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UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

GRADUATE COLLEGE

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DEVELOPMENTALLY APPROPRIATE PRACTICE AND SOCIAL BEHAVIORS OF THIRD GRADE STUDENTS

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

By

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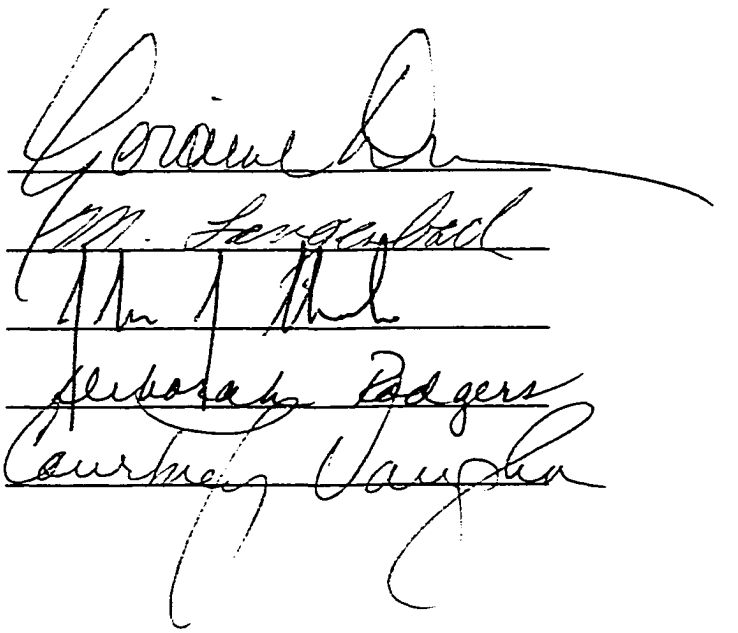
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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DEVELOPMENTALLY APPROPRIATE PRACTICE AND SOCIAL BEHAVIORS OF THIRD GRADE STUDENTS

A DISSERTATION APPROVED FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP AND ACADEMIC CURRICULUM

BY



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This research project represents my desire to learn more about young children and the social behaviors that they demonstrate. In particular, I have long been interested in those attributes in children which reflect both a cooperative spirit and an eagerness to help others. Without question, the project would have been impossible without the support, assistance, and encouragement from many people.This dissertation is dedicated to my husband Jim. I have long known that he has been the anchor in my life that has kept me focused. Because of his unquestionable belief in me, my dream has become more than a dream.

Since I grew up in a family of educators, from a very young age it was clear to me not only the importance of both formal and informal education, but the actual intrigue and power of learning. My grandmother, Della Warrenburg, was an amazing gift who became an example of the influence that an engaging, powerful teacher can have. Looking back, I realize that I also learned the importance of prosocial behaviors from her because she was a model of goodness. As I grew older, I eventually came to discover that two of the best teachers I could ever have were my two daughters, Terri and Kerri. I thank them for teaching me about love, joy, laughter, and the strong bond of family ties. I also thank them for the concern and care for me that they have demonstrated during this work.

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As I have learned more of the significance of the social behaviors of children and the outcomes that can result from both prosocial and antisocial behaviors, it has become my hope that the very principles of prosocial behaviors found in II Peter 1: 5-7 will guide the decisions of all whose paths intersect with the lives of young children. Perhaps all of us who share a common, fervent hope for children to live peacefully with an absence of violence in their lives will commit to modeling those behaviors reflective of goodness.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

LIST OF TABLES....x

ABSTRACT....xi

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION....1
Developmentally Appropriate Practice....1
Significance of Guidelines....3
Social Outcomes....3
Social Behaviors....6
Significance of Behaviors....6
Definition of Prosocial and Antisocial Behaviors....8
The Elementary School Setting....10
Purpose....10
Research Question....11

CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE....12
Rationale....12
Social Behaviors....15
Prosocial and Antisocial Behavior Definitions....15
Early Studies of Prosocial Behavior....17
Early Studies of Antisocial Behavior....20
Recent Themes in the Social Behavior Literature....21
Adult Influences on Prosocial and Antisocial Behaviors....21
Peers....29
Gender Differences....31
Dispositional Influence....33
Developmentally Appropriate Practice....35
Guidelines....35
Research Studies....37
Endorsements....39
Theories Relating to Social Behaviors and Developmentally Appropriate Practice....41
Bandura....41
Piaget....45
Vygotsky....47
Conclusion....49

Page

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY....51
Research Design....51
Instruments....51
Classroom Practices Inventory Plus....52
Rubric to Evaluate Constructivist Teaching....54
Author Notations and Interviews....54
Summary of Teacher Verification Process....55
Social Skills Ratings....58
Social Skills Rating System....58
Demographic Information....61
Child-Rearing Attitudes....62
Procedure....63
Design....65

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS....66
Introduction....66
Descriptive Statistics....66
Teacher Characteristics....66
Parent/Family Characteristics....70
Children's Social Behaviors....77
Correlational Analyses....78
Analysis of Covariance and Analysis of Variance....82

CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION....86
Introduction....86
Teacher Selection....86
Teacher Characteristics....87
Family Characteristics....87
Previous Educational Experience....89
Social Skills....90
Limitations....91
Conclusions and Implications....92

REFERENCES....97

APPENDICES

Appendix A....120

Page

Appendix B 137
Appendix C 146

LIST OF TABLES

Table Page

1. Family Characteristics Group Comparison Means.....71

2. Students' Previous Educational Experience.....73

3. SSRS Standard Score Means and Standard Deviations.....78

4. Correlations Between Behavior Subscales and Family Characteristics.....80

5. Correlations Between Previous Educational Experience and Ratings of Social Behaviors.....81

6. Intercorrelations of Social Behavior Rankings 83

7. Analysis of Covariance for Teacher Ratings of Social Skills and Problem Behaviors.....84

8. Analysis of Variance for Student Ratings of Social Skills.....85

Abstract

This study examined the relationship between the social behaviors of third grade students (N=47) enrolled in 4 classrooms, and the developmentally appropriate practices demonstrated by their classroom teachers. Teachers rated both the prosocial and antisocial behaviors of the students. Students rated their prosocial behaviors. Group differences between students receiving developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate instruction were examined with respect to social behaviors, family income, parent education, employment, family composition, and the previous educational experience of the students. No significant differences between students experiencing developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate instruction were found with respect to social behavior outcomes.

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Developmentally Appropriate Practice

The significance of social development in general is well documented in the literature (Baumrind, 1970; Burleson & Waltman, 1987; Coie, Dodge, & Kupersmidt, 1995; Damon, 1998; McGuire & Weisz, 1982; Pellegrini, 1992). However, the role school environments play in the development of socially acceptable behaviors requires further study.

Developmentally appropriate practice has been defined by the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC; Bredekamp & Copple, 1997) as practice in which teachers make curricular decisions centering around three important issues. The first is knowledge about characteristics of children which are linked to the age of the individual child. This knowledge allows teachers to determine age-appropriate activities, materials, and interactions which will be challenging. Second, knowledge about the needs of the individual child allows teachers to plan experiences which are more likely to benefit the individual child. The third issue involves knowledge regarding both the social and cultural contexts of the child in order to more effectively plan experiences which will hold meaning and which will be respectful of the child. Put succinctly, the definition of developmentally appropriate practice addresses the issues of age-appropriateness, individual-appropriateness, and cultural

appropriateness (Bredekamp & Copple, 1997). To verify the accepted definition of developmentally appropriate practice, Charlesworth et al. (1993) reported that several professional organizations had commonly agreed on that definition. These organizations include the National Association of Early Childhood Specialists in State Departments of Education, the International Reading Association, the National Association of Elementary School Principals, and the Southern Early Childhood Association.

The 1987 NAEYC position statement (Bredekamp, 1987) concerning developmentally appropriate practice for children from birth through age eight was driven by Piagetian theory which holds the premise that children are active learners and that for learning to be meaningful, it must be within context of the experiences of the child (Piaget, 1972). The NAEYC statement was influenced by the growing trend toward top-down curriculum for young students with increasing emphases on academic skills from a teacher-directed format. This trend developed in spite of research identifying quite different environments as being optimal for children's learning (Bredekamp, 1987). While expert opinion and a growing corpus of studies (Burts et al., 1992; Elkind, 1986; Frede & Barnett, 1992; Marcon, 1992) favor more child-centered programs, Stipek (1993) refers to the irony of the continuation of developmentally inappropriate programs in elementary schools. Practices considered to be developmentally

inappropriate are geared toward large-group instruction, teacher lecture, seat work, workbooks, and other out-of-context paper and pencil tasks.

Significance of Guidelines

According to Dunn and Kontos (1997), despite the significance that has been given to the NAEYC guidelines, research indicates that only one-fifth to one-third of educational programs serving preschool-age children and those children in the five-to-eight year category employ developmentally appropriate practice. For example, Oakes and Caruso (1990) report that in their research conducted with kindergarten teachers, developmentally appropriate practice was seen infrequently.

Nonetheless, the NAEYC statement (1997) has become a benchmark for evaluating curricular practices. The guidelines are supportive of the movement away from traditional elementary school methods of teaching which appear to lack both age and individual appropriateness (Bredekamp & Copple, 1997; Wilt & Monroe, 1998). Traditional methods, which include utilizing workbooks and worksheets out of context, engage children in rote thinking activities rather than concrete meaning-making activities. These traditional methods are considered to be developmentally inappropriate and are contrary to current theoretical views regarding teaching and learning.

Social Outcomes

Charlesworth, Hart, Burts, and DeWolf (1993) from Louisiana State

University conducted a study over a five-year-period that examined the effects of both developmentally appropriate practice and developmentally inappropriate practice on both achievement and behavior of young children. These researchers found that children in first grade who had been involved in developmentally inappropriate kindergarten classrooms were more likely to be aggressive, tended to exhibit greater levels of stress and were more distractible than the children who had been in developmentally appropriate kindergarten classrooms. These negative social outcomes raise questions about the influence of developmentally inappropriate curricular practices on social development. The literature provides only a limited understanding of the influence of developmentally appropriate practice on social behaviors.

Stipek (1993) studied 39 preschool and kindergarten classrooms classifying them as using either developmentally appropriate practices (DAP) or developmentally inappropriate practices (DIP). Her findings suggested that children in the developmentally inappropriate classrooms scored higher in some areas of cognitive ability, yet in social-emotional development, the children exhibited higher levels of worry about school and their self-concept was weaker. Social outcomes for children in classrooms employing developmentally appropriate practice were more positive than those of children in classrooms using developmentally inappropriate curricular practices. The children were found to be more

self-confident and had greater pride in their work.

Hyson, Hirsh-Pasek, and Rescorla (1990) found that the children in more developmentally appropriate classrooms had more positive attitudes about school. The findings of studies by Marcon (1992) and Mantzicopoulos, Neuharth-Pritchett, and Morelock (1994) also suggested that children experiencing developmentally appropriate environments have more positive social skills than those in developmentally inappropriate environments. These studies indicate that developmentally appropriate practice positively influences the social development of young children. However, the literature is not consistent regarding the relationship between developmentally appropriate practice and social behaviors. In contrast to the favorable findings cited above, Mantzicopoulos et al. (1994) reported that children in both developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate classrooms reported similar ratings of social behaviors. This indicates that no differences in social outcomes were evident based on classroom environments. Dunn, however, (1993) reported a poorer social adjustment for those children enrolled in classrooms with greater variety in play opportunities, a characteristic of developmentally appropriate practice. Dunn and Kontos (1997) have suggested that further research is needed in order to clarify relationships between developmentally appropriate environments and social development.

Social Behaviors

Significance of Behaviors

The importance of social development is recognized by researchers who have verified the link between a variety of social behaviors and later school success (Burleson & Waltman, 1987; Coie et al., 1995; Farver & Branstetter, 1994; McGuire & Weisz, 1982; Pellegrini, 1992). Baumrind (1970) has suggested that if children are responsible, friendly, cooperative and self-controlled, they are considered to be socially competent. The basis for learning these specific skills and for social development in general, occurs during the early years of life when children learn the rules of society and begin to learn about relationships with others (Kostelnik, Stein, Whiren, & Soderman, 1993). Concern regarding antisocial behaviors is evident in the literature from studies which suggest that those children exhibiting antisocial skills are rejected by peers, are often lonely, appear to be at risk for conduct and psychiatric disorders, and demonstrate a lack of adjustment in school (Asher & Wheeler, 1986; Coie & Dodge, 1983; Kupersmidt, 1983; Parker & Asher, 1987).

The current study was designed to add to the existing knowledge base by examining potential differences in the social behaviors of children in developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate classrooms. The NAEYC developmentally appropriate guidelines (1997) emphasize the importance of teachers and administrators working together

to help children develop prosocial behaviors such as caring, empathy, cooperation, and responsibility. The guidelines also recommend that teachers need to provide age-appropriate opportunities which discourage antisocial behaviors such as disruption and aggressiveness. Thus, facilitating children's positive social development is clearly an intended goal of developmentally appropriate practice.

Given the fact that there are limited studies in the literature directly addressing the influences of developmentally appropriate practice on both prosocial behaviors and antisocial behaviors, this study examined the relationship between developmentally appropriate practice and social behaviors, while also examining the predictor variables of gender, ethnicity, socio-economic status, and parental child-rearing attitudes. Existing research indicates these demographic characteristics may play a role in the relationship between developmentally appropriate practice and social development. Hartup (1989) emphasized that attention should be given to gender differences in social relationships because the cultures of male and female are varied in multiple ways during childhood. Burts et al. (1992) in a study of developmentally inappropriate and developmentally appropriate classrooms, found a higher frequency of stress behaviors in boys rather than girls during a variety of classroom activities. These researchers also found differences in the stress levels of Caucasian and African-American children. These findings suggest that more information

would be helpful in understanding the contribution of developmentally appropriate practice to social development. While developmentally appropriate practice is assumed to address culture, it is important to note that no teacher is completely developmentally inappropriate or developmentally appropriate, so a developmentally appropriate classroom may not always be sensitive to relevant cultural issues. Therefore, the issues of gender, ethnicity, and socio-economic status were examined in this study.

Perhaps even more than the classroom, family experiences influence the social behaviors of children. An extensive review by Maccoby and Martin (1983) shows links between the interactions of parent and child and the social skills that are displayed by the child. A connection between adults and prosocial behaviors in children has also been shown by Yarrow, Waxler, and Scott (1971). It is clear that adults influence the behavior of children. Thus, it is important to tap into familial influences on social behaviors as well as curricular influences.

Definition of Prosocial and Antisocial Behaviors

Several researchers have defined prosocial behavior as a voluntary action that either aids or benefits others (Eisenberg et al.,1996; Radke-Yarrow, Zahn-Waxler, & Chapman, 1983; Staub, 1978; Yarrow & Waxler, 1976). According to Kostelnik et al. (1993), prosocial behaviors are categorized into two major areas: cooperation, which refers to children

working together toward a common goal, and helpfulness, which refers to children assisting others in distress or assisting in work or play. Specific examples of prosocial behaviors include helping others, caring, sharing, comforting, cooperating, and collaborating. Further examples include being affectionate, polite, sociable, good natured, positive in social interactions, good playmates, and self-confident. Consistent with these established definitions, for this research project, prosocial behaviors are defined as those behaviors that benefit others.

Antisocial behavior has been defined in the literature as behavior which can inflict harm, physical or mental, or injury to others, property loss or damage (Loeber, 1985; Parke & Slaby, 1983). According to Coie and Dodge (1998), examples of antisocial behavior can include aggression, disruptive behavior, disobedience, and even irritability. Interestingly, in conjunction with this, Coie et al. (1995) reported that teachers describe rejected children as exhibiting behaviors of hyperactivity, disruptiveness, and aggression. Rutter, Giller, and Hagell (1998) report that children who exhibit antisocial behaviors are often disruptive, oppositional, impulsive, and have difficulties with peer relations. Again, consistent with the literature, this study examined the relationship between developmentally appropriate practice and antisocial behaviors that contribute to the harm of others.

The Elementary School Setting

The elementary school setting is important because of the unique place it holds within the educational system. Elementary school is influential because significant numbers of American children attend elementary school. Elementary school, in particular the early years, tends to be viewed as a rite of passage that holds importance for both young children and their parents. This research project focused on social behaviors, particularly prosocial and antisocial behaviors, in elementary school children. Third grade students were targeted for this study because third grade students (typically ages 8-9) exhibit social skills which are more defined than those of younger children, and the students are able to self-report on specific behaviors. Crick and Ladd (1993) point to the importance of children's ability to self-report rather than being dependent upon reporting by peers or by adults. These researchers suggest that when children use their own voice, it may contribute to the overall understanding of children's social problems. According to N. Eisenberg (personal communication, April 18, 1999), children become more reliable with self-reporting instruments as they become older. Therefore, third grade students appear to be an appropriate target for examination in this research study.

Purpose

It is well documented in the literature that the elementary years are

significant in a child's life (Crick & Ladd, 1993; Kostelnik et al., 1993), and it is known that social development is critical to peer acceptance, positive peer relationships, and later school success (Burleson & Waltman, 1987; Coie et al., 1995; Farver & Branstetter, 1994; McGuire & Weisz, 1982; Pellegrini, 1992). Research indicates that developmentally appropriate practice influences more complex cognitive functioning (Hirsh-Pasek, Hyson, & Rescorla, 1990); however, more information is needed on the role of developmentally appropriate practice in children's social development. The purpose of this study was to add to existing knowledge pertaining to developmentally appropriate practice by examining the behaviors of students from four third-grade classrooms which fall on opposite ends of the developmentally appropriate practice (DAP) and developmentally inappropriate practice (DIP) continuum. Findings from this study should help clarify the relationship between appropriate and inappropriate curricular practices and prosocial and antisocial behaviors of children.

Research Question

Do significant differences exist in the prosocial and antisocial behaviors of children in developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate classroom environments?

CHAPTER 2

Review of the Literature

Rationale

This study examined the relationship between developmentally appropriate curricular practices and the social behaviors of young children. Attention was given specifically to prosocial and antisocial behaviors of young children. Social behaviors of young children have long held the interest of parents, caregivers, and researchers. Because of possible long term outcomes, the significance of social behaviors has also been acknowledged by such groups as the National Association for the Education of Young Children, the Division for Early Childhood of the Council for Exceptional Children, and by the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards.

Attention has been given in the literature to both prosocial and antisocial behaviors. For example, Garbarino (1993) emphasized the importance of prosocial behaviors by bringing attention to the existence of community violence and the alarming concern this problem has for the stability of mental health in young children. The National Research Council's Panel on Understanding and Preventing Violence (Reiss & Roth, 1993) reported that evidence is clear that children who are aggressive have a tendency toward violence during the teenage years and on into adulthood. Elliott, Hamburg, and Williams (1998) suggest that the antisocial behavior

of physical aggression in children under ten is an early form of violence. These researchers also maintain that childhood aggressive behavior is a strong predictor of more serious violent behaviors during adolescence. Berke (1994) suggested that crime and violence are considered the most important problems facing America. Thus, antisocial behaviors in young children that may be precursors to later violent behaviors are a concern.

Studying antisocial behaviors in young children is important because of this connection with later violent behaviors (Elliott et al., 1998). Through his studies of antisocial behavior of children, Call (1998) suggests three significant traits that serve as predictors of violent behavior in children: anger, impulsivity, and deficient empathy. These antisocial behaviors should serve as important signals to parents and professionals working with children. Other early warning indicators of the potential for violence include excessive feelings of isolation, excessive feelings of rejection, and past incidences of aggression. Children who exhibit such behaviors may be prone to violent behaviors such as the recent episodes of violence in American schools. Recognizing that a link can exist between antisocial behaviors and violence, lends further credence to the significance of this particular research study.

Eisenberg (1992) suggested that learning more about prosocial behaviors might help to either reduce or eliminate antisocial behaviors such as violence, inhumanity and injustice. The development of prosocial skills

in young children might arm these same children with strong problem-solving skills and cooperative and collaborative skills which will, hopefully, help decrease episodes of antisocial behaviors such as violence in our communities. Therefore, it is essential that adults working with young children explore ways to understand social behaviors more thoroughly in order to be more adept at the facilitation of prosocial behaviors. Eisenberg further suggested that through understanding prosocial behaviors, changes in policies and in schools could be implemented which might alter attitudes and values and behaviors of society in general. Thus, there are altruistic reasons for studying prosocial and antisocial behaviors.

Existing studies make clear that adults influence children's social behavior. Adult-child interactions with parents, caregivers or teachers, influence children's development. A link exists between the quality of the interaction and the children's social competence. It has been shown that when an adult engages a child in attentive and positive interactions, positive child outcomes, such as cooperation, occur (Besevegis, & Lore, 1983; Howes, Phillips & Whitebook, 1992; Howes & Smith, 1995; Russon, Waite, & Rochester, 1990). On the other hand, when the quality of the adult-child relationship is negative, aggressive social problem solving, such as fighting or threats of harm, can occur and can be predictive of future aggressive behavior (Coie & Dodge, 1998).

Research by Deci, Schwartz, Sheinman, and Ryan (1981) suggested

that children in classrooms where adults exhibit willingness to share authority, appear to have opportunities which allow them to exhibit more self-determination. The children perceive themselves as more competent and appear to be intrinsically motivated. When adults demonstrated more authority controlling behaviors, children were less inclined to exhibit intrinsic motivation and lacked strong self esteem characteristics.

What is not clear in the literature is an understanding of the influence of curricular practices on the social behaviors of children. After NAEYC published the first position statement regarding developmentally appropriate practice in 1986, a wave of research studies was reported. Developmentally appropriate practice was shown to have positive influences on the cognitive and emotional development of young children. However, since conflicting reports have been given regarding the influence of curriculum on social development generally, and prosocial behaviors specifically, (Marcon, 1992; Mantzicopoulos et al., 1994) a need for this study exists. This study contributes to the understanding of the relationship between developmentally appropriate curricular practices and the social behaviors of young children.

Social Behaviors

Prosocial and Antisocial Behavior Definitions

The accepted definition of prosocial behaviors submitted by various researchers was given in Chapter 1 (a voluntary action that either aids or

benefits others). Eisenberg (1992) noted that girls are usually considered more prosocial than boys. Children who are generous and helpful are often thought of as being sociable and adjusted. Children who are prosocial are often thought of as being sympathetic, being somewhat skilled at taking the perspectives of others, and also as having skills useful in problem solving during social conflicts with others.

Eisenberg (1992) suggested whether or not children are able to engage in prosocial behaviors like sharing, caring and helping within a number of contexts is more important than isolated situational instances of these behaviors. She further suggested that no child shares or cares or helps all of the time, and no child is selfish or self-focused all of the time. Because children typically are not prosocial or antisocial all of the time, when studying these behaviors, the focus needs to be on children who demonstrate prosocial or antisocial behaviors with varying frequency.

The accepted definition of antisocial behavior was also given in Chapter 1. Antisocial behavior is considered to be behavior which can inflict harm, physical or mental, or injury to others. To add more clarity to this definition Coie and Dodge (1998) suggested that antisocial behavior often includes disruptive behavior and can include behaviors associated with oppositional defiant disorder and conduct disorder. Studies suggest that children who exhibit antisocial behaviors are at risk for poor school adjustment, behavior disorders, and peer rejection (Parker & Asher, 1987;

Coie & Dodge, 1983). Further, it is reported that children who are rejected by peers are lonely and seem unable to escape the situation of rejection (Asher & Wheeler, 1986; Parker & Asher, 1987). Price and Dodge (1989) suggest that the peer group often reinforces the inappropriate behavior of a rejected child through the prejudices the group holds about the child, so a negative peer relationship appears to contribute to inappropriate behavior.

Early Studies of Prosocial Behavior

Radke-Yarrow et al. (1983) reported that the earliest interest in children's sensitivity to others and in their prosocial behavior was reported in the early 1900s by Stern. He observed that children as young as two years old have the ability to feel the sorrow of others and to try to help or offer comfort. In the early 1930s Piaget (1965) noted that in infants, ranging in age from 8 to 12 months, the ability to share was demonstrated and other altruistic actions were exhibited. He also reported episodes of jealousy in infants. Piaget believed that children at very early ages had a basic sense of self and a basic sense of others because of the ability to show both jealousy and sympathy. In the 1940s other studies by Gesell, Halverson, Thompson, Ilg, Castner, Ames, and Amatruda, as cited in Radke-Yarrow et al. (1983), indicated that children, by the age of one, show signs of beginning to understand the emotions of others around them, indicating the early existence of prosocial skills.

Sullivan (1940) was another early researcher who discovered that at

a very young age children can be sensitive to the needs of others. He addressed the usefulness of collaboration for children as they work to understand and appreciate others. Sullivan (1953) believed that prior to school entry, a young child has learned about getting along with others within the boundaries of the family and neighborhood. The child has learned about the social rules that pertain to the limited number of people with whom contact is made. He believed that the early school years were an important time for young children to develop a social identity outside the boundaries of family life. Sullivan considered this an important achievement in development, and he stressed the idea that when the child enters school, the narrow view of society previously held becomes altered. The child has confidence in the fact that he or she has been successful, but the new experiences within the school setting give the child an opportunity to expand the view of society previously held. As children learn to interact and engage in dispute, discussion and compromise, they learn the value of cooperation and collaboration. These prosocial skills are important tools for children to develop and Sullivan's work makes clear the importance that they hold for children. He believed that peers helped to build a basis for a child's understanding of cooperation (Youniss, 1980).

Only a limited number of studies specifically addressing prosocial behaviors were conducted until the 1960s. During the 1960s, Campbell's work in the area of altruistic motives gave rise to research that was social

psychological in nature but did not have a grand theory base. After the 1960s, an interest in prosocial behavior developed further and according to Radke-Yarrow et al. (1983), the term prosocial behavior hit the research circuit. Many behaviors were subsequently listed under the heading of prosocial behaviors. Radke-Yarrow et al. also brought attention to the fact that there was a limited theory base relevant to prosocial behaviors. Research dealing with prosocial behaviors was often considered in terms of equity theory. In other words, the altruist was studied from the approach of what would be gained and at what cost.

During the 1970s, research interest in prosocial skills increased, including studies examining the prosocial behaviors of helping, cooperation, and sharing. In addition, there was focused work examining the early emergence of such behaviors. Most studies from this period support emergence during the age of one year. (Rheingold & Hay,1978; Rheingold, Hay, & West,1976).

Evolving from work by Piaget (1965) and Kohlberg (1969) which stimulated an interest in the moral reasoning abilities of children, the 1970s also marked the appearance of research exploring the interrelationship between moral reasoning and prosocial behavior (Mussen & Eisenberg-Berg 1977; Zahn-Waxler, Radke-Yarrow, & King, 1979). Children who demonstrated advanced stages of moral reasoning demonstrated more acts of altruism than those children who demonstrated less advanced stages.

Early Studies of Antisocial Behavior

The earliest debates and studies of antisocial behavior centered around aggressive behavior. According to Averill (1982), the argument that aggressive behavior is biologically instinctive to human beings and the instinct must be tamed by the culture, can be traced to the early Greek philosophers such as the Stoics. However, both Rousseau and Locke argued differently. Rousseau believed in the innate goodness of man while Locke maintained that an infant is born as a blank slate and aggression reflected the influences of society (Miller, 1993). In the 1930s Freud argued that biological influences, as well as experiences, are influential in the development of children.

The influence of the environment is represented by Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrer, and Sears (1939) who suggested that all aggressive behavior is a necessary result of frustration. However, Berkowitz (1962, 1989) and Davitz (1952) both negated the beliefs of Dollard with findings showing that frustration does not always lead to aggressive behavior. During the 1970s, Bandura (1973) argued that aggressive behavior is acquired through observational learning, imitation of models of aggression, and by reinforcement of aggressive behaviors (1973). More recently, Dodge (1986) explained aggressive behaviors with a social information-processing theory that describes the mental processes used when aggressive behaviors are exhibited within social interactions.

Biological explanations have been advocated by others. Plomin (1983) has suggested that difficult temperament is at the base of antisocial behavior. Low IQ (West, 1982) and aggressive relatives (DiLalla & Gottesman, 1989) have also been suggested as contributors to antisocial behavior. Coie and Dodge (1998) note that the debate continues and since the study of aggressive behavior is so complex, the varying theoretical views can lead to the understanding of different aspects of antisocial behavior. Further, these scholars also suggest that before a complete understanding can occur, an integrated theory with multiple aspects needs to emerge.

Recent Themes in the Social Behavior Literature

Since the 1970s the interest in social behaviors, both prosocial and antisocial, has continued with various themes emerging. Four recurring themes will be discussed here. The first is adult influences, including parents and other caregivers and is the most dominant theme in the literature. Other themes to be discussed are peer relationships, gender differences and dispositional tendencies.

Adult Influences On Prosocial and Antisocial Behaviors

Parents. One of the underlying themes in the literature pertinent to this particular study centers around adult influences on prosocial behaviors. One of the researchers who produced studies of very early demonstrations of prosocial behaviors was Rheingold, who studied the ability of young

children to share with others and to give to others. Rheingold et al. (1976) set up a laboratory, designed to approximate a home environment rather than a clinical environment, and conducted observations of infants ranging from 15 to 18 months of age during interactions with their parents. The findings indicated sharing does occur in infancy. Nearly all of the infants in the study were observed to engage in some type of sharing activity, such as giving objects to others. Hay and Rheingold later reported (1979) that infants have many opportunities in which to observe prosocial behaviors in adult caregivers. As these caregivers engage in functions such as attending to needs, or offering comfort, or even helping solve problems, infants are able to observe first hand prosocial skills in action.

Other researchers who have offered studies contributing to the field of prosocial behaviors include Zahn-Waxler and Radke-Yarrow. One of their studies (1982) looked at infant reactions to the distress of others. The mothers of these 10, 15, and 20 month-old-infants were given training in recording observational information and collected data over a nine-month period. Mild emotional distresses were simulated by both the researchers and the mothers within the infants' immediate environment. As a result of the observations, the researchers were able to discover that the behaviors of the infants changed as the infants matured. Ten-month old infants were likely to exhibit crying or frowning responses, but prosocial behaviors emerged over the next six months. An emerging behavioral feature was

that of positive initiations to others in distress. By the age of 2, the children would either verbalize sympathy to someone suffering or bring something to the person to offer comfort. As the children grew, the prosocial reactions were more frequent and were more expressive in nature. This study gave substance to the notion that prosocial behaviors are evident prior to age 3.

Results of studies which have examined school-age children and prosocial behaviors suggest that age differences are complex. In a meta-analysis by Fabes and Eisenberg (1996), a significant, positive effect size was found for age and prosocial behavior. This indicates a pattern that suggests as children age, prosocial behaviors are more apt to occur.

In conjunction with this body of work on adult-child interactions and social development in general, Baumrind, (1967), Maccoby and Martin (1983) and Yarrow et al. (1971) describe a connection between the interactions of parent and child and the social skills the child exhibits. When the parenting style was identified as authoritative, the behavior of the parents was nurturing and the children were more likely to exhibit positive peer interactions. When the parenting style was identified as authoritarian, and the parents were unresponsive and inflexible, the children were likely to show hostile and negative behaviors toward peers. When the parenting style was identified as permissive, the parents did not establish firm limits of behavior, the children were impulsive and lacked self-control. These

researchers confirmed that both parental warmth and nurturance were related to a high level of social competence in children. Baumrind (1991) notes that children of parents who are authoritarian are apt to be defiant, surly, and lacking in social behavior skills. In addition, the research team of Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, and Dornbusch (1994) report the concern that when parents are neglectful, consequences for social adjustment of children result.

Kim, Hetherington, and Reiss (1999) report that there is evidence of an association between aggressive behavior and parent-child relationships. When the parent-child relationship is hostile-coercive in nature, such as nagging, scolding, or threatening, or when the relationship is characterized by inept parental discipline, aggressive and antisocial behaviors can result. According to these authors, children in this type of family environment exhibit aggressive behaviors or other social behaviors which often lead to developing relationships with peers who demonstrate antisocial behaviors.

Patterson (1995) has suggested that children who exhibit antisocial behaviors such as disruptiveness and aggression in the early years of school have inadvertently been trained within the contexts of their homes about the effectiveness of these behaviors. Snyder and Patterson (1995) collected observational data which documents that mothers of aggressive boys are more likely to reinforce negatively aversive responses by their sons than are mothers of nonaggressive boys. Mothers of nonaggressive boys were

more likely to reinforce their sons' prosocial responses. Deater-Deckard (2000) affirms that parenting is a significantly important component on the problem behaviors of young children such as aggression and conduct problems. When the parental relationship is negative, problems in behaviors can result.

On the other hand, expectations by parents for socially responsible behavior and moral behavior have been linked to children being socially responsible and exhibiting prosocial skills (Dekovic & Janssens, 1992; Janssens & Gerris, 1992). It was reported that democratic parenting, which included both parental warmth and support, when combined with such factors as demandingness or the offering of supplying suggestions, information, and the use of positive comments was linked to prosocial behavior such as empathy in children by Dekovic and Janssens (1992). Other researchers report that parental warmth, when combined with a high degree of permissiveness on the part of the parent, appears to promote the development of prosocial behavior. Warmth has been found to be specifically associated with prosocial behaviors, such as caring for others, with peers (Attili, 1989; Hinde & Tamplin, 1983; Oliner & Oliner, 1988).

The importance of adult influences on social behavior has been shown by Bandura (1986) who stressed the importance of modeling in his social learning theory. Since that time, other researchers have found that young children who view either a generous or a helpful adult model are

typically more generous and helpful in their behaviors (Grusec, 1972; Owens & Ascione, 1991; Staub, 1971; Yarrow, Scott, & Waxler, 1973). In conjunction with this, Bandura and Walters (1963) found that young children who view antisocial models exhibit antisocial behaviors.

In a study by Hart, Ladd, and Burleson (1990) it was suggested that a relationship exists between maternal disciplinary styles and the ways in which children think and behave during peer interactions. This study examined 144 mothers and their first and fourth grade children. The children of mothers who exhibited more power assertive disciplinary strategies were less accepted by peers and experienced greater difficulties in peer relationships and exhibited antisocial behaviors. Children who observed mothers demonstrating friendly-assertive disciplinary strategies were more preferred as playmates, and demonstrated more prosocial behaviors during peer interactions. This study suggests the children's peer relationships were impacted by their adoption of strategies modeled by mothers.

In addition to maternal influence, there is evidence of the importance of paternal influence as well. Those children whose fathers were involved in their educational program were less apt to exhibit behaviors of violence or to engage in juvenile delinquent acts (Elias, 1996; Smith, 1995 & U.S. Department of Education, 1997). According to Turbiville, Umbarger III, and Guthrie (2000), support exists in the research of better outcomes for

children when paternal involvement is noted.

Earlier studies have verified the predictive value of the parent-child attachment relationship to the behavior of the children with peers (Jacobson & Wille, 1986; LaFreniere & Sroufe, 1985). According to attachment theory described by Bowlby (1969), children from parent-child relationships which are secure are likely to be positive in their approach to peers. Preschool and kindergarten children from secure attachment relationships were found to be rated high in peer competence and in peer status and generally more harmonious in peer interactions (LaFreniere & Sroufe, 1985; Park & Waters, 1989). Bukowski, Newcomb, and Hartup (1996) suggest that securely attached children at all ages show greater social competence with their peers.

Teachers. Similar to the work on parent-child attachment and peer relations, recent research has verified the importance of security in the teacher-child relationship and suggests that these relationships are associated with social competence with peers. Relationships between teachers and children that are described as warm and trusting have been shown to influence positive social behaviors in children as reported by parents. In other words, a secure teacher-child attachment may result in more peer social competence (Goossens & van IJzendoorn, 1990; Pianta & Nimetz, 1991).

Other aspects of the teacher-child relationship have been examined as

well. A longitudinal study by Howes, Hamilton, and Matheson (1994) examined the social competence of children with peers and various aspects of the teacher-child relationship. These authors defined social competence with peers as being prosocial, sensitive, empathetic, sociable, able to participate in complex play activities, and being able to solve social problems. The findings suggest that prosocial behaviors, as well as antisocial behaviors, were associated with the children's feeling of security with the preschool teacher. Results indicated that there was an association between positive teacher-child relationships and social competence, including prosocial behaviors such as empathy and sensitivity with peers. It is expected that when the teacher-child relationship is negative, children will exhibit more antisocial behaviors and will exhibit less social competence with peers.

Other research suggests that teachers' attitudes toward authority influences children's behavior (Deci et al., 1981). Children in grades 4 through 6 who had teachers who established autonomy-oriented environments were more intrinsically motivated and perceived themselves as competent. These children also displayed stronger self-esteem, which correlated with their perceptions of their social competence. The children whose teachers were more controlling in their orientation were less intrinsically motivated, did not perceive themselves as competent as the other children, and did not display strong self esteem attributes. These

studies suggest that prosocial acts are influenced by teacher behaviors, but little is known regarding the relationship of curricular practices on both prosocial and antisocial behaviors. Consequently, the current study was undertaken in order to broaden the understanding of the social behaviors of children.

Peers

Popularity has been linked to prosocial behaviors within the areas of peer interaction, leadership, and emotional well-being. An expected outcome of prosocial behaviors in children is successful peer relationships. According to several researchers, prosocial behaviors have been linked to acceptance with peers (Coie et al., 1995; Farver & Branstetter, 1994). Burleson and Waltman (1987) suggest that if children are adept at comforting others they are more likely to be accepted rather than rejected or neglected by their peers. Coie et al. (1990) have also found that children who are helpful to peers, considerate of others, cooperative, and who follow the rules are children who are popular or well-liked.

Several researchers have confirmed the importance of young children being accepted by their peers, as well as the predictive nature of peer status with respect to both the socio-emotional and the cognitive development of children. Children who are well liked and accepted by their peers are more cooperative, more friendly, and less aggressive than those children who experience peer rejection (Coie et al, 1990; Denham & Holt,

1993; Denham, McKinley, Couchoud, & Holt, 1990; Newcomb, Bukowsi, & Pattee, 1993; Parker & Asher, 1987).

Other researchers suggest that if young children are given the opportunity to express their feelings, the children will seek help to resolve problems with peers, a demonstration of prosocial behavior. Children's feelings or perceptions about peer experiences can prove useful in understanding the processes involved in their social experiences (Asher & Williams, 1987; Asher, Zelis, Parker, & Bruene,1991; Crick & Ladd, 1993; Hymel & Franke, 1985). Farver and Barnstetter (1994) also contend that peer relationships in preschool settings provide opportunities which may contribute to the development of prosocial responses. In conjunction with this, these researchers suggest that friendly peer relationships may motivate prosocial behaviors.

In addition to exploration of prosocial behaviors and their influence on peer relations, the influence of antisocial behaviors has also been explored in recent literature. Stenberg and Campos (1990) found that by the age of four months, the angry facial features of babies are present and are focused toward the source of the frustration. Hay, Nash, and Pedersen (1983) reported that in their observations of babies, aggression directed at peers was documented by the age of one year. One-year-old infants were likely to exhibit evidence of frustration when peers grabbed objects or came into their personal space, while substantially younger babies were

not. Interestingly, Holmberg (1977) found that 50% of all peer interactions among children from 12 to 18 months old involved conflict. Shantz and Shantz (1985), however, report that most conflicts do not involve aggressive behavior.

Antisocial behavior has also been linked to peer rejection. Vandell and Hembree (1994) report rejected children exhibit higher frequencies of antisocial behavior, including aggression, distractibility, and disruptive tendencies. In addition, children who were found to be disruptive, aggressive, hyperactive, and who broke the rules, were children who were socially rejected (Coie et al, 1990). Children who are rejected by their peers often become lonely, which is predictive of future difficulties such as lack of school success and behavioral disorders (Asher & Wheeler, 1986; Kupersmidt, 1983; Parker & Asher, 1987).

In a study of 338 third and fifth graders, Crick and Ladd (1993) reported that rejected children who often engage in antisocial behaviors may demonstrate awareness of negative feelings toward them from peers and may feel distressed about the negative relationships. These rejected children often tended to feel lonely and came to anticipate similar behaviors from their peers in future interaction episodes.

Gender Differences

Examining previous studies is helpful in understanding what is currently known about gender differences in relation to the development of

social behaviors in children. Several studies have examined gender differences in children's prosocial behavior. One meta-analysis of 259 studies (Fabes & Eisenberg, 1996) focusing on gender reported that differences in prosocial behavior varied with the particular type of behavior. While girls exhibited higher levels of kindness, sharing behaviors, and helping behaviors, the gender difference was most pronounced for kindness. Girls may have a tendency to exhibit prosocial behaviors within personal relationships; yet, boys may have a tendency to exhibit prosocial behaviors on a more impersonal basis. Across all behavior types, it appears that girls exhibit more prosocial behaviors than boys; however, the issue has been given no final resolution because there exists considerable variation in the instrumentation used for data collection (Eisenberg & Fabes, 1998).

In addition to prosocial behaviors, gender differences in antisocial behaviors has also been explored. Several studies have verified the link between an early onset of misbehavior and antisocial behavior later in life, in both adolescence and adulthood. These longitudinal studies specifically link aggressive acts and misbehaviors during the 8-10 year age range to a continuation of antisocial behaviors into later years (Coie, Terry, Lenox, Lochman, & Hyman, 1995; Farrington, Loeber, & Van Kammen, 1990; Haapasalo & Tremblay, 1994; Patterson, 1993). Particularly for boys, when physical aggressive acts and bullying tactics are consistent in school,

later antisocial behaviors, delinquent behaviors and even violent behaviors in the community are predictable. However, according to Cotten et al. (1994), there is a growing number of incidents of aggression among girls, including both physical aggression and carrying weapons.

For both boys and girls, antisocial behavior generally results in negative peer relationships. However, for boys, reactive and instrumental aggression are viewed differentially. Reactive aggression, situations in which aggressive acts are the result of provocation, is viewed with more peer approval than instrumental aggression, situations in which aggression is physical or assisted by a weapon (Coie & Dodge, 1998; Dodge, Coie, Pettit, & Price,1990). In all instances for both boys and girls, children who stand up for themselves are usually more well-liked by peers (Lancelotta &Vaughn, 1989).

Dispositional Influence

Another important theme in the prosocial literature is that of the influence of disposition. A recent study which addressed the issue of prosocial skills and disposition was conducted by Eisenberg et al. (1996). This study explored the relations between children's dispositional prosocial behavior within the social functioning context. The investigation used assessment by peer nominations and considered individual differences in negative emotionality and in regulation. Researchers wanted to know if a child with a disposition to be prosocial would exhibit prosocial actions, be

well regulated, and be able to cope constructively on an everyday basis with peers. In addition, the researchers wanted to know if this same child would display a low dispositional tendency to display negative emotions. It was believed that variables such as temperament or personality would predict prosocial behaviors.

Results of this investigation indicate that dispositional prosocial behavior with peers is related to both social functioning in general and to dispositional characteristics. The findings further suggest a positive link between prosocial skills, coping skills, social competence, which the authors defined as socially appropriate behaviors, and development.

Disposition is traditionally attributed to nature, nurture, or a blending of the two. Some researchers have presented arguments that the human race is predisposed on a biological basis to have empathy and react with behavior that is altruistic in nature (Hoffman, 1981; Martin & Clark, 1982). Eisenberg and Fabes (1998) report that the Dalai Lama argues that a strong predisposition toward altruism exits universally among various peoples. Supportive of this is twin research in which approximately 50% of the variance in altruistic acts and empathic behaviors was attributed to genetic factors (Davis, Luce, & Kraus, 1994; Rushton, Fulker, Neal, Nias, & Eysenck, 1986). Similarly, Zahn-Waxler, Robinson, and Emde (1992) suggested a significant predispositional tendency exists for both empathic acts and prosocial acts.

Plomin and colleagues (1993) supported the notion that personality differences are influenced by both environmental and genetic factors which influence the tendency of children to behave prosocially. Kagan (1998) suggests that temperamental factors, for example sociability and shyness, influence when children choose to help others. Other researchers suggest that children who are sociable by nature are more apt to help others (Farver & Barnstetter, 1994; Silva, 1992). Farver and Barnstetter (1994) further suggest that children who are classified as temperamentally easy seem to have qualities that predispose them to positive peer interaction and therefore, make them popular with their peers. Conversely, children who are classified as temperamentally difficult are less likely to respond prosocially within peer interaction episodes.

Developmentally Appropriate Practice

Guidelines

Guidelines developed for professionals to follow when determining curricular practices with young children ages birth to eight were influenced by a growing belief held by early childhood researchers and teachers. This belief was that the trend toward increased formal instruction occurring in early childhood programs is not only inappropriate, but detrimental to the development of children (Charlesworth, 1985, 1989; Elkind, 1986). Elkind has argued that developmentally inappropriate curricular practices contribute to increased stress in young children and

hinders social development. During the decade since the NAEYC position statement was published in 1987, individuals and key groups have conducted research studies on the effectiveness of developmentally appropriate practice and participated in dialogue in order to provide the feedback necessary for the publication of the revised guidelines (Bredekamp & Copple, 1997).

Developmentally appropriate practice for young children has three components that should be interwoven into curricular decisions regarding teaching practice and content. These components include age-appropriateness, individual-appropriateness, and cultural-appropriateness (Bredekamp & Copple, 1997) as noted earlier. The NAEYC guidelines (1997) encourage the movement away from the traditional elementary school methods of teaching that appear to ignore these three essential components.

The NAEYC guidelines (1997) encourage primary grade teachers to help children broaden their thinking by challenging them and by giving them opportunities to engage in collaborative learning activities. The classroom environment should be one that promotes opportunities for children to share ideas, listen to the ideas of others, and learn to negotiate. The guidelines also encourage teachers to employ instructional strategies that help children learn new skills and gain new understandings. Clearly, these guidelines when adopted by teachers, should influence the social

development of young children in positive ways.

Commonly held beliefs about how young children learn have been based on cognitive-developmental theories. These theories suggest that young children learn best when instruction is geared toward the developmental characteristics of children. Major influences on the NAEYC guidelines were the theories of Piaget (1972) and Vygotsky (1978) which suggested that children are active learners and that meaningful learning occurs within the context of the experiences of the child.

The principles of developmentally appropriate practice that are relevant to the social development of young children and that guide this research project are centered around the premise that the four domains of human development (physical, social, emotional, cognitive) are interrelated. This suggests that the four domains need to be interwoven into the fabric of curricular practice. As well as facilitating all four developmental domains, curriculum should reflect an integration of content areas. For example, language arts, math, art, and music can all be successfully integrated into any instructional activity in which teachers engage.

Research Studies

Research studies that have emerged since the original guidelines were published have not clearly identified the influence of developmentally appropriate practice on the social behaviors of young children. However, it

is known from Hyson et al. (1990) that those children in classrooms where the environment was considered developmentally appropriate were more positive in their attitudes toward school. Additionally, these researchers found that children enrolled in classrooms where teachers fostered developmentally appropriate environments, exhibited lower levels of stress regarding test anxiety than those children enrolled in developmentally inappropriate classrooms. Burts and a research team from Louisiana State University (1992) also found that children enrolled in developmentally appropriate classrooms demonstrated lower levels of stress. The children enrolled in developmentally inappropriate classrooms were found to demonstrate more stress behaviors.

Stipek, Feiler, Daniels, and Milburn (1995) also have shown that children were more motivated in classrooms where developmentally appropriate practice was offered. Additionally, the children exhibited higher expectations toward success and were willing to engage in challenging activities. In conjunction with this research, other scholars (Mantzicopoulos et al., 1994; Marcon, 1992) have reported that children in developmentally appropriate environments demonstrated more social skills and believed themselves to be more cooperative than the children in developmentally inappropriate classrooms. Results presented by Jambunathan, Burts, and Pierce (1999) indicated that developmentally appropriate curricular practices are useful in providing opportunities

which promote prosocial behaviors such as cooperation, helpfulness, negotiating, and social problem solving. Further, in a study by Jones and Gullo (1999), it was reported that positive social skill ratings of children's behaviors were associated with developmentally appropriate beliefs held by teachers who had aligned curricular practices with those beliefs.

Other studies concerning the influence on social behaviors are inconsistent with those findings. Dunn (1993) found a negative relationship between children's social adjustments and the classroom environment. Children in classrooms with more variety in play activities, were rated as having more behavior problems. Mantzicopoulos et al. (1994) report that no differences were found in the level of social competence in children from classrooms where teachers engaged in developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate curricular practices.

Endorsements

To further emphasize the significance of developmentally appropriate practices, Garbarino (1999) suggested the importance of programs which represent the standards of developmentally appropriate practice and which provide parent education programs which strengthen parents' ability to care for children in a way that is both nurturing and accepting. He further suggested that early childhood education programs which are high quality, enriching, and with a developmental orientation, contribute to turning boys away from violence. These programs are critical

to the improvement of intellectual development which can help young children to learn to form resilience and make more positive behavioral choices. He also suggested that an important contribution to violence prevention are the standards formulated by the National Association for the Education of Young Children which focus on quality in early childhood programs which include appropriate curricular practice.

Still another scholar to emphasize the significance of developmentally appropriate practice is Fang (1996) who reported that teacher beliefs about how knowledge is acquired can influence teacher behavior and guide the expectations teachers hold. In spite of the acknowledged benefit, Wardle (1999) notes that the number of classrooms adopting a developmentally appropriate approach is limited. Dunn and Kontos (1997) report that as few as one-fifth to one-third of the programs adhere to the developmentally appropriate philosophy. Buchanan, Burts, Bidner, and White (1998), examined first through third grade teachers' levels of experience and found that teachers who were recent graduates held higher levels of developmentally appropriate practice beliefs than those teachers with more experience. This lends hope that in the future as current standards are taught with more frequency the trend will reverse itself and more classroom environments will become developmentally appropriate.

Theories Relating To Social Behaviors and Developmentally Appropriate Practice

Theoretical notions of the importance of social behaviors in young children have been promoted primarily in social learning theory. The theory of Bandura has contributed to the understanding of social behaviors through the interpretations of the importance of relationships with both adults and peers. Additionally, Piaget and Vygotsky have contributed to the understanding of social behaviors and developmentally appropriate practices. Although the theories are based on varied perspectives, they do present unique ways to understand social behaviors and the curricular practices of teachers.

Bandura

Social cognitive learning theory is a theory that has had a major influence on the study of prosocial and antisocial behavior in young children. Bandura and Walters (1963) began with a social learning theory that emphasized imitational learning as a strong force in socialization. These scholars demonstrated that children also learn through vicarious experiences and do not necessarily have to be involved in a particular interaction for learning to occur.

As the theory of Bandura developed through the years, it evolved into social cognitive learning theory. A key component of this theory emphasizes that knowledge is acquired by the cognitive processing of

information (1989). Bandura stressed that social cognitive theory is based on a model of causation that is reciprocal in nature between the influences of behavior, cognition, and the environment. He suggested that this model of causation reflected the interaction of thought, affect, and action. He believed that the beliefs, feelings and thoughts of people affect how they behave (1992).

Bandura focused on both social behavior and the social context of behavior, as well as observational learning. He believed that behaviors are influenced by the context in which they occur and that observational learning was beneficial in children's learning of new skills and changing behaviors. Bandura claimed that children learn the most from learning and instruction that is observational and in which trial and error practices are common. Bandura did not view the interaction of the child and the environment as critical; rather, the critical issue was the new information gained as a result of the interaction of child and environment. The focus for Bandura was that when children learn new behaviors from a model, they also learn which behaviors lead to reinforcement. Supporting the importance of models, Perry, Perry, and Kennedy (1995), refer to the fact that learning experiences can occur in the form of direct feedback from parents or peers or by exposure to both real-life and media models.

Besides the notion of observational learning, another key component of this social cognitive learning theory is that children are able to be self-

regulating. As children engage in the observation of the behaviors of others, they begin to understand which behaviors lead to reinforcement and those that lead to punishment. With this understanding of which behaviors elicit which responses, children can formulate rules which are abstract and set specific goals, as well as make decisions about which behaviors would be the most appropriate in certain situations. In other words, their observations result in the development of self-regulation which may result in prosocial behaviors. On the other hand, limited self-regulation can lend itself to exhibiting antisocial behaviors.

The work of Bandura contributes to the understanding of social behaviors. Because it is known that observational learning with young children is influential, it becomes clear that the if children are given opportunities to observe prosocial behaviors, prosocial acts in young children might increase. Young children have many opportunities in childhood for observational learning. Implications of the theory suggest that if children have many opportunities to observe prosocial behaviors and techniques used in problem-solving, they will become more socially competent as well as more self-regulating. On the other hand, if children have many opportunities to observe antisocial behaviors, the implication is that they will become less socially competent and will exhibit more antisocial behaviors.

In addition to observational learning, another key component of this

theory is reciprocal determinism. Reciprocal determinism refers to the interaction of the child, his or her behavior, and the environment which leads to behavior change. Bandura believed that the child, the child's behavior, and the environment are all interdependent and are influenced by and influence each other and are reciprocally determined.

Another relevant part of this theory that holds interest is the idea of self-efficacy, which Bandura identified as the way in which people perceive their ability to deal or cope with the environment. He believed that all types of behavior are influenced by a person's self-efficacy. He stressed that young children might be quite capable of completing a task; yet, if they have the perception that they are unable to do so, then failure is a greater possibility for them.

To further the understanding of prosocial and antisocial behavior, Price (1996) refers to the influence of social cognitive learning theory which addresses direct and indirect influences on the social development of young children. As an example of direct influence on social development, he cites a parent's attempts at teaching young children about peer interactions. Another example is that of specific social skill training by teachers of young children. An example of indirect influence would be the modeling of social behaviors by parents. Price continues by explaining that as the direct and indirect influences occur, children begin to develop mental ideas of themselves, of others, and of relationships. He further

suggests that these mental ideas, or representations, influence the processing of social information. As a result, social cognitive processes influence the child's interaction with peers, including prosocial and antisocial behaviors. Developmentally appropriate classrooms are ideal for children to experience observational learning and reciprocal determinism and to develop a stronger self-efficacy base. These three theoretical components may be positively influenced by developmentally appropriate classroom environments and negatively influenced by developmentally inappropriate classroom environments.

Piaget

Although Piaget and Vygotsky did not specifically address the role of prosocial and antisocial behaviors, these theorists have made major contributions to the knowledge of the social development of children in general and thus, require some discussion. However, the major contribution to this study from Piagetian, as well as Vygotskian theory, is that these theories drive the notion of developmentally appropriate curricular practice.

The guidelines regarding developmentally appropriate practice developed by The National Association for the Education of Young Children (Bredekamp & Copple, 1997) are based on the concept that children actively construct knowledge based on their understandings of their experiences (Piaget, 1952; Vygotsky, 1978). Children learn best by

forming ideas and using manipulation, observation, questioning and contemplating techniques to come to an understanding of their ideas. Learning by children can be enhanced when teachers and parents utilize varied techniques in order to help children use the practice of reflection through the pre-planning and post-planning. When this occurs, what the children understand from the experience is enriched (Edwards, Gandini, & Forman, 1993). These practices are consistent with developmentally appropriate practice.

Youniss and Damon (1992) emphasize the importance of peer relationships within the theory of Piaget. Within the peer relationship, Piaget believed that children learn the process of cooperation which is necessary for expressing points of view and for learning to respect the points of view of others. According to these scholars, the importance of cooperation was that by building on the ideas of others, while explaining one's own ideas, children would come to a mutual understanding or a joint construction of ideas. Through exchanges of ideas, children become more adept at respecting the points of view expressed by others.

Piaget had the notion that children should not be regarded as immature when comparing them to adults. Rather, he believed that children view the world differently from adults. Piaget believed that egocentrism in young children had to do with the child's propensity toward understanding the world in relation to self. He believed that egocentrism hindered a

child's ability to take the perspective of others. However, he became aware that the skill of perspective taking increases as children become less and less egocentric in thought and that the skill increases as children have more opportunities for interaction with others in their world (Piaget, 1959).

Vygotsky

Vygotsky is another theorist who emphasized the importance of social interaction. He believed that interactive activity helps shape the thinking of children, and that the foundation for development occurs through social interaction and joint problem solving. He believed that the activities of children when trying to solve day-to-day problems led to problem solving skills which emerge through cooperation with others. Vygotsky believed that it would be impossible to understand the behavior of a child apart from a social context. He believed that the experiences of children in classrooms that emphasized socially organized activities with adults and peers enhanced the cognitive development of children (Vygotsky, 1978).

One of the major components of Vygotsky's theory is the zone of proximal development (1978). This zone has been identified as the distance between the child's "actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving" and the "potential developmental level as determined through adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (1978, p. 86). The zone is an area where a child may participate in

higher levels of thinking and functioning. These higher levels of functioning have been defined as thinking, attending, and remembering. (Corsaro, 1985; Miller, 1993; Wertsch, 1991).

When the child interacts with people, whether a peer of a higher level of competence, or an adult, then mental and social development is enhanced. Learning takes place within the zone of proximal development through what Vygotsky described as intersubjectivity, which is an understanding shared between the participants within the zone. Because of the joint interaction between the child and the other person engaged in the activity, a shared understanding takes place by building on the experiences that occur jointly. Each experience can be built upon and the child can construct new knowledge and new skills with the help of the other person who is more skilled.

Vygotsky believed that instruction should be based on the idea that if the social interaction is changed, then the child's level of functioning will be changed. Within the zone, the child actively constructs knowledge through interaction with a more skilled person. The child functions as a partner within the zone wherein both parties engage in a process that enriches thought processes. He believed that any activity involving a child and adult or a child and another child of more competence, has the potential to extend children to a higher level of functioning.

Vygotsky's theory holds relevance to this dissertation project because

of the possibilities for prosocial skill development within the adult and peer experiences of the zone of proximal development. Continued exposure to peer interactions could result in a maturing of not only cognitive skills, but perspective-taking skills and cooperation as well. Although the zone is difficult to identify, it is an area that seems to invite opportunities for both people in the dyad to acquire or improve prosocial behaviors which could result in benefits to both members. It seems apparent that the zone of proximal development can be an avenue in which young children can have many opportunities for both adult and peer interaction wherein prosocial skill development can be expanded. Further, it seems apparent that the zone of proximal development is likely to be occur within developmentally appropriate classrooms because of emphasis on both social interaction and cooperative learning.

Conclusion

From the studies presented for consideration in this literature review, it is clear that prosocial behaviors are significant to the development of children. The link between prosocial behaviors and positive peer relationships has been well documented by several researchers, as has the link between antisocial behavior and negative peer relationships. Researchers have verified the importance of status with peers and have even documented that a child's skill at comforting others can predict rejection or acceptance within the peer context (Burleson & Waltman,

1987; Coie et al., 1995; Farver & Branstetter, 1994; McGuire & Weisz, 1982). In essence, the children who exhibit prosocial behaviors consistently across differing contexts, are likely to have positive peer relations. Pellegrini (1992) has further suggested that prosocial behaviors are linked to later school success. Summarily, research findings suggest that two significant outcomes to prosocial behaviors in young children are positive peer relationships and later school success. Research findings also suggest that when negative peer relationships exist, rejection, loneliness, lack of adjustment in school, and being at risk for both conduct and psychiatric disorders are the likely outcomes.

However, what is not clear in the literature is the relationship between developmentally appropriate curricular practice and the social behaviors of children. Specifically, the influence that curricular practice holds for both prosocial and antisocial behaviors is not clear. From the studies reported, it is clear that more information is needed in order to determine the differences, if any, between the social behaviors of children in developmentally appropriate and those children in developmentally inappropriate classroom environments. This research project was designed to contribute to the growing body of literature by examining the relationship between curricular practices of third grade teachers and the social behaviors of young children. Specifically, it was designed to focus on the relationship between developmentally appropriate classroom

environments and tendencies toward both prosocial and antisocial behavior in primary grade children.

CHAPTER 3

Methodology

Research Design

In order to gain a broader understanding of the relationship between developmentally appropriate practice and the social behaviors of young children, this study used a quasi-experimental design which reflected a truth-seeking ontology (Borg & Gall, 1989; Langenbach, Vaughn, & Aagaard, 1994). The purpose of this study was to determine whether differences exist in the social behaviors of young children who experience a developmentally appropriate curricular environment as opposed to those children who experience a developmentally inappropriate curricular environment. Specific attention was given to prosocial and antisocial behaviors.

Instruments

Participants in the study were four third-grade teachers, their students and their parents in the central area of the state of Oklahoma. The four teachers were chosen to represent varying degrees of developmentally appropriate curricular practices in the classroom. Specifically, two teachers were chosen who ranked high on developmentally appropriate curricular practices, and two teachers were chosen who ranked low on developmentally appropriate curricular practices. These teachers were nominated by principals known to the researcher. Verification of the

curricular practices of the teachers was established by the researcher through classroom observation. The classroom observation instruments used for curricular verification purposes were The Classroom Practices Inventory Plus (CPI+) and A Rubric to Evaluate Constructivist Teaching. The CPI+ was developed to correspond to the NAEYC guidelines (Baron, Frede, & Lee, 1992). The instrument is explained in more detail below. (A copy of The Classroom Practices Inventory Plus is located in Appendix A.) A Rubric to Evaluate Constructivist Teaching was developed to help evaluate constructivist teaching which the authors describe as containing elements of developmentally appropriate instruction (Stork & Engel, 1999). This instrument is explained in more detail below. (A copy of A Rubric to Evaluate Constructivist Teaching is located in Appendix A.) Further, both author notations and teacher interviews were used in order to complete the verification of teaching practices.

Classroom Practices Inventory Plus

The CPI+ instrument is based on the NAEYC developmentally appropriate practice guidelines and is an observational rating scale based on a two-hour classroom observation. The CPI+ consists of 40 Likert Scale items ranging from 1 (not at all like this classroom) to 5 (very much like this classroom). Negative items are reverse scored and an overall score is determined by summing the responses. Higher scores represent more developmentally appropriate practice. The authors (Baron, Frede, & Lee,

1992), report internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) is high, .98, for the CPI+ total score. The authors also report a good inter-observer reliability of 82. The authors further substantiate validity reporting a study of 31 preschool, kindergarten and first-grade classrooms. A .66 correlation was reported with the Teacher Beliefs Scale (TBS) and the Instructional Activities Scale (IAS) (Baron et al.,1992; Frede, Baron, & Lee,1992). Other measures of DAP in the validation study comparing teachers CPI+ scores to the TBS and the IAS scores confirmed that teachers with higher developmentally appropriate ratings on the CPI+ expressed more developmentally appropriate beliefs and reported providing more developmentally appropriate activities in their classrooms. It is significant to note that some of the items on the CPI+ were deleted from the current study because the items were geared specifically toward a younger student classroom environment. Only the items which were easily adaptable and appropriate to a third grade classroom environment were included in the study. Deleted items were 10, 11, 12, and 34. The CPI+ instrument is presented in Appendix A.

As a precursor to the larger study, observers were trained to use the CPI+ from a common perspective. In the training process, reliability was established with 100% agreement for each CPI+ item. These exercises assured focused utilization of the instrument in the larger study presented here.

Rubric to Evaluate Constructivist Teaching

Additional verification of environmental appropriateness was made with the instrument, A Rubric to Evaluate Constructivist Teaching. The instrument was designed to be used as a guide to assess teaching practice and to assist teachers in setting improvement goals. Only those items pertinent to this study were included. Items deleted were 2, 3, 4, and 7. The complete version of the Rubric is presented in Appendix A. Evidence of content validity was achieved by input from students, university faculty, and a well-known Piagetian scholar, Hermina Sinclair (Stork & Engel, 1999). No other reliability or validity evidence was presented by the authors. For this particular research project, the instrument was useful as a companion to the CPI+ in that it provided confirmation to the verification of the teacher practices being observed.

As with the CPI+, reliability was established between observers prior to the onset of the larger study. Reliability was established with 100% agreement for each Rubric item. Again, this process assured focused utilization of the instrument in the larger study presented here.

Author Notations and Interviews

Principals were interviewed and queried to obtain recommendations of teacher participants. In conjunction, the researcher conducted observations in the classrooms of participating teachers to confirm classifications of developmental appropriateness. Anecdotal notations were

recorded for each observation with specific citations of developmental appropriateness or developmental inappropriateness. Following classroom observation, the researcher conducted semi-structured interviews with participating teachers to obtain specific information supporting a classification of teaching practice.

Summary of Teacher Verification Process

Principals identified two teachers demonstrating developmentally appropriate classroom practices and two teachers demonstrating developmentally inappropriate classroom practices. Verification of these classifications was accomplished by utilizing the CPI+, the Rubric to Evaluate Constructivist Teaching, classroom observations and teacher interviews prior to proceeding with the research project.

Both of the developmentally appropriate teachers had high scores on the CPI+ which is indicative of adherence to the developmentally appropriate guidelines that have been issued from the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC). CPI+ scores for the identified developmentally inappropriate teachers were low which is indicative of less adherence to the NAEYC developmentally appropriate practices guidelines. The Rubric to Evaluate Constructivist Teaching scores were also higher for the developmentally appropriate teachers and lower for the developmentally inappropriate teachers. As with the CPI+, higher scores were reflective of closer adherence to developmentally appropriate

guidelines than lower scores.

Observations conducted in the classrooms of each of the four participants were recorded in author notations and are reported here to provide qualitative information related to the categorization of developmentally appropriate or inappropriate practice. Observational data provides information regarding the level of difference between the participating teachers. Observations in the classrooms supported the self-described teaching styles. Developmentally appropriate teachers were observed to utilize both whole-group and small-group instruction, while developmentally inappropriate teachers leaned more toward whole-group only activities. In addition, room displays were more child-centered in the DAP classrooms, with the majority of presentations being children's work. In contrast, the DIP classrooms tended to utilize commercially prepared bulletin board materials and did not encourage student interaction with the displays.

During interviews the participating teachers were asked two basic questions: (1) How would you describe your teaching style? and, (2) What action do you take when students are engaged in a quarrel?

Developmentally appropriate teachers were similar in their responses describing their teaching style. They indicated a haphazard or loose organization within the classroom environment and encouraged student mobility and collaboration. They also expressed the incorporation of

manipulative materials, hands-on learning, and small-group work into their preferred instructional style. Developmentally inappropriate teachers were less specific in describing personal teaching styles. One developmentally inappropriate teacher considered herself to be flexible, while the other reported a very structured style of teaching. When asked about quarreling students, the approaches used by the teachers who had been classified as developmentally appropriate radically differed from those expressed by those classified as developmentally inappropriate. Both developmentally appropriate teachers encouraged students to settle differences themselves as a first strategy and intervened only when students were not successful. One developmentally appropriate teacher made specific mention of parental notification in the event of repetitive conflicts, and the other developmentally appropriate teacher mentioned the utilization of behavior logs to provide specific documentation and information in continued situations. One developmentally inappropriate teacher indicated she would immediately intervene in the conflict and settle it for the children. The other developmentally inappropriate teacher indicated gender of the quarreling parties influenced her action. She reported that she typically let boys work things out themselves, but that she intervened in quarrels between girls because she didn't think they could resolve differences on their own.

Both the observations and interviews provided verification of the

curricular practices in place in each teacher's classroom, and the majority of observations were consistent with descriptions of developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate classrooms environments found in the research literature.

Social Behavior Ratings

Social Skills Rating System

The Social Skills Rating System (SSRS; Gresham & Elliott, 1990) was used to measure social skills of students and was administered to both teachers and students.

Teachers. The social skills portion of the scale consists of questions describing such behaviors as cooperation, assertion, empathy and self-control. Because these behaviors are social skills that are given considerable attention in the literature (Bredekamp & Copple, 1997; Johnson 1991; Katz & McClellan 1997; Sylvester, 1995), this instrument was appropriate for this study. The SSRS asks teachers to rate the importance of the items described and their perceptions concerning the frequency with which the child exhibits the particular behavior described, resulting in scores for both importance and frequency. Only the frequency score was of interest in this study. The instrument uses a three-point rating scale of 0-2 for the Social Skills Subscale. (A score of 0 indicates that a particular behavior never occurs in the target child. A rating of 1 means that a particular behavior occurs sometimes and a rating of 2 indicates that

a behavior occurs very often.) The subscales on the teacher form of the SSRS measured the specific behaviors of cooperation, assertion, and self-control. The item scores were summed to determine subscale scores. The total score, calculated by summing subscales, was then converted to a standard score. This total score represents a teacher's perceptions of children's prosocial behaviors.

The Problem Behaviors Scale of the SSRS was used to measure the antisocial behaviors of students and was designed to be completed by the teachers only. The problem behaviors portion of the scale consists of questions measuring problem externalization, problem internalization, and hyperactivity. Scoring is the same as the scoring on the Social Skills Subscale (Likert Scale 0, 1, 2). The externalizing problems subscale of the instrument addresses inappropriate behaviors including verbal or physical aggression, poor temper control, and argumentativeness, while the internalizing problems subscale addresses behaviors indicative of anxiety, sadness, loneliness, and poor self-esteem. The hyperactivity subscale addresses behaviors including excessive movement, being fidgety, and being impulsive. Utilization of this scale was appropriate because the questions are aligned with the antisocial behaviors of primary concern in the present study including aggression, impulsivity, and lack of self-control. The examination of antisocial behaviors was enhanced by specific problem behaviors addressed matching those most commonly mentioned in

the literature base. The item scores were summed to determine subscale scores. The total score was calculated by summing subscales and then was converted to a standard score. This total score represents teacher's perceptions of the children's problem behaviors.

Students. Crick and Ladd (1993) suggest the importance of gathering assessments from students regarding their own social adjustment as opposed to only relying on assessments from peers, parents, caregivers or teachers in order to have a wider base of perspectives with respect to social skill development. Therefore, students completed the student form of the SSRS. The student form focuses only on frequency of behaviors and uses a Likert Scale similar to the teacher form of the instrument (scored 0-2). The items measure behaviors such as cooperation, assertion, empathy, and self-control. Items were summed to obtain subscale scores, and conversions to a standard score were accomplished in a manner identical to the teacher form.

Gresham and Elliott (1990) state that the SSRS has strong reliability and validity characteristics on the teacher form of the instrument reporting test-retest reliability coefficients ranging from .75 to .88 on the teacher form of the Social Skills Subscale and .76 to .84 on the Problem Behaviors Subscale. The range for the student form of the Social Skills Subscale was .52 to .66 which is not as strong, but the authors maintain that this range is adequate. There is not a Problem Behaviors Subscale for student self report

with the SSRS. Across all forms of the test, the median coefficient alpha reliability for the Social Skills Subscale was .90.

Gresham and Elliott (1990) further suggest that since multiple validation strategies were employed, evidence exists for the SSRS to be considered a valid measure of children's social development. Content validity was established by having experienced researchers contribute to a pool of items. Following this, teachers, parents, and students rated the importance of these items, and these ratings were used to determine which items were included on the SSRS. The instrument is designed to be used by teacher-raters who are familiar with the child's behavior within a particular context enabling the investigator to gain a broader picture of the child.

Demographic Information

Parents. A demographic questionnaire, Teaching Practices and Social Behaviors In Young Children Parent Questionnaire, designed for this study was administered to the parent-participants in order to gain information regarding both parents and children. Information such as income, parental age, occupation, and educational level was gathered about the parents. In order to identify socioeconomic status, the guidelines presented by Entwisle and Astone (1994) were followed. These guidelines were developed by the authors in order to provide researchers with a measure to best determine how to assign socioeconomic status. Questions about the children focused

on the child's birth order in the family, prior school experience, age, gender, and ethnicity. (A copy of this instrument is located in Appendix B.)

Teachers. A demographic questionnaire designed by the researcher was administered to the teacher-participants in the study. The questionnaire, Teaching Practices and Social Behaviors In Young Children Teacher Questionnaire, requested general information including teaching experience, educational background, memberships in professional organizations, and teaching certifications, as well as information regarding age, marital status, and income. Other questions focused around the philosophy of teaching of the teacher and the support of early childhood practices in the school setting. (A copy of this questionnaire is located in Appendix B.)

Child-Rearing Attitudes

The Parental Modernity (PM) Scale (Schaefer & Edgerton, 1985) was used to characterize the child-rearing style espoused by parents. This 30-item inventory measures parental beliefs, including traditional beliefs and progressive beliefs. A total score describing traditional childrearing beliefs (traditional items reversed scored) was used. This score was successfully used by the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD) Study of Early Child Care Team (1996). Schaefer and Edgerton (1985) suggest that parental child-rearing attitudes are related to both a young child's motivation for learning and for the child's

academic achievement. On the other hand, these researchers suggest that parental child-rearing beliefs ordinarily hold low and insignificant, yet positive correlations with the social and emotional behaviors of consideration and extroversion of the child in the classroom setting. Insignificant correlations with social-emotional adjustment were noted. However, for the purposes of this study the instrument was useful in describing parental childrearing attitudes and gives information on the familial environment the child experiences outside of school prior to third grade.

The authors state that the instrument holds equal validity for mothers and fathers. High internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha = .90) was reported in the NICHD Study (1996).

Procedure

Participants were recruited from schools in central Oklahoma. The schools were randomly selected from a list of 25 principals known to the researcher. Initially, three superintendents were contacted for permission to observe in their respective school districts. Two of the superintendents gave written permission for the study while one declined. Following the obtaining of the permission from the superintendents, two principals were contacted for permission to include the third grade teachers employed at their school sites and their students in this study. The principals were asked a series of questions in an initial attempt to identify teachers with varying

teaching practices. The questions focused on whether or not the teachers engaged in thematic teaching projects, used learning centers, or used manipulatives on a regular basis. These questions proved helpful in locating the teachers with developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate classroom environments. One developmentally appropriate and one developmentally inappropriate teacher were identified at each site.

The schools included in the study were representative of both small and large school environments. Two of the teachers worked in a small school districts, while two of the teachers worked in larger school environments. These teachers were contacted personally to explain the study to them and informed consent was obtained prior to data collection. (Samples of the letters and informed consent forms sent to the participants are in Appendix C.) Verification of the teachers' practices occurred through classroom observation by the researcher using the CPI+, A Rubric to Evaluate Constructivist Teaching, author notations and interviews. The teachers whose curricular practices were verified and deemed developmentally appropriate or developmentally inappropriate were asked to participate in the remainder of the study. Then the parents of all students in the classrooms of the four teachers were sent a letter explaining the study and requesting written consent for their own participation in the study, as well as written consent from their child. Additionally, the parents were asked to fill out a demographic questionnaire and the Parental

Modernity (PM) Scale (Schaefer & Edgerton, 1985). The participants were asked to return the information to the classroom teacher in sealed envelopes for the researcher to pick up. (The sample letters and informed consent forms can be located in Appendix C.) After the consent forms were collected from the teachers and the parents, the teachers completed the SSRS on all of the children in their classrooms for whom informed consent had been obtained. Complementary to the teacher report was the student self-report portion of this instrument, and the participating students in the classrooms of the four teachers completed that portion.

Design

This study was designed to determine if significant differences exist in the prosocial and antisocial behaviors of students in developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate classroom environments. Data were analyzed using analysis of variance (ANOVA) and analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) to examine differences in social behavior in children enrolled in classrooms using either developmentally appropriate practices or developmentally inappropriate practices.

CHAPTER 4

Results

Introduction

This study was designed to explore the relationship between the social behaviors of third grade students and the developmentally appropriate practices of their teachers. Data were analyzed in three phases: the computation of descriptive statistics for both teacher and parent/family characteristics; correlational analyses to determine the best predictors of social behavior; and the calculation of analysis of variance (ANOVA) and analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) to examine differences in social behavior of children enrolled in classrooms utilizing developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate classroom practice.

Descriptive Statistics

Teacher Characteristics

Four teachers participated in the study. Through the use of principal nomination and researcher verification, the teachers were divided into those demonstrating developmentally appropriate practice (DAP) and developmentally inappropriate practice (DIP). (See Chapter 3 for a description of teacher selection.) Reported age of teacher participants ranged from 24 to 43, and all teacher participants reported Caucasian ethnicity. All participating teachers reported their salaries to be within the salary range category of $24,060 to $29,040. Three teachers reported

overall household incomes in the $40,000 to $50,000 category, and the remaining teacher indicated the $50,001 to $60,000 category for household income. Three of the four teachers were married; the remaining teacher was single.

By statutory requirement, a baccalaureate degree is required for teacher certification, and all teachers had achieved that level of academic preparation. Three of the four participating teachers, both developmentally appropriate teachers and one developmentally inappropriate teacher, exceeded the minimal education requirement and had completed masters degrees. Both developmentally inappropriate teachers and one developmentally appropriate teacher reported undergraduate majors in Elementary Education, and the remaining developmentally appropriate teacher reported a double major in Early Childhood Education/Elementary Education. Teachers providing instruction to students in third grade are required to hold certification in either Elementary Education (grades 1-8) or Early Childhood Education (grades pre k-3). One developmentally inappropriate teacher and one developmentally appropriate teacher reported dual certification in Early Childhood Education and Elementary Education.The developmentally appropriate teacher with dual certification also reported the double undergraduate major. The other two participating teachers reported certification in Elementary Education.

All participating teachers had at least three years of teaching

experience. The two teachers with the most teaching experience, ten and fifteen years, were those who exhibited developmentally appropriate classroom practice. The teachers demonstrating developmentally inappropriate classroom practice reported three and seven years teaching experience.Three of the four participating teachers, one developmentally appropriate and both developmentally inappropriate, reported their teaching experience to be exclusively with third grade students. The remaining developmentally appropriate teacher reported experience teaching first grade, transitional first, Title I, and middle school mathematics. None of the participating teachers were new to their building sites. Developmentally appropriate teachers reported site longevity of ten and thirteen years, while developmentally inappropriate teachers reported longevity of three and seven years.

Three of the four participating teachers, both developmentally inappropriate and one developmentally appropriate, reported similar professional development experiences. These three teachers reported attending two or fewer professional development workshops pertaining to early childhood education, two or fewer professional conferences during their careers, and did not report membership in any professional organizations. In contrast, the remaining developmentally appropriate teacher reported high levels of professional involvement, including 25 workshops and 45 professional conferences related to early childhood

education, and membership in the National Education Association and its state affiliate.

Class sizes for all teachers were similar, with both developmentally appropriate teachers and one developmentally inappropriate teacher reporting class sizes of 20, and the remaining developmentally inappropriate teacher indicating a class size of 21 students. Participating teachers rated three aspects of their professional environment: philosophical similarity with colleagues; administrator support, and school and environmental support. Developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate teachers reported similar ratings for each of the three aspects. Teachers reported a high degree of philosophical similarity with colleagues. On a scale of "1" (Not Close at All) to "5" (Almost the Same), three of the four teachers, both developmentally inappropriate and one developmentally appropriate, rated philosophical agreement with colleagues to be a "4," and the remaining teacher reported a "3" (Neutral). Developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate teachers reported similar levels of perceived administrator support. On a scale of "1" (Very Non-Supportive) to "5" (Very Supportive), the developmentally inappropriate teachers reported support levels of "4" and "5," while the developmentally appropriate teachers reported support levels of "3" and "4." Overall, school and environmental support, including materials and space, was judged supportive of early

childhood practice. Both developmentally inappropriate teachers and one developmentally appropriate teacher reported support levels of "4" (Well-Supported), and the remaining developmentally appropriate teacher reported a support level of "3" (Neutral).

Parent/Family Characteristics

Children. Forty-seven third grade students participated in the study. Based on the classroom practices of their teachers, children were considered to be in a developmentally appropriate (DAP) or developmentally inappropriate (DIP) group. The developmentally appropriate group had 18 participating children, while the developmentally inappropriate group had 29 children.

As reported in Table 1, mean age of participating children was 9 years 4 months (SD=6.3 months), with children ranging from 8 years 3 months to 10 years 5 months. Mean age for children in the developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate groups was similar. Developmentally appropriate mean age was 9 years 3 months (SD=6.3 months) and the developmentally inappropriate group was 9 years 4 months (SD=6.4 months). A t-test did not indicate significant differences between the developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate groups with respect to children's age.

Of the 47 participating children, 24 (51.06%) were male and 23 (48.93%) were female. Gender representation in the developmentally

Table 1

Family Characteristics Group Comparison Means (N = 47)

Family Characteristics	Total	DAP	DIP
	Mean	Mean	Mean
Child's Age	9.4	9.3	9.4
Number of Children in Home	2.45	2.44	2.45
Father's Age	38.1	35.6	39.6
Mother's Age	35.7	34.5	36.4
Father's Education	13.5	14.1	13.1
Mother's Education	13.8	14.5	13.4

appropriate and developmentally inappropriate groups was approximately even, with 9 males (50%) and 9 females (50%) in the developmentally appropriate group, and 15 (51.7%) males and 14 (48.3%) females in the developmentally inappropriate group. Chi-square analysis did not indicate a significant difference in gender representation between the developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate groups.

Reported ethnicity of participating children was predominately Caucasian (78.7%). Ten of the 47 students reported minority heritage.

Minority heritage included individuals identifying themselves as African American, Asian, Hispanic, or Native American. Caucasian predominance was also present in both the developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate groups, with 72.2% and 82.8% respectively. Chi-square analysis did not indicate a significant difference between the developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate groups with respect to ethnicity.

Because there is the potential for a cumulative effect of educational experiences over an individual's academic career, parents were asked to provide information regarding their children's educational experiences during the previous academic year in order to ascertain the developmental appropriateness of previous instruction. Using a three point scale, in which "1" represented "Seldom," "2" represented "Sometimes," and "3" represented "Often," parents were queried regarding the use of five instructional strategies.

Two of the five practices were considered to be developmentally inappropriate: teacher plans activities without children's input and use of workbooks. The remaining practices were considered to be reflective of developmentally appropriate practice and included: use of journals, use of learning centers, and use of small groups. The most frequently used instructional practice was the use of workbooks. Means and standard deviations for the five practices are presented in Table 2. T-tests did not

Table 2

Students' Previous Educational Experiences

	Total		DAP		DIP	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Plan	2.22	.77	2.40	.16	2.11	.80
Workbook	2.72	.58	2.72	.67	2.72	.53
Journal	2.00	.86	2.06	.87	1.97	.87
Centers	2.22	.81	2.17	.86	2.25	.80
Groups	2.11	.57	2.06	.64	2.14	.53

indicate a significant difference in any of the five areas between the developmentally inappropriate and developmentally appropriate groups, suggesting that the students had similar previous educational experiences.

Family characteristics. Reported mean age for the fathers of children participating in the study was 38 years (SD=10 years), with the developmentally appropriate group mean being 36 years (SD=6 years) and the developmentally inappropriate group mean being 40 years (SD=11 years). Reported mean age for the mothers of children participating in the study was 36 years (SD=7 years). Mean age for mothers of children in the developmentally appropriate group was 35 years (SD=6 years), while mean

age for mothers of children in the developmentally inappropriate group was 36 years (SD=7 years). T-tests did not indicate significant differences between the developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate groups with respect to either mother's age or father's age.

The majority (80.9%, N=38)) of children participating in the study lived in two-parent homes, while the remainder lived in single-parent environments. Two-parent homes were reported for 12 (66.7%) children in the developmentally appropriate group and 26 (86.7%) children in the developmentally inappropriate group. Chi-square analysis did not indicate a significant difference between the frequencies of family configurations in the developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate groups.

Mean number of children in the home was 2.45 (SD=1.10). Developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate group means were similar, 2.44 (SD=.92) and 2.45 (SD=1.21) respectively. A t-test did not indicate significant differences between the developmentally inappropriate and developmentally appropriate groups with respect to the number of children living in the home.

Education completed by parents of children in the study was also similar across groups, although parents of children in the developmentally appropriate group had completed slightly more schooling. Overall, fathers had completed an average of 13.48 (SD=3.19) years of schooling, while

mothers had completed an average of 13.83 (SD=2.13) years. Fathers of children in the developmentally appropriate group completed 14.12 (SD=3.14) years of school, while fathers of children in the developmentally inappropriate group completed 13.10 (SD=3.21) years. Mothers of children in the developmentally appropriate group completed 14.53 (SD=2.04) years of school, while mothers of children in the developmentally inappropriate group completed 13.41 (SD=2.11) years of school. T-tests did not indicate significant differences between the developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate groups with respect to either mothers' or fathers' educational attainment.

Forty (88.9%) of the fathers and 36 (78.3%) of the mothers were employed outside the home. Fathers reported a wider variety of employment types, with the most frequently occurring job descriptions being: technical (34.1%, n=14); precision products (22.0%, n=9), and operators (19.5%, n=6). Fathers of children in the developmentally appropriate group were most frequently in technical positions, while fathers of children in the developmentally inappropriate groups were more frequently in precision production or operators.

The majority of mothers reported employment in the technical category (54.1%, n=20), with the next most common category being managerial (29.7%, n=11). All mothers of children in the developmentally appropriate group reported employment in the managerial or technical

categories, and these were the most frequently occurring employment categories for mothers in the developmentally inappropriate group as well.

Parents reported familial income in categories ranging from "less than $15,000" to "more than $105,000." Mean income level of families participating in the study was $35,001 to $45,000. Median income level of families participating in the study was $25,001 to $35,000, with both developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate groups. Modal income level was $15,001 to $25,000. Mean, median, and modal levels of income for both the developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate groups were identical to those of the overall group. Chi-square analysis did not indicate differences between the developmentally inappropriate and developmentally appropriate groups with respect to income level.

Because research literature also suggests home environment plays a role in the development of social behaviors, parents were asked to complete the Parental Modernity Scale to examine their beliefs concerning parenting practices. Scores on the Parental Modernity Scale were based on 30 Likert-type items on a 1-5 point scale. After reverse scoring items reflecting more traditional (authoritarian) parenting practices, a Parental Modernity score with a potential range of 30 to 150 was derived. Higher scores on this scale indicated inclinations toward more authoritative parenting beliefs and practices. Overall, the mean item scores on the Parental Modernity Scale

were 3.3 (SD=.59), with developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate group item means being 3.2 (SD=.50) and 3.4 (SD=4.7) respectively. This indicates an average response between not sure and moderately agree. Thus, most parents were mid-range between traditional and progressive parenting practices. A t-test did not indicate significant differences between the developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate groups with respect to Parental Modernity.

Children's Social Behaviors

Teacher ratings. The SSRS was utilized to obtain information with respect to the teachers' perceptions of the frequency and importance of behaviors reflecting the student's development of social competence. The teacher form of this instrument for the Elementary Level contains subscales for Social Skills, Problem Behaviors, and Academic Competence. For purposes of this study, only the Social Skills and Problem Behaviors subscales were used.The Social Skills subscale of the SSRS has 30 items divided among the areas of Cooperation, Assertion, and Self Control. The Problem Behaviors subscale of the SSRS has 18 items divided among Externalizing, Internalizing, and Hyperactivity. Table 3 reports standard score means and standard deviations for the SSRS.

Student ratings. All children participating in the study completed the student form of the SSRS, which measures students' perceptions regarding

Table 3

SSRS Standard Score Means and Standard Deviations (SD)

	Total Mean	DAP Mean	DIP Mean
Teacher Social Skills	101.51	97.61	102.65
	(15.53)	(17.02)	(13.67)
Teacher Problem Behaviors	98.0	97.28	98.44
	(13.90)	(13.22)	(14.53)
Student Social Skills	107.51	109.94	106.0
	(15.52)	(15.39)	(15.69)

their own social competence and skill development. The student form of this instrument contains one scale, the Social Skills scale, which is similar to that found on the teacher form of the instrument. A noted exception is the addition of items designed to measure Empathy. Table 3 reports standard score means and standard deviations for the student form of the SSRS.

Correlational Analyses

Correlations for the total sample were calculated between parent and

family characteristics and children's social behavior in order to explore a variety of relationships. DIP and DAP groups were pooled based on the nonsignificant t-test results for family characteristics reported earlier. (See Table 4). Teachers' ratings on the Social Skills and Problem Behaviors subscales on the teacher form of the SSRS and the children's ratings of Social Skills on the student form of the SSRS were correlated with children's age, mother's age, father's age, mother's educational level, father's educational level, and parental modernity.

Teacher's Social Skills ratings had a statistically significant positive correlation with mother's educational level, and parental modernity, indicating that teachers gave higher social skills ratings to student's whose mothers had more education and whose parents expressed more authoritative parenting beliefs. Teachers' Problem Behaviors ratings had a statistically significant negative correlation with educational level of mothers and parental modernity, indicating teachers rated students as demonstrating more problem behaviors when their mothers had lower levels of educational attainment and their parent expressed less authoritative parenting beliefs. Parental modernity was the strongest correlate of social skills ratings. Student's ratings of Social Skills had a statistically significant positive correlation with father's educational level, indicating students gave themselves higher ratings in social skill development the more education their fathers had completed.

Table 4

Correlations Between Behavior Subscales and Family Characteristics (N = 47)

Family Characteristics	Teachers' Social Skills	Teachers' Problem Behaviors	Students' Social Skills
Child's Age	-.01	.02	-.19
Mother's Age	.06	-.02	.00
Father's Age	-.09	.15	-.17
Father's Education	.26	-.27	.36*
Mother's Education	.39*	-.42*	.10
Modernity	.63*	-.46*	.28

* $p<.05$

Correlations between social skills ratings and student's previous educational experiences were also calculated. (See Table 5). Teachers' ratings on the Social Skills and Problem Behaviors subscales on the SSRS

Table 5

Correlations Between Previous Educational Experience and Ratings of Social Behaviors (N = 47)

Educational Experience	Teachers' Social Skills	Teachers' Problem Behaviors	Students' Social Skills
Planning	-.10	.09	-.16
Journals	.00	.04	-.08
Workbooks	-.31*	.22	-.09
Centers	.16	.06	.04
Groups	.03	.12	.33*

* $p<.05$

were correlated with the use of journals, use of workbooks, teacher planning using student input, use of learning centers, and use of small groups. Use of workbooks had a significant negative correlation with the Social Skills subscale, indicating that teachers rated students' social behaviors higher the less exposure to workbooks the students had previously had. No previous educational experience indicators were significantly correlated with the Problem Behaviors subscale.

Student ratings on the Social Skills subscale of the student form of the

SSRS were also correlated with the previous educational experience indicators. The use of groups was a statistically significant positive correlate, indicating students who had more previous experience with small groups gave higher social skills ratings.

Intercorrelation coefficients were calculated to examine the relationships between the three measures of social skills behavior used in this study. (See Table 5.) Teachers' Social Skills ratings had a statistically significant positive correlation with the Students' Social Skills ratings, while the Teachers' Problem Behaviors ratings had statistically significant negative correlations with both the teachers' and students' social skills ratings. This indicates both teachers and students gave higher ratings of social skill development to the same students and that students who were considered to have high levels of Problem Behaviors tended to get lower ratings of social competence by both teachers and students.

Analysis of Covariance and Analysis of Variance

Analysis of covariance equations were calculated to examine differences between the developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate groups with respect to teacher ratings of children's Social Skills and Problem Behaviors. Because Parental Modernity was the strongest family correlate for each of these ratings, it was utilized as the covariate. Controlling for parental beliefs about guidance, no significant differences were found in children's behaviors between the

Table 6

Intercorrelations of Social Behavior Rankings

	Teachers' Social Skills	Teachers' Problem Behaviors	Students' Social Skills
T. SS	-	-.86***	.39**
T. PB	-.86***	-	-.33**
Stu. SS	.39**	-.33*	-

* p<.05 ** p<.01 *** p<.001

developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate groups. (See Table 7)

Table 7

Analysis of Covariance for Teacher Ratings of Social Skills and Problem Behaviors

	Total Mean	DAP Mean	DIP Mean	df	F
Teachers' Social Skills	101.51	97.61	102.65	1,43	.15
	(15.53)	(17.02)	(13.67)		
Teachers' Problem	98.0	97.28	98.44	1,43	.33
Behaviors	(13.90)	(13.22)	(14.53)		

Analysis of variance equations were calculated to examine differences between DAP and DIP groups with respect to student ratings of Social Skills on the student form of the SSRS. No significant differences were found between groups (See Table 8).

Table 8

Analysis of Variance for Student Ratings of Social Skills

	Total Mean	DAP Mean	DIP Mean	df	F
Students' Social Skills	107.51 (15.52)	109.94 (15.39)	106.0 (15.69)	1,45	.58

CHAPTER 5

Discussion

Introduction

This study investigated the relationship between the social behaviors of third grade students and the developmental appropriateness of the classroom practices of their teachers. Donohue and colleagues (2000) report that while the social development of young children is known to be important during the early school years, research studies have centered around academic outcomes of instructional practices rather than on social outcomes. This research project was designed to focus on classroom environments that were representative of varying instructional practices in order to explore the relationship of those environments with children's social behaviors.

Teacher Selection

The selection process of the teacher participants involved principal nomination during an interview by the researcher. Nominations were then verified by researcher observations and interviews with teacher participants, as well as utilizing both the Classroom Practices Inventory Plus (Schaefer & Edgerton, 1985) and the Rubric To Evaluate Constructivist Teaching (Stork & Engel, 1999). These instruments allowed the observer to focus on the instructional environment. Attention was given to the presence or absence of specific instructional strategies, including but

not limited to whole-group instruction, use of workbooks and worksheets, small-group instruction, learning centers, and journal writing. This triangulated approach of interviews, structured observations, and open-ended observations to classifying participating teachers provided a confident categorization of teachers. The Louisiana State University longitudinal study by Charlesworth et al. (1993) relied on teacher self-report of practices. This research study provides an additional dimension for confirmation of the curricular practices utilized by teachers through the use of a triangulated approach.

Teacher Characteristics

Due to the limited sample size, generalizations regarding specific teacher characteristics, such as teacher income, age, ethnicity, gender, and their relationships to developmentally appropriate practice cannot be reasonably made. Demographic characteristics were similar for the developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate teachers.

The more veteran teachers, with respect to teaching experience, were more developmentally appropriate in their instruction in contrast to findings reported by Buchanan et al. (1998). Ironically, age delineations did not follow a similar pattern in that the youngest and oldest teachers were those demonstrating developmentally inappropriate practice.

Family Characteristics

In a manner similar to that of teacher participants, student

participants in this study were also homogeneous in most demographic categories. The group overall, as well as with both the developmentally appropriate and the developmentally inappropriate groups, was primarily Caucasian, evenly divided with respect to gender, and similar in age. Family composition across the groups was also similar, with the majority of student participants living in two-parent homes.

Parenting beliefs were correlated with teacher estimates of students' prosocial behaviors and negatively correlated with teacher estimates of problem behaviors. Earlier studies support the importance of the relationship between parenting behaviors and social outcomes of children (Baumrind, 1967; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Yarrow, Waxler, & Scott, 1971). This work by the above scholars indicates that when the parental style is authoritative, the children are more inclined to demonstrate prosocial behaviors. Conversely, if the parental style is authoritarian, children are likely to demonstrate antisocial behaviors. Thus, the findings regarding children's social behaviors and parents' beliefs about guidance are consistent with previous work.

Bandura (1986) also addresses the significance that the modeling of behaviors holds for children's social outcomes. Social learning theory posits that children who view positive demonstrations of behaviors are typically more positive in their own behaviors. On the other hand, when children view negative behaviors, those modeled behaviors can lead to

demonstrations of antisocial behaviors in children. Assuming parental practices are consistent with the beliefs they expressed here, the positive correlation between parental modernity and prosocial behaviors of children supports a link between modeled behavior and social outcomes.

Previous Educational Experience

Five areas of children's previous educational experience were examined by asking parents to recall their child's learning experiences the prior academic year. Areas addressed were: use of workbooks, use of learning centers, use of small-group instruction, journal writing, and teacher planning practices. All students, regardless of group assignment in the present study, had similar educational experiences related to the aforementioned teaching practices. Utilization of workbooks was the most frequently used practice.

The effect of past experiences is difficult to establish. Because it relies both on parent report and recall, these data may not accurately represent children's actual experiences. Reporting was done approximately 9-10 months after the end of the previous year, possibly affecting the accuracy of recall; therefore, time and subsequent experiences may have clouded parental recall. In addition, parents are likely to be inexperienced in both analyzing educational practice and with engaging in reflection on teaching practices. These factors may have had an impact on the ability of the parents to accurately report the past educational experiences of their

children. In any case, the measure of previous educational experience was not sensitive enough to capture any potential effects.

Social Skills

Three measures of social skills were used in this study. The three measures from the Social Skills Rating System (Gresham & Elliott, 1990) included the teachers' report of Social Skills and Problem Behaviors, and the students' report of Social Skills. Because social behaviors are central to the overall purpose of the study, these scale scores were used in a variety of analyses.

The primary research question probed the relationship between social behaviors and developmentally appropriate classroom practice. While several studies have found that children experiencing more developmentally appropriate classrooms demonstrate more positive social skills, (Mantzicopoulos et al.,1994; Marcon, 1992; Stipek, 1993), the findings of this study did not support those earlier studies. Neither teacher nor student perceptions of social behaviors were significantly different across the developmentally appropriate and the developmentally inappropriate groups, indicating that current placement in a developmentally appropriate or developmentally inappropriate third grade classroom was not related to current reports of social behaviors.

Both Social Skills measures were correlated with previous educational experiences. The use of workbooks was negatively correlated

with teacher estimates, while use of small groups was positively correlated with student estimates. It could be when workbooks are used extensively, students have limited opportunities to engage in peer interactions which promote prosocial behaviors. This suggests that students working in groups have more opportunities to learn skills of cooperation which may enhance prosocial behaviors. However, making any firm conclusions based on these data is unwise since the results could be spurious given the number of correlations computed.

Limitations

The primary limitation of this study is the small sample size of both teacher participants and student participants. The limited sample size affected the overall statistical power of data analyses and limited both the scope and depth of analyses because of the small cell sizes. Differentiation by gender, ethnicity and socioeconomic status and other demographic variables was not statistically sound given the overall number of participants. Thus, limited sample size affected the available analysis options. Related limitations were noted in homogeneity of ethnicity, family characteristics, and the range of observed developmentally appropriate practice. It is possible that significant differences in social behaviors between the developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate groups could have been revealed if the practices of the participating teachers had been more divergent. It is also possible that by

third grade the variations of developmentally appropriate practices and developmentally inappropriate practices are more subtle. By third grade, children are more able to engage in instructional practices that are characteristically more traditional. For instance, third grade students are more able to engage in independent work in the classroom environment. Therefore, they might engage in a variety of paper-pencil tasks. While some activities may be developmentally appropriate and some may be developmentally inappropriate, the observation tools used here do not provide a sensitive enough discrimination of developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate practices.

Conclusions and Implications

The research question examined in this study was: Do significant differences exist in the prosocial and antisocial behaviors of children in developmentally appropriate and developmentally inappropriate classroom environments? Anticipated outcomes of this study were that children experiencing developmentally appropriate classroom environments would demonstrate more prosocial behaviors than those children experiencing developmentally inappropriate classroom environments.

However, the findings of this study did not reveal a relationship between the developmental appropriateness of classroom instruction and the social behaviors of the third grade student participants. Although the findings of this study were not as anticipated, it did provide affirmation of

the procedural aspects associated with teacher classifications. Several conclusions can be gleaned that will be beneficial in moving beyond this study's small scale to a larger, more definitive project. From the present study, a variety of conclusions can be reached:

1. The target probes regarding teaching practices used during the principal interview process are an effective and accurate screening mechanism for classifying teachers as developmentally appropriate or developmentally inappropriate in their classroom practices. Probes referred to prevalence of small-group and whole-group instruction, learning centers, and reliance on paper-pencil tasks. An implication of this is that classification processes could be accomplished more rapidly in a larger study by first asking principals to describe specific classroom practices of teachers under their supervision. Rather than using random selection and conducting a large number of teacher observations, the principal would be useful in narrowing down the pool of potential participants.

2. The mutually complementary data structure involving interviews, open-ended observations, and structured observations related to teacher classroom practice provides layers of richness and detail to support the principal interview process as well as support validation of The Rubric to Evaluate Constructivist Teaching (1999). The Rubric was designed as a measure to help administrators and teachers evaluate constructivist teaching

practices. This study demonstrated that the Rubric can be used reliably and suggests that it can be a useful tool for both practitioners and researchers.

3. Although the sample size of participating teachers was severely limited, in this study the more veteran teachers demonstrated developmentally appropriate practices. This raises the question of whether or not teachers with successful longevity have the capacity to better recognize and adapt to the unique needs of individual learners. In this study, more recent graduates of teacher preparation programs did not demonstrate the same level of developmentally appropriate practice. While no firm conclusions can be drawn from this study, the findings do suggest the need for more exploration into the relationship between teacher preparation and experience in the demonstration of developmentally appropriate classroom practice.

4. Professional development experiences appeared to be lacking with most of the teacher participants, suggesting a variety of implications. For instance, the teachers may not perceive the value of such activities, may not have financial or administrative support for such development, or may not have convenient opportunities for participation. Further investigation of influences on professional development participation would be beneficial for those professionals involved in planning effective professional development opportunities for classroom teachers.

5. Parenting practices and home environment were related to

children's social behaviors. Authoritative parenting is consistent with many of the characteristics commonly associated with developmentally appropriate classroom instructional practices. Of specific note is the incorporation of child input in the decision making process, inquiry, and the role of discussion. Future research should examine the relationship between parenting practices and specific aspects of social behaviors. This exploration in combination with developmentally appropriate classroom practices should be considered.

6. Another implication is that more specific ways to assess developmentally appropriate practice with older students is needed. As noted earlier, within the upper range of early childhood students, it is more difficult to ascertain the developmental appropriateness of instructional practices. Rather than just making gross characterizations of whether or not an activity is developmentally appropriate or developmentally inappropriate, it is important to be able to make more specific determinations. For example, it would be informative to be able to know if a specific paper-pencil task was a developmentally appropriate activity for the students.

7. In the present study, children's previous educational experience had a limited relationship to their social behaviors. However, potential inaccuracy of parental report may have masked a more pronounced relationship. A potentially more reliable option would be to include

self-reporting by students of past educational experiences. Future research should attempt to incorporate a more reliable collection mechanism as well as expanded queries related to all years of previous education in order to provide greater detail to professionals and parents alike who share the responsibility for understanding the depth of social behaviors of young children.

This study suggests that unanswered questions still remain regarding the relationships of social behaviors and developmentally appropriate practice, and future research projects should examine the potentially critical relationships between instructional practices and the social behaviors of students.

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Appendix A

CLASSROOM PRACTICES INVENTORY PLUS

Site: Teacher/Grade:

Observer: Time Obs.: from to

Inventory of Classroom Practices

Rating Scale:
1 = Not at all like this classroom
2 = Very little like this classroom
3 = Somewhat like this classroom
4 = Much like this classroom
5 = Very much like this classroom

Items

Part 1: Program/Activity Focus

1. Children select their own activities from among a variety of learning areas the teacher prepares, including dramatic play, blocks, science, math, games and puzzles, books, recordings, art, and music.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Large group, teacher-directed instruction is used most of the time. Children are doing the same things at the same time.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Children are involved in concrete, three-dimensional learning activities, with materials closely related to children's daily life experiences.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The teacher tells the children exactly what they will do and when. The teacher expects the children to follow her plans.	1	2	3	4	5

5. Children are physically active in the classroom, choosing from activities the teacher has set up and spontaneously initiating many of their own activities.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Children work individually or in small, child-chosen groups most of the time. Different children are doing different things.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Children use workbooks, ditto sheets, flashcards, and other abstract or two-dimensional learning materials.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Teachers ask questions which encourage children to give more than one right answer.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Teachers expect children to sit down, watch, be quiet, and listen, or do paper and pencil tasks for major periods of time.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Reading and writing instruction emphasizes direct teaching of letter recognition, reciting the alphabet, coloring within the lines, and being instructed in the correct formation of letters.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Teachers use activities such as block building, measuring ingredients for cooking, woodworking, and drawing to help children learn concepts in math, science, and social studies.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Children have planned lessons in writing with pencils, coloring predrawn forms, tracing, or correct use of scissors.	1	2	3	4	5

13. Children use a variety of art media, including easel and finger painting, and clay, in ways of their choosing.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Teachers expect children to respond correctly with one right answer. Memorization and drill are emphasized.	1	2	3	4	5
15. When teachers try to get children involved in activities, they do so by stimulating children's natural curiosity and interest.	1	2	3	4	5
16. The classroom environment encourages children to listen to and read stories, dictate stories, notice print in use in the classroom, engage in dramatic play, experiment with writing by drawing, copying, and inventing their own spelling.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Art projects involve copying an adult-made model, coloring predrawn forms, finishing a project the teacher has started, or following other adult directions.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Separate times of periods are set aside to learn material in specific content areas such as math, science, or social studies.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Children have daily opportunities to use pegboards, puzzles, legos, markers, scissors, other similar materials in ways the children choose.	1	2	3	4	5

20. When teachers try to get children involved in activities, they do so by requiring their participation, giving rewards, disapproving of failure to participate, etc.	1	2	3	4	5
21. There are many opportunities for children to learn to develop social skills through daily peer group interactions.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Math is incorporated into other subject areas.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Children have daily opportunities for expression and appreciation through art, music, and movement.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Materials and activities within the classroom represent only the dominant culture.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Children work individually, at desks or tables most of the time with few opportunities to interact with each other.	1	2	3	4	5
26. The focus of the reading program is the basal reader used only in reading groups and accompanying worksheets and workbooks.	1	2	3	4	5
27. The individual and special needs of the children are ignored.	1	2	3	4	5
28. A variety of multicultural and nonsexist materials and activities are evident within the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Art and music are taught separately or provided only when time permits.	1	2	3	4	5

30. Activities and materials are adapted and individualized to meet the needs of all the children.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Children are assisted in making smooth transitions between group activities by a well run, well organized classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Teachers use the teacher's edition of the basal reading series as a guide to plan projects and hands-on reading activities.	1	2	3	4	5
33. The children wait for longer than 5 minutes between activities.	1	2	3	4	5
34. Competition between children is used to motivate children to learn math facts.	1	2	3	4	5

<u>Part 2: Emotional Climate</u>

35. Teachers show affection by smiling, touching, holding, and speaking to children at their eye level throughout the day but especially at arrival and departure.	1	2	3	4	5
36. The sound of the environment is marked by pleasant conversation, spontaneous laughter, and exclamations of excitement.	1	2	3	4	5
37. Teachers use competition, comparison, or criticism as guidance or discipline techniques.	1	2	3	4	5
38. Teachers talk about feelings. They encourage children to put their emotions (positive or negative) and ideas into words.	1	2	3	4	5

39. The sound of the environment is characterized either by harsh noise or enforced quiet.	1	2	3	4	5
40. Teachers use redirection, positive reinforcement, and encouragement as guidance or discipline techniques.	1	2	3	4	5

A RUBRIC TO EVALUATE CONSTRUCTIVIST TEACHING

1. The teacher introduces new materials/learning activities with which children can construct physical knowledge through experimentation (Forman & Kuschner, 1983). These activities take the form of:
   Children acting on objects to see how they react.
   Children acting on objects to produce a desired effect.
   Children becoming aware of how a desired effect was produced.
   Children explaining cause-and-effect relationships at an appropriate developmental level.

   (4) _____ • Activities are presented so as not to predispose children to externally imposed goals.
   • Children are allowed mobility as they work and are encouraged to manipulate objects as a means of constructing knowledge.

   (3) _____ • Children are encouraged to manipulate objects which have an obvious purpose, or which work in only one way; thereby reducing opportunities for spontaneous activity or for constructing a purpose unique to the child.

   (2) _____ • Hands-on tasks are presented with externally imposed instructions and only one correct response to the activity.

   (1) _____ • There are limited opportunities for hands-on activity, in favor of written tasks such as worksheets or passive learning (TV, videos).
   • Children are subjected to seatwork, or have their mobility otherwise limited.

2. The teacher is knowledgeable about and has an organize sequence of cognitive procedures which children acquire in each academic area. The teacher attempts to understand where individual children are functioning within each sequence (Pirie & Kieren, 1992).

(4) _____ • Teacher has a comprehensive knowledge of learning theory and early child development.
• Activities and academic expectations are designed to address individual levels of specific cognitive strategies and procedures.
• Constant observation and formative assessment are used to evaluate children's learning (Forman & Kuschner, 1983).

(3) _____ • Teacher has a general knowledge of learning theory and child development.
• Observation and formative assessment are used to evaluate children's learning, leading to summative testing.

(2) _____ • Teacher has a rudimentary knowledge of learning theory and child development.
• Learning is evaluated mostly by summative measures.
• Tasks are extended or remediation offered based on test results.

(1) _____ • Teacher's primary knowledge is in academics as opposed to early childhood development.
• All children are provided with a similar program of study.
• More advanced students are allowed to progress at a faster rate.

3. The teacher keeps systematic records of children's progress related to the child and not a criterion standard (Wheatley, 1992).

(4) _____ • Progress is recorded as the child's level of cognitive processing within each subject area. This record is typically in a narrative form with examples of the child's work.
• Classroom is organized to take account of the different learning styles of the children.

(3) _____ • Progress is recorded on a checklist of cognitive processes.
• A variety of activities are available in the classroom, but not necessarily related to the different learning styles and interests of the children.

(2) _____ • Progress is recorded via a narrative account comparing a child's performance to an age or grade-level standard.
• Teacher accounts for differences in learning styles by making limited modifications to individual learning tasks.

(1) _____ • Progress is recorded as an alphabetic or numeric grade in response to a standardized test.
• The response to different learning styles is remediation (i.e., providing a simpler assignment).

4. The teacher keeps systematic records of planning and activity objectives (Prawat, 1992), while maintaining the flexibility (spontaneity) to move in unintended directions as determined by children's individual variation and responses.

(4) _____ • Teacher pre-plans using methods such as webbing or content mapping.
• Teacher incorporates new directions for instruction in response to student variation and responses.

(3) _____ • Teacher pre-plans by constructing a linear sequence of skills or subject knowledge to be learned.
• Teacher acknowledges student variation and responses to an activity, but allows only limited deviation from the original objectives.

(2) _____ • Teacher pre-plans by consulting ready-made curricular materials and adapting them to the needs of her own classroom.
• Student variation and responses are acknowledged, while the teacher attempts to bring students into compliance with the original task or activity.

(1) _____ • Teacher follows sequence of skill development as it is presented in a textbook.
• Student variation is considered off-task behavior.

5. The teacher organized group activities to encourage interactive learning between and among children (Slavin, 1990).

(4) _____ • Teacher coordinates the work of a wide range of children with different interests in both group and individual projects (Brooks & Brooks, 1993).
• Opportunities are provided for a variety of child-initiated projects.
• Discussion among children is encouraged.
• Teacher recognizes the differing needs of individual and group learning activities.
• Teacher differentiates between a rowdy classroom and the sounds of children learning.

(3) _____ • Teacher coordinates the work of a wide range of children engaged in similar projects, both individually and in small groups.
• A variety of play situations are organized toward an educative purpose, as opposed to filling time.
• Teacher generally mediates discussions among children.
• Teacher recognizes quantitative differences involved in group work but fails to provide for qualitative differences (i.e., students may work on areas of interest within a group project to amass a greater amount of information, but this information is not integrated in a meaningful way).

(2) _____ • Teacher assigns group tasks or activities and provides supervision to maintain on-task behavior.
• Opportunities for play are limited and/or teacher-directed.
• Teacher leads discussions in which children are encouraged to participate.

- Group projects or tasks find children working toward a common objective, sharing their work with each other but not collaborating.
- Students are expected to work quietly within their groups.

(1) _____ • Teacher allows children to work on a common assignment together.
- Play is a recess activity, and is considered off-task behavior in the classroom.
- Discussion is limited to children responding to questions from the teacher.
- Group work is presented as children completing independent work in close proximity to other students.
- Students are expected to work silently so they can concentrate.

6. The teacher allows children to sustain the natural consequences of their behavior and encourages peer negotiation (DeVries & Zan, 1996).

(4) _____ • Teacher recognizes that a child's self-concept can be enhanced by experiencing conflict and solving one's own problems.

(3) _____ • Teacher helps students work through a conflict, in order to teach them how to resolve such situations.

(2) _____ • Teacher serves as judge when children experience conflict. In this capacity, the teacher may also establish rules of behavior to follow in similar circumstances.

(1) _____ • Teacher intervenes in social situations to protect children from conflict, thereby preventing opportunities for children to experience either conflict or its resolution.

7. The teacher considers children's interests and experiences when designing learning situations (DeVries & Zan, 1996).

(4) _____ • Children's experiences are solicited and used as a starting point for learning.
• Activities are relevant and engaging to children.
• Teacher takes time to observe children's attitudes and approaches to activities.
• Children's own items and ideas are used as the basis for learning.

(3) _____ • Children's experiences are acknowledged as a method of engaging students in a teacher-directed activity.
• Activities are engaging and relevant to the teacher.
• Teacher observes children's approaches to activities, primarily for the purpose of evaluation.
• Children may present personal items and ideas toward the teacher-directed activity.

(2) _____ • Teacher assumes knowledge of student interests and designs tasks based on gimmicks or fads that are therefore assumed to be of interest to the children.
• Teacher supervises tasks for the purpose of maintaining on-task behavior.
• Opportunities for children to present items or ideas to tasks are limited.

(1) _____ • Curriculum requirements are used as the starting point for learning.
• Teacher assumes that successful completion (or a good grade) of the task or activity is sufficient incentive for the children.
• Teacher observes children for the purpose of grading or evaluating.
• Children's items or ideas are incidental to the task.

8. The teacher encourages children's independence and responsibility for their own learning (Ross, Bondy, & Kyles, 1993).

(4) _____ • Children are provided a choice of activities.
• Time is allowed for sustained learning.

- A quiet area is provided for reading or withdrawal.
- Teacher can discriminate when not to intervene in a child's active learning, and when help may be truly necessary.
- Children's ideas and contributions to activities are encouraged and acknowledged.
- Children are encouraged to follow through with classroom responsibilities and activities.
- Individual children are provided opportunities to discuss activities, outcomes, and achievements.
- Classroom rules and protocols are a collaboration of both teacher and students (DeVries & Zan, 1994).

(3) _____
- Children are given limited choices among activities.
- Teacher organizes day to allow for longer periods of time for activities.
- Teacher waits for a child to ask for help before providing assistance.
- Children's ideas and contributions to activities are acknowledged.
- Children's discussion of activities, outcomes, and achievements is teacher-directed within a complete-class setting.
- Children are allowed input into establishing classroom rules.

(2) _____
- Children take the form of voting as a class between tasks, providing limited opportunity for individual choice.
- Children are encouraged to come back to an activity or task if it is terminated due to time constraints.
- Quiet time for individual reading is presented as scheduled time for the entire class.
- Teacher indiscriminately provides assistance by noting difficulties of several children and making a class presentation.
- Teacher establishes a policy or rules for completing work and following through on classroom responsibilities.

(1) _____ • The school day is time-oriented, with a concern that tasks or activities by completed on a rigid schedule.
• Teacher provides intervention at the first sign a child is having difficulty.
• Reinforcement is provided for the entire class, rather than singling out individuals.
• Sanctions are established for inability to follow through with classroom responsibilities and tasks.
• Classroom rules and protocols are a construction of the teacher.

9. The teacher stimulates children to consider problems and reason logically (at an appropriate developmental level) on the basis of practical experiences (McFaul, 1983; Soar & Soar, 1983).

(4) _____ • Curriculum areas are integrated, such that different subject area knowledges (e.g., math, science, social studies) are combined to solve practical problems (Kamii & Lewis, 1991).
• Activities provide opportunities for reinforcement, consolidation, and generalization of concepts.
• Activities encourage and facilitate transfer of learning to new contexts (Brooks & Brooks, 1993).
• Interesting corners, tables, and areas of the classroom encourage discussion and inquiry.

(3) _____ • Curriculum areas are integrated, such that different subject area knowledges (e.g., math, science, social studies) are combined to solve contrived problems.
• Activities provide limited opportunities for reinforcement, consolidation, and generalization of concepts.
• Activities allow transfer of learning to new contexts, if teacher encourages divergent logic.
• Interesting corners, tables, and areas of the classroom are designed to extend a theme or activity.

(2) _____ • Integration of curriculum is limited or contrived, allowing lower-order or disparate thought processes.

- Tasks are offered primarily for reinforcement of concepts (Bauersfeld, 1992).
- The classroom is decorated or arranged to provide prompts and reinforce instructional concepts.

(1) _____
- Teacher presents concepts in individual subject areas separately.
- Tasks reinforce single concepts within a subject area.
- The classroom is decorated or arranged to provide prompts and reinforce instructional concepts.

10. The teacher uses a variety of questioning styles to elicit thoughtful responses (Durkin, 1993).

(4) _____
- Children are helped to organize their ideas and make informed choices or responses (Brooks & Brooks, 1993).
- Questioning is represented as the teacher learning alongside the student.
- Teacher is an active listener, rephrasing questions or responses to more completely understand children's understanding.

(3) _____
- Teacher asks thought-provoking questions, but allows little time for students to formulate thoughtful responses.
- Teacher asks leading questions toward a desired response or predetermined objective.
- Teacher listens to children, acknowledging their statements and answering questions.

(2) _____
- Teacher uses a questioning strategy as a check for understanding or as a review of previously studied concepts.
- Teacher listens to comments or answers questions only having to do with the subject or concept at hand.

(1) _____
- Teacher questioning is presented as an opening for the teacher to present necessary information.

- Teacher is patronizing toward student comments and answers questions superficially.

Appendix B

TEACHING PRACTICES AND SOCIAL BEHAVIORS IN YOUNG CHILDREN
PARENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions: Please answer the following questions by circling the best answer or by writing the answer in the blank.

1. What is the birthdate of your child who is participating in this study?
   _____

2. What is the gender of the child who is participating in this study?

   1. male
   2. female

3. What is the ethnic background of the child participating in this study?

   1. Afro-American
   2. Caucasian
   3. Hispanic
   4. Native American
   5. Other _____
      Please specify

4. How old is the mother of this child? _____

5. How old is the father of this child? _____

6. How many children are living in your home at the present time? _____

7. What is your marital status?

   1. Married
   2. Never married/single
   3. Separated/divorced

4. Widowed
5. Single with partner

8. What is the birth order of the child participating in this study? (example: 1st, 2nd, etc.) _____

9. Is this child an only child?

1. Yes
2. No

10. Is this child the last born?

1. Yes
2. No

To help us understand about your child's previous schooling, please answer the following questions about his/her second grade experiences.

11. Did your child's teacher plan most of the learning activities with little input from the students?

1	2	3
Seldom	Sometimes	Often

12. Did your child have the opportunity to use a writing journal?

1	2	3
Seldom	Sometimes	Often

13. Did your child work in different learning centers in the classroom?

1	2	3
Seldom	Sometimes	Often

14. Did your child complete worksheets and workbooks?

1	2	3
Seldom	Sometimes	Often

15. Did your child work in small groups on special projects?

1	2	3
Seldom	Sometimes	Often

16. Is the father employed?

    1. Yes
    2. No

17. If yes, what is the father's occupation?

    _____

18. Is the mother employed?

    1. Yes
    2. No

19. If yes, what is the mother's occupation?

    _____

20. What is the highest education level achieved by the father?

_____

21. What is the highest education level achieved by the mother?

_____

22. What is your yearly household income?

1. less than 15,000
2. 15,000 - 25,000
3. 25,001 - 35,000
4. 35,001 - 45,000
5. 45,001 - 55,000
6. 55,001 - 65,000
7. 65,001 - 75,000
8. 75,001 - 85,000
9. 85,001 - 95,000
10. 95,001 - 105,000
11. more than 105,000

TEACHING PRACTICES AND SOCIAL BEHAVIORS IN YOUNG CHILDREN
TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions: Please answer the following questions by circling the best answer or filling in the blank.

1. What was your major in college?

    1. Early Childhood Education
    2. Elementary Education
    3. Early Childhood/Elementary Education
    4. Child Development
    5. Other _____
    Please specify

2. What is the highest degree you have earned?

    1. Bachelor's degree
    2. Master's degree
    3. Doctoral degree

3. Which of the following best describes your certification?

    1. Early childhood education certification only
    2. Early childhood education certification only but hold degree in elementary education also
    3. Early childhood education and elementary education certification
    4. Other _____
    Please specify

4. How many professional development workshops have you attended in the last five years that relate specifically to early childhood education?

    _____
    Please specify

5. How many early childhood education conferences or workshops have you attended since you began teaching? Include only conferences/workshops not sponsored by the school district.

_____ Please specify

6. Of which national, state, or local professional organizations are you a member? (Circle all that apply)

    1. National Association for the Education of Young Children/ Oklahoma AEYC
    2. Southern Early Childhood Association
    3. Oklahoma Early Childhood Association
    4. Oklahoma Education Association
    5. National Education Association
    6. Other _____
    Please specify

7. How many total years have you taught?

    _____
    Please specify

8. How many years have you taught third grade?

    _____
    Please specify

9. How many years have you taught at this school?

    _____
    Please specify

10. What grades other than third grade have you taught?

    _____
    Please specify

11. How many children are in your classroom?

_____
Please specify

12. If there are other classrooms of the same grade at your school, how would you say that your philosophy of teaching matches with that of the other teachers in that grade?

Not close at all				Almost the same
1	2	3	4	5

13. Does your principal support/promote the use of early childhood education practices in the third grade?

Very unsupportive				Very supportive
1	2	3	4	5

14. How well do you believe that the physical environment, such as materials and space, at your school support early childhood education practices?

Not well at all				Very Well
1	2	3	4	5

The following questions are optional, but will help describe the participants of this study.

15. What is your age? _____

16. What is your yearly income from teaching?

    1. 24,060 - 29,060
    2. 29,061 - 34,060
    3. 34,061 - 39,060
    4. 39,061 - 43,060
    5. 43,061 - 48,060
    6. 48,061 +

17. What is your marital status?

    1. Married
    2. Never married/single
    3. Separated/divorced
    4. Widowed
    5. Single with partner

18. What is your yearly household income?

    1. 20,000 - 29,000
    2. 30,000 - 39,000
    3. 40,000 - 49,000
    4. 50,000 - 59,000
    5. 60,000 - 69,000
    6. 70,000 - 79,000
    7. 80,000 - 89,000
    8. 90,000 - 99,000
    9. 100,000 +

19. What is your ethnic background?

    1. Afro-American
    2. Caucasian
    3. Hispanic
    4. Native American
    5. Other _____
       Please specify

Appendix C

THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA-NORMAN
Department of Instructional Leadership and Academic Curriculum
Parents of Third Grade Students in Oklahoma
November, 1998

Dear Parent,

I would like to include you and your child in my doctoral research project which has been designed to study the influences of the decisions teachers make about how to teach the curriculum on the social development of young children. I am particularly interested in whether or not those decisions teachers make about how to teach will influence positive or negative behaviors in children. Hopefully, this study will help others to understanding the importance of how the curriculum is taught.

Please note that there will be no potential risk to your or your child if you choose to participate. One part of this project requires that you fill out a questionnaire about your family. Another part of the project requires your child to fill out a Social Skills Rating Scale. This would take no more than 30 minutes. You and your child will be asked to help with this part of the project after you have signed the consent forms.

Please remember that all of the information collected about you and your child will be kept confidential. Numbers will be assigned to you and your child and no names will be used in any report about this project. No person or school will be identified in the report. Also no one but members of the research team will have access to the information collected.

Your participation in this project is completely voluntary. If you agree to participate and then decide to withdraw from the project, you may do so at any time by calling me. I will be happy to answer any questions that you may have concerning this research project. If you choose to participate, please sign the attached form and return it in the enclosed envelope. I look forward to working with you on this project.

Sincerely,

Donna S. Hardin
Doctoral Candidate
Early Childhood Education

(405/382-3063 Home)
(405/382-1431 Work)

UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA - NORMAN
Department of Instructional Leadership and Academic Curriculum
Teaching Practices and Social Behaviors in Young Children
Spring, 1999

Dear Parent,

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this research project. Your participation is valuable, and I appreciate your willingness to help. Included in this packet are the informed consent forms for both you and your child to sign, and two questionnaires. Please sign the consent form and have your child sign the other form. Then, please fill out the two questionnaires, put them in the return envelope, seal it shut, and return the envelope to your child's teacher. Thanks again for your help.

Sincerely,

Donna S. Hardin
Doctoral Candidate
Early Childhood Education

THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA - NORMAN
Department of Instructional Leadership and Academic Curriculum
Third Grade Teachers in Oklahoma
November, 1998

Dear Third Grade Teacher,

I would like to include you in my doctoral research project studying curricular influences on the social development of young children. Specifically, I am interested in determining whether or not developmentally appropriate curricular practice influences prosocial and antisocial behaviors of children. Hopefully, this study will help others in understanding the influence of developmentally appropriate practices. All procedures for research in you school district have been followed prior to sending you this letter.

There will be three components to this study. The first is an observational component and will require a two-hour observation in your classroom which will be conducted by myself following your written agreement to participate in this research project. Please note that there is no potential risk to you or your classroom if you choose to participate. The second component involves your filling a questionnaire about your background and experiences and should require approximately 10 minutes of your time. Following this, you will fill out the Social Skills Rating Scale on each of the normally developing children in your classroom. This process should take approximately 15 minutes per instrument. The third component to the study requires that the normally developing students in your room complete a Social Skills Rating Scale on themselves and should require no more than a 30-minute block of time. This component will be completed after the students and parents sign the consent forms for project participation.

Please remember that all of the information collected about you and you classroom and students will be kept confidential. Numbers will be assigned to all participants. No one but members of the research team will have access to the information collected. No individual or school will be identified in any research report.

Your participation in this project is completely voluntary. If you agree to participate and decide to withdraw from the project, you may do so at any time by calling me. I will be happy to answer any questions that you may have concerning this research project. If you choose to participate, please sign the attached form and return it in the enclosed envelope. I look forward to meeting you and working with you on this doctoral research project.

Sincerely,

Donna S. Hardin
Doctoral Candidate
Early Childhood Education
(405/382-3063 Home)
(405/382-1431 Work)

THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA - NORMAN
Department of Instructional Leadership and Academic Curriculum
Teaching Practices and Social Behaviors in Young Children
Spring, 1999

Dear Third Grade Teacher,

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this research project. Your participation is valuable, and I appreciate your willingness to help.

You are now ready to proceed with Phase Two of this project. Please keep the documents that the students return to school in the student return envelope provided to you. Also included in this Phase is a questionnaire for you to complete about yourself, and the Social Skills Rating Scale for you to complete on each of the normally developing students in your classroom. As soon as you have completed all of the instruments, put them in the teacher return envelope and seal it shut. I will pick both the student and the teacher envelopes up and will arrange a time for Phase Three of the project which will involve my visiting your classroom to administer the student component of the Social Skills Rating Scale.

Once again, thanks for your willingness to help. I am grateful for your interest in learning more about third grade students.

Sincerely,

Donna S. Hardin
Doctoral Candidate
Early Childhood Education

Date

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN:

This is to verify that Donna S. Hardin has been given permission to collect information in _____ Public Schools for the research project examining teaching practices and social behaviors of third grade students. Mrs. Hardin has followed all of the procedures for conducting research in this school district.

Sincerely,

Principal or Superintendent

THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA - Norman
PARENT INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT
Teaching Practices and Social Behaviors in Young Children
Project Director: Donna S. Hardin

I understand that:

* The project will provide information about the relationship of teaching practices and the social behaviors of young children.

* I will complete a questionnaire on my child and the family and my ideas about childrearing.

* My child will complete a form about his/her behaviors at school. This form will be completed in the classroom and will take approximately 20 minutes.

* My child's teacher will answer questions about my child's behavior at school.

* There are no potential risks to my child from this project. My child's participation will be without penalty, and my child may refuse to answer any questions that might cause him/her to be uncomfortable.The project may help others better understand the relationship between teaching practices and the social behaviors of young children.

* All information will be kept confidential. No individual or school will be identified in any research report.

* The researcher will respond to any questions I have about the study, and my child's rights as a participant. The Office of Research Administration at the University of Oklahoma may also be contacted regarding any rights as a participant of this project (405/325-4757).

* I may withdraw my consent to participate at any time by contacting Donna S. Hardin (405/382-3063 Home or 405/382-1431 Work). My child will not be penalized in any way if I withdraw from the project.

THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA - NORMAN
STUDENT INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT
Teaching Practices and Social Behaviors in Young Children
Project Director: Donna S. Hardin

I understand that:

* My teacher will give me a paper to fill out about myself. If I am not comfortable answering any of the questions, I don't have to answer them.

* Filling out the paper won't hurt me or my grades. There won't be any penalty for me to help with this study.

* If I help with this study, it will help teachers understand children better.

* Mrs. Hardin won't tell anyone my name or my school's name.

* Mrs. Hardin will answer any questions I have about the study. I can also call the Office of Research Administration at the University of Oklahoma to find out about my rights (405/325-4757).

* I may change my mind about helping at any time, I can tell my teacher or my parents and they will tell Mrs. Hardin. (405/382-3063 Home or 405/382-1431 Work).

Please check one:

_____ Yes, I will help with this study.

_____ No, I will not help with this study.

_____ _____
Student's Signature Date

Please check one:

_____ Yes, my child and I will participate in the study.

_____ No, my child and I will not participate in the study.

_____ _____

Parent's Signature Date

THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA - NORMAN
TEACHER INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT
Teaching Practices and Social Behaviors in Young Children
Project Director: Donna S. Hardin

I understand that:

* The project will provide information about the relationship between teaching practices and the social behaviors of young children.

* If I choose to participate in the study, my classroom will be observed for a two-hour period.

* If I am chosen for the rest of the study, I understand that: The students in my classroom will also be asked to participate. The students will complete a scale of behaviors at school which will take place in my classroom. This scale will take approximately 20 minutes to complete.

* I will complete a questionnaire on my background and experiences. This questionnaire should take approximately 10 minutes to complete. I do not have to answer any questions that I am uncomfortable with.

* I will complete the Social Skills Rating Scale on each of my students. This instrument should take approximately 15 minutes per student.

* The participating students' parents will complete a family background and childrearing questionnaire.

* There are no potential risks to me or my students from this project. Participation will be without penalty. The project may help others better understand the relationship between teaching practices and social behaviors of young children.

* All information will be kept confidential. No individual or school will be identified in any research report.

* The researcher will respond to any questions I have about the study, and my rights as a participant. I can also contact the Office

of Research Administration at the University of Oklahoma regarding my rights as a participant (405/325-4757).

* I may withdraw my consent to participate at any time by contacting Donna S. Hardin (405/382-3063 Home or 405/405-382-1431 Work). I will not be penalized in any way if I withdraw from the project.

Please check one:

_____ Yes, I will participate in the study.

_____ No, I will not participate in the study.

_____ _____

Third Grade Teacher's Signature Date