

The final facet of discipline discussed by Charles is corrective discipline. Corrective discipline means that one stops inappropriate behavior by confronting it. This is found in the programs of Dreikurs, Glasser, Gordon, Duke, L.E.A.S.T., and Redl and Wattenberg. This confrontation may take the form of step two and three of Reality Therapy when a student is asked what are you doing and is it against the rules.⁴⁸ If it is against the rules then it should be stopped. Canter would be even more assertive by telling students to end the behavior and by refusing to allow it and by assessing negative consequences.⁴⁹ Consequences will be invoked as necessary by these two methods as well as by the programs developed by Dreikurs, Duke, and Gordon.

⁴⁷Ibid., p. 225-230.

⁴⁸Educator Training Center, Glasser's Approach to Discipline, p. 8.

⁴⁹Canter, Assertive Discipline, p. 79 and 99.

Consistency in invoking consequences for inappropriate behavior is vital and necessary for the corrective facet of discipline to work.⁵⁰

Each of the facets or parts of discipline presented by Charles are important. In actuality, a good discipline program must be able to address more than one area. This would allow the creation of a more effective learning environment as well as opening communication lines between students and instructors at each of the various facets of discipline. Whichever level of discipline is addressed or utilized, it is important to remember that fairness, consistency, and the cessation of improper behavior is the goal of each and every discipline program.

Each of the reviewed discipline plans have areas of strength as well as areas of weaknesses. Some are too group oriented to adequately address the needs of the individual. Some fail to react to or recognize group interaction and the processes and relationships that can exist within a classroom. Others fail to allow student input or interaction and some allow too much. Some allow cooperative rule setting, others rule mandating. Several offer effective communication strategies, some not so effective. Each one is distinctly different in the same manner that each teacher or administrator or student is distinctly

⁵⁰Charles, Building Classroom Discipline, p. 231.

different.

No discipline program is perfect and as Redl and Wattenberg say, any claims that a certain program is the best is "meaningless for you until you examine those incidents in the light of the individuals you have to deal with."⁵¹ A truly effective teacher or administrator concerned about choosing an ideal discipline program would be wise to look at them all and attempt, as Duke does, a synthesis of the best aspects of each program. Whatever program or technique is chosen, school personnel need to remember that "teaching is a way of loving."⁵²

Research will continue into finding the best discipline program, plan, or procedure until a perfect one is found that solves all problems and eliminates all discipline concerns. Until that day arrives, if it does, it is best to remember that whatever method or program is used, it needs to be administered fairly and with respect for the needs of students. Perhaps if educators spent more time becoming better planners and teachers, then the need for discipline programs would decrease. When students learn and teachers teach, discipline decreases. The educational system needs to remember to address the reason for its existence and that is to provide a relevant, challenging

⁵¹Redl and Wattenberg, Controls From Within, p. 275.

⁵²Gordon, T.E.T. Teacher Effectiveness Training, p. 124.

learning experience. This short poem found titled "The Challenge" is found in a publication of the North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction and says it best:

if
schools were
exciting
challenging
rewarding
places
kids
wouldn't try
so hard
to be
absent
or be dumb,
or be tough.
something says
they would
work harder
act nicer
and
learn more
if
schools were
meeting their needs,
awakening their minds,
and touching their
hearts.⁵³

⁵³North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction, Discipline in Schools: A Source Book (Raleigh, North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, 1977), p. 83.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX I

APPENDIX I

Questions to Retired Oklahoma Administrators

1. Do you feel there have been any significant changes in discipline over the past thirty years?
2. Have school discipline procedures gotten harder or easier to enforce? Why did you choose this answer?
3. Can you think of any discipline methods or procedures that were used in the past but could not be used in schools today?
4. Do you believe that the job of a school administrator is different today than in the past? In what ways?
5. Have student attitudes changed over the past years? If so, in what way?

APPENDIX II

APPENDIX II

The Four Mistaken Goals and Teacher's Reactions To the Child's Behavior

Goal	Child's Action and Attitudes	Teacher's Reaction
1. Attention		
	Is a nuisance in class	Gives undue service
	May show off	Reminds often
	May be lazy	Coaxes
	Puts others in his service	Feels annoyed
	Keeps teachers busy	Shows pity
	Thinks: "I have a place only when people pay attention to me."	May think: "Child occupies too much of my time."
	May cry	May feel resentment
	May use charm	
	May be overly eager to please	
	May be overly sensitive	
2. Power		
	May be stubborn	May feel defeated
	Often argues	Feels threatened in her leadership
	Must win	Concerned with what the others will think of her
	Must be the boss	Feels she must force the child to obey
	Often lies	Gets angry
	Is disobedient	Must show the child that she is running the class
	Does the opposite of what is asked of him	May be determined not to let him get away with his behavior
	May refuse to do any work	
	May think "I count only if others do what I want."	
	Must be in control of every situation	

3. Revenge

May steal
 Is vicious
 Hurts children and
 Is destructive
 May lie
 Often pouts and
 accuses others of
 their unfairness
 May believe that no-
 body likes him
 May want to get even
 for the hurts he
 believes others have
 inflicted upon him

Feels hurt
 Gets mad
 Wants to hurt back
 May dislike child
 Considers child
 ungrateful
 Wants to teach the
 child a lesson for
 his mean behavior
 May ask the other
 children to avoid
 this child
 May report the child
 to his parents in the
 hope that they will
 punish him

4. Inadequacy

Feels helpless
 May feel stupid in
 comparison to others
 Gives up and does
 not participate in
 any activities
 Feels best when left
 alone and when no de-
 mands are made on him
 May set too high goals
 for himself and not
 touch anything that does
 not measure up to his
 high self-expectations

May try various
 approaches to reach
 the child and become
 discouraged if she
 meets with failure
 She may then give
 up trying

The Do's and Don't's of Discipline

What can a teacher do in order to have the kind of classroom order that is satisfactory to her and to the students? Are these two possible? They are if discipline and order are used as a cooperative enterprise, with understanding on both sides and team spirit. In order to achieve this end, the teacher must know what to do as well as what she must do in a given situation. Let us consider first what she should never do.

1. A preoccupation with one's authority may provoke rather than stifle defiance and resistance to discipline. The teacher should not be concerned with her own prestige.
2. Refrain from nagging and scolding, since it may fortify the child's mistaken concept of how to get attention.
3. Do not ask a child to promise anything. Most children will promise to change in order to get out of an uncomfortable situation. It is a sheer waste of time.
4. Do not give rewards for good behavior. The child may then work only in order to get his reward and stop as soon as he has achieved his goal. What's more, this will only strengthen his belief that he must be paid every time he acts civil or makes a contribution.
5. Refrain from finding fault with the child. It may hurt his self-esteem and may discourage him.
6. Avoid double standards--one for yourself and another for the students. In a democratic atmosphere everybody must have equal rights. This includes the chewing of gum, swearing, tardiness, unnecessary visiting, and talking with members of the faculty in class when the children are working, sitting when the class pledges allegiance, checking papers or doing any kind of work that prevents the teacher from looking at the child when he is talking to her.
7. Do not use threats as a method to discipline the child. Although some children may become intimidated and conform for the moment, it has no lasting value since it does not change their basic attitudes.
8. Do not be vindictive; it only stirs up resentment and unfriendly feelings.

Let us now consider some of the effective measures that a teacher can use in the disciplinary procedure.

1. Because problem behavior is usually closely related to the child's faulty evaluation of his social position and how he must behave in order to have a place in the class group, the teacher's first concern must be to understand the purpose of his behavior (see Chapter 3). Only then will she be in a position to plan more effectively for this child.
2. Give clear-cut directions for the expected action of the child. Wait until you have the attention of all the class members before you proceed in giving directions.

3. Be more concerned with the future behavior of the child rather than with past behavior. Refrain from reminding the child what he used to be or do.
4. As soon as a child misbehaves and tends to threaten the general atmosphere in the class, give him the choice either to remain in his seat without disturbing the others or to leave the classroom if possible or go to the back of the room.
5. Build on the positive and minimize the negative. There is much good in every child, but if you look only for academic achievement, you may never find it.
6. Try to establish a relationship with the child built on trust and mutual respect.
7. Discuss the child's problem at a time when neither of you is emotionally charged, preferably in the regular class discussion.
8. Use natural consequences instead of traditional punishment. The consequence must bear a direct relationship to the behavior and must be understood by the child.
9. Be consistent in your directions. Do not change a decision arbitrarily just because it suits your purpose at the moment. Inconsistency confuses the child about what is expected of him at a certain procedure.
10. See behavior in its proper perspective. In this way, you will avoid making a serious issue out of trivial incidents.
11. Establish cooperative planning for future goals and the solution of problems.
12. Let children assume greater responsibility for their own behavior and learning. They cannot learn this unless you plan for such learning. Teachers who are afraid to leave the room because of what might happen prevent the children from taking responsibility is taught by giving responsibility. Be prepared for children to act up at first. Such training takes time.
13. Use the class as a group to express disapproval when a child behaves in an antisocial manner.
14. Treat the child as your social equal.
15. Combine kindness with firmness. The child must always sense that you are his friend, but that you would not accept certain kinds of behavior.
16. At all times distinguish between the deed and the doer. This permits respect for the child, even when he does something wrong.
17. Guide the individual to assume independence and his own self-direction.
18. Set the limits from the beginning, but work toward mutual understanding, a sense of responsibility, and consideration for others.
19. Admit your mistakes--the children will respect your honesty. Nothing is as pathetic as a defeated authoritarian who does not want to admit her defeat.
20. Mean what you say, but keep your demands simple, and see that they are carried out.

21. Children look to you for help and guidance. Give them this security, but make cooperation and eventual self-control the goal.
22. Keep in mind your long term goal: an independent, responsible adult.
23. Children need direction and guidance until they can learn to direct themselves.
24. Close an incident quickly, and revive good spirits. Let children know that mistakes are corrected and then forgotten.
25. Commend a child when his behavior in a situation shows improvement.
26. Work cooperatively with the children to develop a procedure for dealing with the infraction of the rules.
27. "Do unto others as you would have them do unto you."

As teachers we need to exercise kindness but also firmness so that the children will know what to expect from us; thus mutual respect between students and teachers will be the result of the democratic educational process. In this way the child will be able to project the inner order that exists in him out into his environment and will be able to make order in his own way, find his own place, and develop self-discipline.

When the students understand what is expected of them, when they have been accepted and respected as equal partners, when the teachers no longer feel threatened, then and only then, will they be ready to move into the process of learning in its true sense.

Child's Reaction to Reprimand and Some Corrective Measures

Goals	Child's Reaction to Reprimand	Corrective Measures from Teachers
Attention	Stops disturbing behavior for a while but then starts all over again May feel satisfied and stop disturbing May realize the absurdity of his behavior and give it up	Disclose the goal to the child. Stop and wait until the child realizes that he will get no other attention and give up his behavior. Ask child how often he would like to disturb during this session and come to an agreement. Watch for a moment when child does not disturb and show appreciation. Consider what you would like to do and do the opposite. Discuss the purpose of disturbing a class during group discussions. Give child positive attention.

Power	May resent it and intensify his disturbing behavior Is determined to show that he is the boss and will do what he wants May overtly or covertly demand of the teacher "What can you do about it?"	Do not get involved in a power struggle. Disclose the goal to the child. Agree that you cannot "make" him behave. Appeal to the child for his help. Refer to his agreement that all have equal rights, and that you want and must teach, while he may continue his behavior in the back of the room or any other place. (Find discussion on Equal Rights in Chapter 14). Discuss this with the group.
Revenge	Child wants to get even for the hurt he experienced from others May become worse May accuse teacher that she doesn't like him May threaten to do horrible things May run out of the classroom and disappear May use foul language and become abusive	Disclose goal Avoid retaliation Help child see that his conviction that nobody likes him prompts him to test people in an obnoxious way He can then feel justified in his feelings because the others will not respond kindly to his provocations Discuss this with the group Elicit from the students statements of any positive qualities in this child
Inadequacy	There may be no reaction from the child Child may insist that he can't do what the teacher requires of him The child may withdraw even more	Disclose goal Confront the child with his convictions that he is incapable of doing anything right without having given himself a chance to find out if he is right or wrong Assure the child that he is wanted and that you are there to help him. Do not give up on the child

A Comparison of Consequences Verses Punishment

Natural	Applied (Logical)	Logical (Agreed)	Punishment
Natural result of an act	Situation centered Training begins	Reality of the situation Training continues	Arbitrary exercise of power by the adult
No adult inter-vention the consequences —child falls, Bruises knees	Logical, but results imposed by adults the first time the behavior occurs " If you disturb, you'll have to leave	Related logically to the behavior but has been discussed, understood, and accepted by child after first time behavior occurs	Power of authority dominates "Do as I say, no questions asked" Child may lose respect for order
Child associates the consequences with his behavior	Seperates the deed from the doer	No element of moral judgement —"You are O.K., your behavior is not"	Some moral judgement usually "bad" or "wrong" may stimulate defiance
Deals with present behavior	Deals with present behavior	Deals with present and future behavior	Deals with past, present and future behavior
Has no choice consequences occur	No choice	Gives child a choice to be responsible for own behavior	Gives no choice and implies adult is responsible for child's behavior
Child learns inner discipline	Sets the stage for developing inner discipline	Develops inner discipline	Imposed discipline is maintained May encourage mis-behavior Child behaves out of fear and not out of inner conviction
No adult	Adult remains	Positive attitude	Adult dis-

interference friendly

Voice conveys
good will

maintained

Child feels
mutual respect

plays
anger
Antagon-
istic
atmosphere
is perpet-
uated
which
creates re-
sentment
in child

APPENDIX III

APPENDIX III

Comprehensive List of SMPSD Goals and Recommendations

Goal Number 1: Create an awareness on the part of all who work and study in the school that it is an organization governed by rules.

Recommendation Number 1.1: Collaborative development of school rules. School and classroom rules as well as the consequences for disobeying them should be decided collaboratively among teachers, students, administrators, and parents.

Recommendation Number 1.2: Rules-related content incorporated in school curriculum. Skills, attitudes, and content related to school rules, rule-making, and the nature of rule-governed organizations should be incorporated into the regular academic curriculum of the school.

Recommendation Number 1.3: Student instruction on school rules. Students should be taught about school rules and the consequences for disobeying them.

Recommendation Number 1.4: Student participation in rule making regarding adult behavior. Students should have opportunities to deliberate rules governing teacher behavior.

Recommendation Number 1.5: Frequent publicizing of school rules. School rules and the consequences for disobeying them should be publicized widely and updated regularly.

Recommendation Number 1.6: Orientation of transfer students. Special arrangements should be made to orient all transfer students to school rules.

Recommendation Number 1.7: Enforcement facilitated by minimum number of rules. The number of school rules should be kept to a minimum to facilitate consistent enforcement and student retention.

Recommendation Number 1.8: Procedures for consistent rule application and enforcement. Provisions should be made for the encouragement of consistent and fair rule enforcement and the resolution of routine problems involving inconsistencies and unfair treatment.

Goal Number 2: Collect, maintain, and utilize data on student behavior to improve school discipline.

Recommendation Number 2.1: Development of standard reporting procedures. Standard procedures for reporting behavior problems should be developed.

Recommendation Number 2.2: Allocation of responsibility for data control. One or two school employees should be given responsibility for receiving, storing, and periodically disseminating disciplinary data.

Recommendation Number 2.3: Regular review of collected data. Data on student behavior should be shared with teachers and others in the school on a regular basis. Time should be allocated so that data can be reviewed and suggestions can be made about how to improve school discipline.

Recommendation Number 2.4: Functional use of data in policy-making. Data on student behavior should be used in the formulation of schoolwide objectives related to improvements in discipline.

Recommendation Number 2.5: Public reporting of discipline data. Data on school discipline should be reported regularly to the Board of Education and the general public.

Goal Number 3: Provide opportunities for those who work and study in school to express their concerns and problems in a supportive atmosphere.

Recommendation Number 3.1: Situation specificity. In any process of conflict resolution in school, educators should attempt to deal only with the specific situation at hand.

Recommendation Number 3.2: Speedy action necessary. Conflicts that arise in the classroom should be handled between the teacher and the student(s) involved as soon after they occur as possible.

Recommendation Number 3.2.1: Private conferences. Conflict resolution procedures should take place on an individual basis and in private.

Recommendation Number 3.2.2: Informational hearings. Students accused of misconduct should have an opportunity (hearing) to explain how they perceive what occurred and why.

Recommendation Number 3.2.3: Negotiated problem-solving. Solutions to conflicts should be resolved at the classroom level between teacher and student, resource people should be available to hear both sides of the issue and assist in negotiating a settlement.

Recommendation Number 3.3: Trained resource persons. When conflicts cannot be resolved at the classroom level between teacher and student, resource people should be available to hear both sides of the issue and assist in negotiating a settlement.

Recommendation Number 3.3.1: Collaborative selection of resource persons. In order for the resource persons to enjoy maximum credibility, students and teachers should be involved in their selection.

Recommendation Number 3.3.2: Impartial functioning of resource persons. A resource person should regard his or her primary functions as 1) providing a hearing for the conflicting parties and 2) negotiating a solution to the conflict that is acceptable to them. Under no circumstances should he or she serve as an agent of the administration concerned with enforcing school rules or meting out punishment.

Recommendation Number 3.4: Student participation in problem-solving. Opportunities should be provided for students to participate in the conflict-resolution process.

Goal Number 4: In as many cases as possible, shift responsibility for diagnosing and managing serious behavior problems from individuals to teams.

Recommendation Number 4.1: Anticipation of problems by troubleshooting teams. Teachers working with the same students should form grade-level teams. These teams should convene periodically for troubleshooting--anticipating problems before they become major upsets.

Recommendation Number 4.1.1: Specificity of discussion. Discussions must involve references to specific students rather than broad statements, vague feelings or anecdotes.

Recommendation Number 4.1.2: Need for confidentiality. All discussions must be kept in strictest confidence.

Recommendation Number 4.1.3: Planning of specific actions.
For each student discussed during a troubleshooting session, a specific plan of action must be adopted before the session ends.

Recommendation Number 4.1.4: Delegation of responsibility.
One person must assume responsibility for seeing that the plan of action is implemented. Responsibilities should be distributed equitably (i.e., counselors should not always be selected).

Recommendation Number 4.1.5: Regular feed-back on cases.
The individual responsible for seeing that the plan of action is implemented must report back to the group at the next session about its success.

Recommendation Number 4.1.6: Documentation of proceedings.
Minutes should be taken of all troubleshooting session proceedings.

Duke Assessment of School Discipline*

This assessment form is designed to facilitate the process of planning the implementation of the Systematic Management Plan for School Discipline. The statements that follow each have a five-point rating scale beneath them. Please circle the number you feel best describes the situation at your school. Thank you for your cooperation.

Do Not Write Below This Line. Go To The Next Page.

Subtotals:	1. Rule-Governed Organization	_____
	2. Data Collection	_____
	3. Conflict Resolution	_____
	4. Team Approach	_____
	5. Parental Involvement	_____
	6. Rewards	_____
	7. Professional Development	_____
	TOTAL	_____

*A Note on the Use of the DASD

The Duke Assessment of School Discipline was developed as a guide for those who wish to conduct a status check of school discipline. It is not "standardized" nor are the weights assigned to particular items necessarily equivalent. Mean scores of three or lower on particular items, however, do suggest areas in need of attention.

1. The School As a Rule-Governed Organization

- 1.1 School and classroom rules are decided collaboratively among students, teachers, and administrators.

5 . 4 . 3 . 2 . 1

All of the time	Some of the time	Little or none of the time
--------------------	---------------------	----------------------------------

- 1.1.1 Parents participate in making school and classroom rules.

5 . 4 . 3 . 2 . 1

All of the time	Some of the time	Little or none of the time
--------------------	---------------------	----------------------------------

- 1.2 Skills, attitudes, and content related to school rules and student behavior are incorporated into the regular academic curriculum.

5 . 4 . 3 . 2 . 1

In most courses	In some courses	In few or no courses
--------------------	--------------------	-------------------------

- 1.3 Students are tested on school rules and the consequences for disobeying them.

5 . 4 . 3 . 2 . 1

All students are tested annually	Some stu- dents are tested	Students are not tested as a rule
--	----------------------------------	---

- 1.4 Students participate in developing rules governing teacher behavior.

5 . 4 . 3 . 2 . 1

Often	Some of the time	Never
-------	---------------------	-------

- 1.5 School rules and the consequences for disobeying them are publicized widely.

5	.	4	.	3	.	2	.	1
Posted in halls, class- rooms, etc.			Printed in hand- books			Not avail- able		

- 1.6 School rules are re-assessed.

5	.	4	.	3	.	2	.	1
Annually			Occasionally			Rarely		

- 1.7 Special arrangements are made to orient transfer students to school rules.

5	.	4	.	3	.	2	.	1
In all cases			Sometimes			Rarely		

- 1.8 Provisions exist to encourage consistent enforcement of school rules and fair application of justice.

5	.	4	.	3	.	2	.	1
Formal pro- visions exist			Informal processes exist			No provi- sions exist		

Additional Questions

- A. Does a list of school rules exist?
YES NO UNSURE
- B. If a list of school rules exists, how many rules are contained in the list? _____

2. Adequate Data Collection

- 2.1 Routine procedures for reporting behavior problems exist.

5	.	4	.	3	.	2	.	1
Procedures exist and are used all of the time			Procedures exist and are used sometimes			Routine procedures do not exist		

- 2.2 School personnel are responsible for receiving, storing, and disseminating data on student behavior.

5	.	4	.	3	.	2	.	1
Data is regularly processed			Data is processed on occasion			Data is not processed at all		

- 2.3 Data on student behavior is shared with school personnel.

5	.	4	.	3	.	2	.	1
Regularly			Occasionally			Rarely		

- 2.4 Schoolwide objectives related to student behavior exist.

5	.	4	.	3	.	2	.	1
Objectives exist and are pursued			Objectives exist on paper			No formal objectives exist		

- 2.5 Data on school discipline is reported to the public.

5	.	4	.	3	.	2	.	1
Regularly			Occasionally			Rarely		

3. Conflict-Resolution Provisions

- 3.1 Classroom conflicts are handled between the teacher and the student(s) involved.

5	.	4	.	3	.	2	.	1
Regularly			Occasionally			Rarely		

- 3.2 Teachers negotiate solutions to classroom conflicts with the student(s) involved.

5	.	4	.	3	.	2	.	1
Regularly			Occasionally			Rarely		

- 3.3 When conflicts cannot be resolved at the classroom level, resource people are available to listen to both sides.

5	.	4	.	3	.	2	.	1
Regularly			Occasionally			Rarely		

- 3.4 Students are involved as mediators/arbitrators in the conflict resolution process.

5	.	4	.	3	.	2	.	1
Regularly			Occasionally			Rarely		

4. Team Approach to Improved

- 4.1 Teachers meet in troubleshooting sessions to identify students who are beginning to experience behavior problems. The teachers develop corrective strategies.

5	.	4	.	3	.	2	.	1
Regularly			Occasionally			Rarely		

- 4.2 Case conferences are scheduled for any students experiencing chronic behavior problems.

5	.	4	.	3	.	2	.	1
Regularly			Occasionally			Rarely		

- 4.3 Efforts are made to involve community resource people (pediatricians, ministers, probation officials, social workers, etc.) in dealing with students experiencing chronic behavior problems.

5	.	4	.	3	.	2	.	1
Regularly			Occasionally			Rarely		

5. Parental Involvement

- 5.1 Parents are notified of school rules.

5	.	4	.	3	.	2	.	1
All parents notified annually			Parents notified irregularly			Parents are not notified		

- 5.2 The school provides opportunities for parents to gain new skills in dealing with their children.

5	.	4	.	3	.	2	.	1
Numerous opportunities are available			A few parent programs			No parent education program		

- 5.3 Parents are notified when their children encounter discipline problems at school.

5	.	4	.	3	.	2	.	1
Parents are always notified			Parents are sometimes notified			Parents are rarely notified		

- 5.4 Parents are contacted to verify student absences.

5	.	4	.	3	.	2	.	1
In all cases			Occasionally			Rarely		

- 5.5 Parents are involved in resolving discipline problems involving their children.

5	.	4	.	3	.	2	.	1
In all cases			Occasionally			Rarely		

6. Rewards and Punishments

- 6.1 Students who regularly obey school rules receive special privileges.

5	.	4	.	3	.	2	.	1
In all cases			Occasionally			Rarely		

- 6.2 Students are involved in determining the privileges for those who regularly obey school rules.

5	.	4	.	3	.	2	.	1
Students are regularly involved			Students are sometimes involved			Students are never involved		

- 6.3 Optional or alternative learning environments are available for students with special interests or learning needs.

5 . 4 . 3 . 2 . 1

Many options A few options No options
are available are available are available

- 6.4 Short-term programs focusing on behavior improvement are available for students with discipline problems (i.e., in-school suspension, after-school class on behavior improvement, Saturday school, etc.).

5 . 4 . 3 . 2 . 1

A variety One or two No programs
of programs programs

- 6.5 School officials work with student leaders to encourage good behavior among all students.

5 . 4 . 3 . 2 . 1

Regularly Occasionally Rarely

- 6.6 Corporal punishment is employed.

5 . 4 . 3 . 2 . 1

Rarely or Occasionally Regularly
never

7. Professional Development Related to Discipline

- 7.1 Efforts are made prior to the summer recess to assess school discipline during the year.

5 . 4 . 3 . 2 . 1

Annually Every few years Rarely,
if ever

- 7.2 Inservice programs dealing with topics related to student behavior problems are available.

5 . 4 . 3 . 2 . 1

Regularly Occasionally Rarely,
if ever

- 7.3 Non-teaching (non-professional) staff members participate in inservice activities concerning student behavior problems.

5	.	4	.	3	.	2	.	1
Whenever			On some			Never		
programs are			occasions					
available								

APPENDIX IV

APPENDIX IV

STUDENT CONTRACT FOR READMISSION TO CLASS

#1

What did you do? Did you violate any school rules. If so, which one (s)?

Reasons the behavior took place:

1. Did your behavior infringe on the rights and feelings of others?
Could students learn and teachers teach?

2. Was your behavior safe for yourself and others?

What can I do to prevent my problem behavior from happening again?

Student Signature _____

Teacher Signature _____

Administrator Signature _____

Parent Signature _____

To the Parent: Please retain one copy and send the other to the school
office with your signature. Thank you.

APPENDIX IV

STUDENT CONTRACT

#2

****This plan is to make your teacher aware that you are ready to solve your problem. This is NOT a commitment for your teacher. You will work out a commitment with your teacher at the time you meet with your teacher.

NAME _____ DATE _____

1. What were you doing? _____

2. A. How did your decision effect you? _____

B. How did your behavior affect the people around you? _____

C. In the long run was your action worthwhile?

Yes _____ No _____

3. What plan could you come up with that would take care of the situation in the future? _____

4. This plan will be effective until: _____

I agree to follow this plan and by doing so other people (parents, Time-Out, or principal) will not have to be brought in to help me solve the problem.

Student signature

Time-Out Counselor signature

APPENDIX V

APPENDIX V

Assertive Discipline Worksheets

I. ROADBLOCKS TO ASSERTIVENESS WORKSHEET

Which students have you felt had specific problems which prevented you from being able to influence their behavior? List both the students and their problems.

- | | |
|----------|----------|
| 1. _____ | 4. _____ |
| 2. _____ | 5. _____ |
| 3. _____ | 6. _____ |

With which students have you failed to set sufficiently firm, consistent limits?

- | | |
|----------|----------|
| 1. _____ | 4. _____ |
| 2. _____ | 5. _____ |
| 3. _____ | 6. _____ |

With which students, if any, have you failed to set firm limits for fear they might not like you, or school?

- | | |
|----------|----------|
| 1. _____ | 3. _____ |
| 2. _____ | 4. _____ |

With which students, if any, have you failed to set firm limits for fear that the limits may cause an already troubled child further undue stress or problems?

- | | |
|----------|----------|
| 1. _____ | 3. _____ |
| 2. _____ | 4. _____ |

With which students, if any, do you fail to set firm limits out of fear of your inability to handle their possible reactions, outbursts, tantrums, crying, etc.?

- | | |
|----------|----------|
| 1. _____ | 3. _____ |
| 2. _____ | 4. _____ |

With which students, if any, do you fail to set firm limits because of the reality that you need additional support from the parents in order to be effective?

- | | |
|----------|----------|
| 1. _____ | 3. _____ |
| 2. _____ | 4. _____ |

With which students, if any, do you fail to provide the additional incentives necessary to motivate their appropriate behavior?

- | | |
|----------|----------|
| 1. _____ | 3. _____ |
| 2. _____ | 4. _____ |

II. YOUR WANTS AND NEEDS WORKSHEET

List the five behaviors you want and need from your students to function at your maximum potential.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

What activity periods (quiet, work, etc.) do you utilize with your class? What behaviors do you want and need for each activity period?

- | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| Activity Period _____ | Activity Period _____ |
| 1. _____ | 1. _____ |
| 2. _____ | 2. _____ |
| 3. _____ | 3. _____ |

Activity Period _____

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

Activity Period _____

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

Activity Period _____

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

Activity Period _____

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

Analyze your general response style according to the following criteria:

1. Do you assertively communicate, verbally and non-verbally, the behaviors you want for your students? _____

2. In general, how do you verbally respond to the student's behavior that you do not want (Verbal Limit-Setting)--assertively, non-assertively, or hostilely? If you feel that you respond assertively, do your responses influence the students to eliminate their inappropriate behavior?

3. In general, how do you verbally respond to the students' behavior that you do want (Positive Verbal Assertions)--assertively, non-assertively, or hostilely? _____

4. When necessary, how do you generally follow-through on your limit-setting demands--assertively, non-assertively, or hostilely? If you feel you respond "assertively," do your responses maximize your potential to influence the students' behavior, in order to eliminate that which is inappropriate?

5. When necessary, how do you generally follow-through on your positive verbal assertions--assertively, non-assertively, or hostilely? If you feel you are "assertive," does your response maximize your potential influence on the child and increase his appropriate behavior? _____

6. How effectively do you plan your discipline efforts?

7. Review your self-analysis. What changes do you need to engage in to increase your effectiveness in meeting your needs?

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

If you have specific "powerful children" whom you are having difficulty dealing with, respond again to the 7 questions, but this time in relation to your response style with these children.

Child's Name: _____

1. Communication of wants and needs: _____
2. Verbal Limit-Setting: _____

3. Positive Assertions: _____
4. Limit-Setting Follow-Through: _____
5. Positive Assertion Follow-Through: _____
6. Planning Discipline: _____
7. Review Changes:
 1. _____
 2. _____
 3. _____
 4. _____

III. POSITIVE ASSERTION FOLLOW-THROUGH SURVEY

Child's Name _____ Date _____

This survey should be filled out in the presence of the student. Ask each question of the student. The student's responses will assist you in determining appropriate positive follow-through consequences that will motivate the student.

1. If you did a good job at school who would you like me to tell? _____
2. What adult (teacher, aide, counselor, etc.) would you like to earn time with? _____
3. What classmate would you like to earn more time with?

4. What is your favorite activity at school? _____

5. What activity would you like to do more often? _____

6. What special privilege would you like to earn? _____

7. What is the best reward I could give you at school?

IV. ASSERTIVE DISCIPLINE PLAN WORKSHEET

Discipline problem to be worked on (briefly describe)

Behaviors you want:

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

Behaviors you don't want:

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

Limit-setting follow-through consequences you will utilize:

Planning you will need to engage in to implement the consequences: _____

Positive follow-through consequences you will utilize:
