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DECIDING ON YOUR APPROACH TO CONTROL

OBJECTIVES

This chapter provides information that will help you:
• Identify the features of low, medium, and high control approaches to classroom management and discipline.
• Identify the characteristics of the specific discipline models proposed by educators who are representative of the low, medium, and high control approaches.
• Identify actions to take when deciding on your approach to control.

Let's say that you want to take your dog out for a walk. You have one of those leashes in which you push a button to control how long or short the cord is on the leash. Would you use a short leash so the dog is by your side, or would you use a longer leash to allow our dog some freedom to walk around and explore? What reasons would you have for using a short or long leash? You see, you determine the degree of freedom the dog has.

In the classroom, you also determine the degree of freedom for your students as a means of creating a successful learning environment. How much freedom or control do you want to establish for your students? What are your purposes for insisting on this degree of control?

As a starting point, it is useful to see how other educators have dealt with this issue of freedom and control in the classroom. Some educators endorse many freedoms for students with limited controls, while other educators endorse stronger controls with limited freedoms. By seeing how other educators view the issue of control and order, you will gain a philosophical perspective about the range of possibilities for decisions that you might make. As you proceed through this book, you can see how the various ideas fit into the continuum of low to high control, and then decide on the strategies that you are most comfortable with. No single model is advocated or represented in this book.

This chapter provides a brief orientation to various discipline models, ranging from low to high teacher control. It is not intended to provide extensive information about each model to the point where you would be skilled enough to enact that model. For that purpose, more extensive summaries of these models are available from other sources (e.g., Charles, 2002; Edwards, 2000; Wolfgang, 2002). Of course, the original sources mentioned in this chapter for the respective models provide even a fuller description.

THE DEGREE OF CONTROL

When deciding how to handle classroom management and discipline, you probably will take into account your views of child development, your educational philosophies, and other factors. These views can be categorized in various ways, but perhaps the most useful organizer is by the degree of control that you exert on the students and the classroom. A continuum showing a range of low to high teacher control can be used to illustrate the various educational views, and the various discipline models can be placed on the continuum. This continuum is based on the organizer that Wolfgang (2002) used when examining models of discipline.

A model of discipline is a set of cohesive approaches to deal with establishing, maintaining, and restoring order in the classroom that represent a certain philosophical perspective on a continuum of low to high teacher control. Table 2.1 provides a summary of the characteristics of various discipline models, ranging from low to high teacher control. Later in the chapter, Table 2.2 identifies representative authors for each of the three discipline models.
Table 2.1 Characteristics of Various Discipline Models

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Descriptors</th>
<th>The Guiding Model</th>
<th>The Interacting Model</th>
<th>The Intervening Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Degree of teacher control</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree of student control</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree of concern for the students’ thoughts, feelings, and preferences</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theoretical basis</td>
<td>Humanistic and Psychoanalytic Thought</td>
<td>Developmental and Social Psychology</td>
<td>Behaviorism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>View of children</td>
<td>• Children develop primarily from inner forces.</td>
<td>• Children develop from both internal and external forces.</td>
<td>• Children develop primarily from external forces and conditions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Decision making enables personal growth.</td>
<td>• Confront and contract with students when solving problems.</td>
<td>• Children are molded and shaped by influences from their environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Students are masters of their destiny.</td>
<td>• Counsel students.</td>
<td>• Establish the rules, and deliver the rewards and punishments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main processes used</td>
<td>• Develop caring, self-directed students.</td>
<td>• Interact with children to clarify and establish boundaries.</td>
<td>• Control the environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Build teacher–student relationships.</td>
<td>• Enforce the boundaries.</td>
<td>• Select and use appropriate reinforcers and punishments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approaches used by teachers</td>
<td>• Structure the environment to facilitate students’ control over their own behavior.</td>
<td>• Formulate mutually acceptable solutions to problems.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Help students see the problem and guide them into an appropriate decision to solve the problem.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Be an empathic listener.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Allow students to express their feelings.</td>
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<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Your approach to freedom and control may fall into one particular part of the continuum, but this does not mean that you will follow this approach in every situation. You may branch out and use other strategies as the situation warrants. Now, let’s look at the models at each point on the continuum.

LOW TEACHER CONTROL APPROACHES

Low control approaches are based on the philosophical belief that students have primary responsibility for controlling their own behavior and that they have the capability to make these decisions. Children are seen to have an inner potential, and opportunities to make decisions enable personal growth. The child’s thoughts, feelings, ideas, and preferences
are taken into account when dealing with instruction, classroom management, and discipline.

The teacher has the responsibility for structuring the classroom environment to facilitate the students' control over their own behavior. When determining classroom rules, for example, teachers guide the discussion and help students recognize appropriate behavior and select related rules and consequences. When misbehavior occurs, the teacher helps students see the problem and guides students in making an appropriate decision to resolve the problem. With these non-directive teacher actions, low teacher control approaches fall into the guiding model of discipline.

With this philosophical belief, students have a high degree of autonomy while the teacher exerts a low degree of control. This does not mean that the classroom is a chaotic place for learning. There are standards that the students will help develop, and the teacher is ultimately responsible for enforcing the standards to enable learning to take place in an orderly environment.

Low control educators might use several types of non-directive approaches to create a supportive learning environment and to guide behavior. To illustrate these non-directive, low teacher control approaches, the discipline models from five representative authors are discussed in the following sections.

Congruent Communication: Haim Ginott

Haim Ginott (1922–1973) was a professor of psychology at New York University and at Adelphi University. Among educators, he is most known for his books that address relationships between adults and children. Between Parent and Child (1965) and Between Parent and Teenager (1969) offered ideas on how to communicate effectively with children. Ginott focused on how adults can build the self-concepts of children, especially emphasizing that adults should avoid attacks on the child's character and instead focus on the situation or actions. Later, Ginott carried these principles to educators in Teacher and Child (1972), proposing that teachers maintain a secure, humanitarian, and productive classroom through the use of congruent communication and appropriate use of praise.

Congruent communication is a harmonious and authentic way of talking in which teacher messages to students match the students' feelings about the situations and about themselves. In this way, teachers can avoid insulting and intimidating their students and instead express an attitude of helpfulness and acceptance while showing increased sensitivity to their needs and desires.

There are several ways that teachers can express congruent communication, all directed at protecting or building students' self-esteem.

- Deliver same messages. Sane messages address situations rather than the students' characters. They acknowledge and accept student feelings. Too often, teachers may use language that blames, orders, admonishes, accuses, ridicules, belittles, or threatens children. This language does not promote children's self-esteem. Instead, Ginott proposes that teachers use language that focuses on the situation and the facts, not threatening that child's self-esteem.

- Express anger appropriately. Ginott points out that students can irritate and annoy teachers, making them angry. Anger is a genuine feeling, and teachers should
express their anger in reasonable and appropriate ways that do not jeopardize the self-esteem of their students. An effective way is simply to say, "It makes me angry when . . ." or, "I am appalled when . . ." In this way, the students hear what is upsetting the teacher without hearing put-down statements such as, "You are so irresponsible when you . . ."

- **Invite cooperation.** Provide opportunities for students to experience independence, thus accepting their capabilities. Give students a choice in matters that affect life in the classroom, including things such as seating arrangements and certain classroom procedures. Avoid long drawn-out directions, and instead give a brief statement and allow students to decide what their specific course of action should be. By inviting cooperation, you begin to break down students' dependency on yourself.

- **Accept and acknowledge student feelings.** When a problem occurs, listen to students and accept the feelings they are expressing as real. Serve as a sounding board to help students clarify their feelings and let them know that such feelings are common.

- **Avoid labeling the student.** Ginott maintains there is no place for statements such as, "You are so irresponsible, unreliable." "You are such a disgrace to this class, this school, your family." When students hear these statements, they begin to believe them, and then they may start to develop a negative self-image. Avoid labeling, while striving to be helpful and encouraging.

- **Use direction as a means of correction.** Instead of criticizing students when a problem occurs, Ginott proposes that teachers describe the situation to the students and offer guidance about what they should be doing. For example, when a student spills some supplies on the floor, offer some suggestions about ways to do the cleanup rather than criticize the student.

- **Avoid harmful questions.** Ginott points out that an enlightened teacher avoids asking questions and making comments that are likely to incite resentment and invite resistance. For example, don't ask "Why" questions such as, "Why can't you be good for a change?" "Why do you forget everything I tell you?" Instead, point out that there is a problem and invite the student to discuss ways to solve the problem.

- **Accept students' comments.** Students may ask questions or make statements that seem unrelated to the topic under discussion. Show respect and give the student credit for the question or comment because it may be important to the student in some way.

- **Do not use sarcasm.** While you may use sarcasm as a way to be witty, it may sound clever only to yourself and not to the students receiving the comments. Students may end up with hurt feelings and damaged self-esteem.

- **Avoid hurried help.** When a problem arises, listen to the problem, rephrase it, clarify it, give the students credit for formulating it, and then ask, "What options are open to you?" In this way, you provide students with an opportunity to acquire competence in problem solving and confidence in themselves. Hurried responses to problems are less likely to achieve these purposes.

- **Be brief when dealing with minor missteps.** Long, logical explanations are not needed when there is a lost paper, a broken pencil, or a forgotten assignment. Brief statements should be solution-oriented.
CLASSROOM DECISIONS

Imagine that you have your students working in small groups on a project. Then one of the students begins to talk in an angry way with another group member, stands up, and tosses some papers aside. How would you communicate with that student using Ginzott's principles of congruent communication (e.g., to express same messages, express anger appropriately, invite cooperation)? If the student was of a different ethnic group from yours, how might that affect your actions? If the action was more disruptive, such as punching, how would that affect your actions?

Group Management: Redl and Wattenberg

Fritz Redl and William Wattenberg described techniques that can be used by teachers to maintain classroom control and strengthen emotional development in students. In their book Mental Hygiene in Teaching (1959), they discuss the psychological and social forces that affect student behavior in the classroom and provide common-sense applications of humane personal relations. Redl later summarized many of their recommendations in When We Deal with Children (1972).

Several of Redl and Wattenberg's key concepts may help teachers promote a positive learning community.

1. **Students behave differently in groups than they do individually.** Redl and Wattenberg see the group as an entire organism.

2. **Students adopt certain roles in the classroom.** Groups may have leaders, clowns, "fall guys," and instigators. A student finds a place within a group and becomes a part of the organism. A role is played because it fills a personal need or because the group expects or enjoys it. Thus, group expectations influence individual behavior, and individual behavior affects the group.

3. **Group dynamics affect student behavior.** Redl and Wattenberg maintain that groups create their own psychological forces that influence individual behavior and, thus, teachers need to be aware of group dynamics to maintain effective classroom control. Group dynamics are involved, for example, when one or more students serve as scapegoats for a problem involving other students or when one student receives preferential treatment. These group dynamics are unwritten codes of conduct, and when the group's code of conduct runs counter to that of the teacher, conflicts can occur.

4. **Teachers play different roles that influence student behavior.** Group behavior is influenced by how students perceive the teacher and the roles that the teacher plays. The teacher, for example, might have a role as a helper in learning, judge, referee, detective, model, ego supporter, surrogate parent, friend and confidant, or a variety of other roles. Teachers assume roles due to group needs as well as their own preferences. The class functions better when teachers remain consistent in the roles they assume.

5. **Diagnostic thinking can be used to deal with classroom conflict.** This involves first making a preliminary hunch about the underlying cause of the problem. obvious facts
then need to be gathered. The teacher then adds hidden factors, such as background information about the students involved or knowledge of a similar previous situation. Teachers are then ready to draw a conclusion and act. But Redl and Wattenberg point out that teachers need to be flexible in this diagnostic procedure, especially by putting themselves in place of the students to identify student feelings in a given situation.

6. *Various influence techniques can be used to maintain classroom control.* Redl and Wattenberg urge that before teachers take action to correct a situation, they ask themselves several questions: What is the motivation behind the misbehavior? How is the class reacting? Is the misbehavior related to interaction with the teacher? How will the student react when corrected? How will the correction affect future behavior?

7. *Supporting student self-control is a low-key approach.* This allows teachers to address problems before they become serious.

8. *Providing assistance to get through minor difficulties is a low-key approach.* Teachers can provide nonjudgmental assistance to guide students through a problem or to keep students on task.

**Discipline as Self-Control: Thomas Gordon**

Thomas Gordon, a clinical psychologist, is known for his pioneering of teaching communication skills and conflict resolution to teachers, parents, youth, and business leaders. In education, he is most known for *T.E.T.: Teacher Effectiveness Training* (1974) and *Discipline That Works: Promoting Self-Discipline in Children* (1991). Gordon maintains that effective discipline cannot be achieved through rewards and punishments, but rather through techniques to promote students’ own self-control. He proposed approaches to help students make positive decisions, become more self-reliant, and control their own behavior. To help students make positive decisions, however, teachers must give up their controlling power.

Several principles incorporate the essence of Gordon’s concepts.

1. **Identify who owns the problem.** Gordon used a device called a behavior window to determine who owns the problem. The student’s behavior may cause a problem for the teacher or for the student, or there may be no problem. The person feeling the negative consequences of the behavior is said to own the problem, and this person is the one to take steps to solve the problem.

2. **Use confrontive skills when teachers own the problem.** Teachers can modify the environment, recognize and respond to student feelings, send I-messages that do not trigger the student’s coping mechanism, shift gears, and use a no-lose method of conflict resolution. All of these approaches are intended to help guide and influence the students into effective interactions in the classroom.

3. **Use helping skills when the student owns the problem.** When a student owns the problem, the student needs to take steps to solve it. Teachers can provide assistance through the use of helping skills. This can be done by using listening skills and by avoiding communication roadblocks.

4. **Use preventive skills when neither the student nor teacher has a problem with the behavior.** As a means to avoid problems from occurring, teachers can use techniques such
as collaboratively setting rules, sending preventive I-messages, and using participative problem solving and decision making.

All of these approaches are consistent with Gordon’s view that effective discipline is self-discipline that occurs internally in each child. Teachers guide and influence students and also take actions to create an environment where students can make decisions about their behavior.

Teaching with Love and Logic: Jim Fay and David Funk

In *Teaching with Love and Logic* (1995), Jim Fay and David Funk describe how to create a classroom environment in which students can develop their own self-discipline and independent problem-solving skills. Love and logic is an approach to working with students that teaches students to think for themselves, raises the level of student responsibility, and prepares students to function effectively in society.

There are four basic principles of love and logic: (1) maintain the student’s self-concept, (2) share control with the students, (3) balance the consequences with empathy, and (4) share the thinking by asking questions and modeling. With those principles as the foundation for the discipline plan, Fay and Funk selected three basic rules for their love and logic program: (1) use enforceable limits, (2) provide choices within the limits, and (3) apply consequences with empathy.

In describing various types of teaching styles, Fay and Funk (1995) describe teachers using the love and logic approach to discipline as being consultants. Consultant teachers do the following (pp. 197–198):

1. Set enforceable limits through enforceable statements.
2. Provide messages of personal worth, dignity, and strength through choices.
3. Provide consequences with empathy rather than punishment.
4. Demonstrate how to take good care of themselves and be responsible.
5. Share feelings about their personal performance and responsibilities.
6. Help people solve problems by exploring alternatives while allowing them to make their own decisions.
7. Provide latitude, within reasonable limits, for students to complete responsibilities.
8. Induce thinking through questions.
9. Use more actions than words to convey values.
10. Allow students to experience life’s natural consequences, allow time to think through a problem, encourage shared thinking and shared control, and let them be teachers as well as students.

The love and logic approach gives students considerable credit for having the ability to solve their own problems, and teachers create an environment where students have the opportunity to make such decisions.
CLASSROOM DECISIONS

Two students in your class have a conflict and, as a consultant teacher, you let them discuss the issue and settle it. Prior to their discussion, what guidelines would you identify to have them deal with the problem? How might these guidelines be different with students at a different grade level or maturity level?

Inner Discipline: Barbara Coloroso

In *Kids Are Worth It! Giving Your Child the Gift of Inner Discipline* (1994), Barbara Coloroso emphasizes guiding students to make their own decisions and take responsibility for their choices. To have good discipline, teachers must do three things: (1) treat students with respect and dignity; (2) give them a sense of power in their lives; and (3) give them opportunities to make decisions, take responsibility for their actions, and learn from their successes and mistakes. She believes that dealing with problems and accepting the consequences help students take charge of their lives.

Through these approaches, Coloroso believes that students will develop inner discipline. Her beliefs are humanistic and focused on promoting students' self-worth and dignity. With the guidance from adults, Coloroso believes that students can grow to like themselves and think for themselves.

As a starting point, Coloroso says that teachers need to ask themselves "What is my goal in teaching?" and "What is my teaching philosophy?" The first question deals with what teachers hope to achieve, and the second with how they will approach the tasks. Because teachers act in accordance with their beliefs, it is important for them to clarify these beliefs concerning the degree of freedom and control they apply to their classrooms. Teachers who want to control students use rewards and punishments, but teachers who want to empower students to make decisions and resolve their own problems will give students opportunities to think, act, and take responsibility.

The best way to teach students how to make good decisions is to put them in situations that call for decisions, ask them to make the decision, possibly with guidance from the teacher, and let them experience the results of their decision. Coloroso believes that teachers should not rescue students from bad decisions, but rather guide the student to new decisions that will solve the problem. When students are given ownership of problems and situations, this allows students to take responsibility for their decisions. She describes a six-step problem-solving strategy that students can use to identify and define the problem, list and evaluate possible solutions, and select, implement, and evaluate the preferred option.

To enable students to develop inner discipline, teachers need to provide the appropriate degree of structure and support for students. However, not all teachers create this environment. Coloroso says there are three types of teachers, each having very different effects on their students. She calls these teachers **brickwalls**, **jellyfish**, and **backbones**. Brickwall teachers are rigid and use power and coercion to control students. They demand that students follow the rules and use rewards and punishments to enforce the rules. There are
two types of jellyfish teachers—one is lax in discipline, sets few limits, and lets students have their way; the other doesn’t believe in students’ capabilities and focuses on their own efforts in the class.

Backbone teachers, however, provide support and structure needed for students to act responsibly by reasoning through problems. They have clear and simple rules with consequences that are reasonable, simple, valuable, and purposeful. Students have opportunities to correct mistakes they make or solve problems, with any needed guidance from the teacher. Through these approaches, students learn how to think and reason, and thus take responsibility for themselves. This is inner discipline.

From Discipline to Community: Alfie Kohn

Alfie Kohn is recognized as one of the most original thinkers in education today. A former teacher, he now is a full-time writer and lecturer. He has written five influential books, two of them linking to discipline models: \textit{Punished by Rewards} (1993) and \textit{Beyond Discipline: From Compliance to Community} (1996).

Kohn challenges traditional thinking by suggesting that our first question about children should not be, “How can we make them do what we want?” but rather, “What do they require in order to flourish, and how can we provide those things?” After reviewing a number of popular discipline programs, Kohn concludes that all are based on threat, reward, and punishment as the means to obtain student compliance. Kohn even views “consequences” as being punishments. Nothing useful comes from rewards and punishments because they cause students to mistrust their own judgment and stunt their becoming caring and self-reliant.

Instead, Kohn says teachers should focus on developing caring, supportive classrooms where students participate fully in solving problems, including problems with behavior. He advises teachers to develop a sense of community in their classrooms, where students feel safe and are continually brought into making decisions, expressing their opinions, and working cooperatively toward solutions that benefit the class.

When starting the school year, Kohn doesn’t think rules are a good idea. When rules are used, Kohn is critical that students look for loopholes, teachers function as police officers, and punishment is used as a consequence. He maintains that students learn best when they have the opportunity to reflect on the proper way to conduct themselves. In this way, the teacher and students work together to identify how they want their classroom to be and how that can be made to happen. Students help create their own learning environment.

Kohn does not dismiss the value of structure and limits on student behavior. He presents criteria for determining how defensible a structure or limit is. Some of his criteria include purpose, restrictiveness, flexibility, developmental appropriateness, presentation style, and student involvement.

Classroom meetings are seen by Kohn as valuable tools to create a community and to address classroom problems and issues. Classroom meetings bring social and ethical benefits, foster intellectual development, motivate students to be more effective leaders, and greatly cut down on the need to deal with discipline problems. Kohn sees four focal points in these meetings: (1) sharing, such as talking about interesting events; (2) deciding about issues that affect the class, such as procedures for working on projects; (3) planning for
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various curricular or instructional issues; and (4) reflecting about issues such as what has been learned, what might have worked better, or what changes might improve the class.

All of these strategies will help create a community, which Kohn (1996) defines as a place in which students feel cared about and are encouraged to care about each other (pp. 101–102). Students then feel valued and respected, and the students matter to one another and the teacher. When students come to think in the plural, they feel connected to each other and feel physically and emotionally safe.

Kohn further suggests several strategies that teachers can use to create a greater sense of community. These include building relationships between teachers and students, enhancing connections among students, undertaking classwide and schoolwide activities, and using academic instruction.

**MEDIUM TEACHER CONTROL APPROACHES**

Medium control approaches are based on the philosophical belief that development comes from a combination of innate and outer forces. Thus, the control of student behavior is a joint responsibility of the student and teacher. Medium control teachers accept the student-centered psychology that is reflected in the low control philosophy, but they also recognize that learning takes place in a group context. Therefore, the teacher promotes individual student control over behavior whenever possible, but places the needs of the group as a whole over the needs of individual students. The child's thoughts, feelings, ideas, and preferences are taken into account when dealing with instruction, classroom management, and discipline, but ultimately the teacher's primary focus is on behavior and meeting the academic needs of the group.

Students are given opportunities to control their behavior in an effort to develop the ability to make appropriate decisions, yet they may not initially recognize that some of their behavior might be a hindrance to their own growth and development. Students need to recognize the consequences of their behavior and make adjustments to reach more favorable results.

Rules and procedures are often developed jointly by the teacher and students. Teachers may begin the discussion of rules by presenting one or two rules that must be followed, or the teacher may hold veto power over the rules that the students select. This represents a higher degree of control than is used by low control teachers. Medium control teachers then would be responsible for enforcing the rules and helping students recognize the consequences of their decisions and actions. Medium control educators might use logical consequences, cooperative discipline, noncoercive approaches, or other interactive approaches. These strategies fall into the interacting model of discipline.

Several educators have described cohesive approaches to deal with students that represent the medium teacher control approach when creating a supportive learning environment and guiding student behavior. The discipline models from several representative authors are discussed in the following sections.

**Logical Consequences: Rudolf Dreikurs**

According to social psychologist Alfred Adler, people are motivated by the need to be accepted by others—to belong and to get recognition. A well-behaved student has discov-
ered that social acceptance comes from conforming to the group and making useful contributions to it. A child who lacks a sense of belonging, however, tries to gain acceptance through behaviors that are annoying, defiant, hostile, or helpless.

Rudolf Dreikurs (Dreikurs, Grunwald, & Pepper, 1982) expanded on Adler's concepts and provided a useful means for teachers to work with students without reliance on punishment. At the heart of his suggestions is the use of logical consequences, which are events arranged by the teacher that are directly and logically related to the behavior. Based on Dreikurs' ideas, there are several techniques that you can use to help misbehaving students behave appropriately.

First, identify the goal of the misbehavior. Examine the key signs of the misbehavior and also consider your feelings and reactions as a means to tentatively identify the goal of the student's misbehavior. The student's goal may be to gain attention, to seek power, to seek revenge, or to display inadequacy. Then disclose this goal to the student in a private session as a means to confirm the goal. This is a positive means of confronting a misbehaving student. Its purpose is to heighten the student's awareness of the motives for the misbehavior.

Second, alter your reactions to the misbehavior. Once the goal of misbehavior has been identified, first control your immediate reaction to misbehavior so that your response does not reinforce the misbehavior. For example, if the student's goal is to seek attention, never give immediate attention, but try to ignore the behavior whenever possible. Then, have a discussion with the student to identify a number of alternatives for changing the behavior.

Third, provide encouragement statements to students. Encouragement consists of words or actions that acknowledge student work and express confidence in them. Encouragement statements help students see what they did to lead to a positive result and also help students feel confident about their own abilities. For example, you might say, "I see that your extra studying for the test paid off because you did so well." The focus is on what the student did that led to the result obtained.

Encouragement should not be confused with praise. Praise is an expression of your approval after a student has attained something; the focus of praise statements is typically on you being pleased about something. A praise statement might be, "I'm so glad that you got the highest mark in the class on your project." An encouragement statement might be, "Your creativity and organization made a big difference in how well you did on your project."

Most important, use logical consequences. Instead of using punishment, Dreikurs prefers to let students experience the consequences that flow from misbehavior. A logical consequence is an event that is arranged by the teacher that is directly and logically related to the misbehavior. For instance, if a student leaves paper on the classroom floor, the student must pick the paper off the floor. If a student breaks the rule of speaking out without raising his or her hand, the teacher ignores the response and calls on a student whose hand is up. If a student makes marks on the desk, the student is required to remove them.

In summary, Dreikurs views his approaches as democratic in that teachers and students together decide on the rules and consequences, and they have joint responsibility for maintaining a positive classroom climate. This encourages students to become more responsibly self-governing. To Dreikurs, discipline is not punishment; it is teaching students to impose
CLASSROOM DECISIONS

You can focus your encouragement statements on a number of issues such as effort, improvement, creativity, and achievement. When returning a major project to a student, what are some issues that you might include in your encouragement statements? How might your encouragement statements be different for high and low achieving students? What student factors might you consider when selecting the focus of your encouragement statements?

limits on themselves. With Dreikurs’ approaches, students are responsible for their own actions, have respect for themselves and others, have the responsibility to influence others to behave appropriately, and are responsible for knowing the classroom rules and consequences.

Cooperative Discipline: Linda Albert

Based largely on the philosophy and psychology of Alfred Adler and Rudolf Dreikurs, Linda Albert (1996) developed a classroom management and discipline plan called cooperative discipline. Similar to Dreikurs’ ideas, cooperative discipline is founded on three concepts of behavior: (a) students choose their behavior; (b) the ultimate goal of student behavior is to fulfill the need to belong; and (c) students misbehave to achieve one of four immediate goals (attention, power, revenge, avoidance of failure).

Albert’s main focus is on helping teachers meet student needs so that students choose to cooperate with the teacher and each other. Her cooperative discipline includes five action steps: pinpoint and describe the student’s behavior, identify the goal of the misbehavior, choose intervention techniques for the moment of misbehavior, select encouragement techniques to build self-esteem, and involve parents as partners. Albert’s cooperative discipline program, therefore, is designed to establish positive classroom control through appropriate interventions and to build self-esteem through encouragement.

The building blocks of self-esteem are helping students feel capable, helping students connect (become involved and engaged in the classroom), and helping students contribute (discussed more fully in Chapter 6). To achieve the goals of cooperative discipline intervention and encouragement strategies, use democratic procedures and policies, implement cooperative learning strategies, conduct classroom guidance activities, and choose appropriate curriculum methods and materials.

Albert offers a number of strategies to implement her cooperative discipline plan. She presents intervention techniques when misbehavior occurs, ways to reinforce desirable behavior, approaches to create a cooperative classroom climate, and ways to avoid and defuse confrontations. Albert also proposes that teachers and students collaboratively develop a Classroom Code of Conduct as a means to involve students and foster their sense of responsibility to the group.
TEACHERS IN ACTION

Nonpunitive Responses

Janet Kulbiski, kindergarten teacher,
Manhattan, Kansas

After reading Jane Nelsen’s book Positive Discipline in the Classroom (1997), I changed my attitude about misbehavior and tried some different behavior management strategies in my classroom. I now see misbehavior as an opportunity for teaching appropriate action.

Several of Nelsen’s techniques have been very helpful in my classroom. I use natural and logical consequences, allow students choices, and redirect misbehavior. Natural consequences occur without intervention from anyone, such as when a child does not wear his coat and then gets cold. Logical consequences, by contrast, require intervention connected in some logical way to what the child did. If a child draws a picture on the table, a logical consequence would be that the child cleans it up.

It is important to give students choices whenever possible. This gives them a sense of control and worth, but all choices must be acceptable to you. For example, “Please, put the toy on my desk or in your backpack.”

Redirecting student behavior involves reminding them of the expected behavior. For example, instead of saying, “Don’t run,” I say, “We always walk.” Eliminating “don’ts” from my vocabulary has helped a lot.

When I deal with misbehavior, I try to always use the situation as an opportunity for the child to learn the expected behavior. My goal is to leave the child feeling good about himself or herself and equipped to handle the situation appropriately next time.

Positive Discipline: Nelsen, Lott, and Glenn

Jane Nelsen has also adapted Rudolf Dreikurs’ concepts into a program called positive discipline. In Positive Discipline, Nelsen (1996) identified kindness, respect, firmness, and encouragement as the main ingredients of this program for parents and teachers. There are several key elements to Nelsen’s approach: (1) Use natural and logical consequences as a means to inspire a positive atmosphere for winning children over rather than winning over children. (2) Understand that children have four goals of misbehavior (attention, power, revenge, and assumed inadequacy). (3) Kindness and firmness need to be used at the same time when addressing misbehavior. (4) Adults and children must have mutual respect. (5) Family and class meetings can be effectively used to address misbehavior. (6) Use encouragement as a means of inspiring self-evaluation and focusing on the actions of the child.

Nelsen has described how positive discipline principles can be applied to the classroom through the use of classroom meetings. In Positive Discipline in the Classroom, Nelsen and colleagues (1997) provide detailed descriptions for ways to conduct effective classroom meetings. In addition to eliminating discipline problems, classroom meetings help students develop social, academic, and life skills, and help students feel that they are personally capable, significant, and can influence their own lives.

With positive discipline, teachers demonstrate caring by showing personal interest, talking with the students, offering encouragement, and providing opportunities to nurture important life skills. Nelsen and colleagues caution that it is easy to misuse logical consequences because they are often simply punishments. Instead, they maintain that teachers think in terms of solutions, rather than consequences. To do so, Nelsen suggests strategies such as involving students in solutions to problems, focusing on the future rather than the present, planning solutions carefully in advance, and making connections between opportunity, responsibility, and consequence.
Noneoerive Discipline: William Glasser

William Glasser, a psychiatrist, received national attention with the publication of *Reality Therapy* (1965), which proposed a different approach to treating behavioral problems. Instead of looking for the antecedents of the inappropriate behavior, Glasser maintained that solutions could best be found in the present. While initially working with juvenile offenders, he became interested in helping teachers deal with classroom discipline problems.

Over the years, Glasser's ideas concerning discipline have changed. Initially he proposed the strategies of reality therapy (1965), but later he extended these ideas into control theory (1984, 1986). More recently, he has described how to manage students without coercion in quality schools (1992).

Glasser took his *reality therapy* message to educators in *Schools Without Failure* (1969). He noted that successful social relationships are basic human needs. Glasser maintained that students have a responsibility for making good choices about their behavior and that they must live with their choices. In using reality therapy, teachers and students need to jointly establish classroom rules, and the teacher is to enforce the rules consistently without accepting excuses. When misbehavior occurs, the teacher should ask the student, "What are you doing? Is it helping you or the class? What could you do that would help?"

The student is asked to make some value judgments about the behavior, and the teacher can suggest suitable alternatives. Together, they create a plan to eliminate the problem behavior. When necessary, the teacher needs to invoke appropriate consequences.

Over time, Glasser expanded his reality therapy concepts. With the development of control theory (1986), he added the needs of belonging and love, control, freedom, and fun. Without attention to those needs, students are bound to fail. Glasser maintained that discipline problems should be viewed as total behaviors, meaning that the entire context of the situation needs to be examined in an effort to seek a solution. For example, physical inactivity may contribute to student misbehavior, whereas this element might be overlooked if the situation was examined in a more confined way.

With control theory, you must recognize that students want to have their needs met. Students feel pleasure when these needs are met and frustration when they are not. You must create the conditions in which students feel a sense of belonging, have some power and control, have some freedom in the learning and schooling process, and have fun. Students will not be frustrated and discipline problems should be limited.

In Glasser's *The Quality School* (1992), he takes a broader, organizational perspective when looking at schooling and learning. Glasser asserts that the nature of school management must be changed in order to meet students' needs and promote effective learning. In fact, he criticizes current school managers for accepting low-quality work. In *The Quality School Teacher* (1993) and *Every Student Can Succeed* (2000), Glasser offers specific strategies for teachers to move to quality schools.

Discipline with Dignity: Curwin and Mendler

In *Discipline with Dignity* (1999), Richard Curwin and Allen Mendler point out that discipline problems may be caused by student boredom, feelings of powerlessness, unclear limits, a lack of acceptable outlets for feelings, and attacks on dignity. To deal with
Curwin and Mendler state that students acting out is sometimes an act of sanity. What are some reasons why students might reach a breaking point and act out? In what ways might teachers contribute to students reaching this breaking point? In what ways might you interact with students to understand their point of view prior to reaching a breaking point?

these causes and to create an effective learning environment, Curwin and Mendler have developed a three-dimensional discipline plan dealing with prevention, action, and resolution.

The prevention dimension focuses on what the teacher can do to actively prevent discipline problems and how to deal with the stress associated with classroom disruptions. The action dimension deals with actions the teacher can take when misbehavior occurs. The resolution dimension addresses ways teachers can resolve problems with chronic rule breakers and more extreme, out-of-control students.

Curwin and Mendler’s model of discipline involves working with the students to develop the discipline plan; they label this the Responsibility Model. This model requires teachers to give up some of their power to involve students in decision making, which Curwin and Mendler maintain is far more consistent with current classroom emphasis on critical thinking and decision making. The main goal of the Responsibility Model is to teach students to make responsible choices, and students are expected to learn from the outcomes of these decisions. This model fosters critical thinking and promotes shared decision making. Students feel affirmed even though they don’t always get their way. They understand that they have some control of the events that happen to them, and they get a chance to learn that teachers also have rights, power, knowledge, and leadership.

Four principles are the structure for this discipline plan. They define the parameters of a healthy classroom that uses discipline as a learning process rather than a system of retribution. These principles are: (1) Dealing with student behavior is part of the job, (2) Always treat students with dignity, (3) Discipline works best when integrated with effective teaching practices, (4) Acting out is sometimes an act of sanity.

A social contract is a basic tool for discipline planning in the Responsibility Model. The contract is an agreement between the teacher and students about the rules and consequences for classroom behavior. Curwin and Mendler identify the following as important aspects of designing the contract: involve students in the process; ensure that rules are clear; develop consequences, not punishments; develop predictable consequences; allow the contract to change with class needs; have safeguards to protect the dignity of all students; increase communication among teachers, students, administrators, and parents; and integrate discipline methodology with the teaching of content.

When delivering consequences, Curwin and Mendler identify nine principles to guide these actions: (1) Always implement a consequence when needed, (2) Simply state the rule and consequence, (3) Be physically close to the student when implementing a consequence, (4) Make direct eye contact when delivering a consequence, (5) Use a soft voice, (6) Catch a student being good, (7) Don’t embarrass a student in front of his peers, (8) Be
firm and anger-free when giving the consequence. (9) Do not accept excuses, bargaining, or whining.

Curwin and Mendler also recognize the relationship between discipline and the process of teaching. In doing so, they discuss motivation, learning styles, enthusiasm in instructional delivery, evaluation and grading, and competition. They further discuss the unique challenges in dealing with out-of-control students and students with special problems.

Judicious Discipline: Forrest Gathercoal

In *Judicious Discipline* (1990), Forrest Gathercoal describes student-teacher interaction used to create a positive learning environment, free from disruptive forces. This approach is based on the democratic principles established in the Constitution and the Bill of Rights. Gathercoal notes that students may act as they do as long as they don’t interfere with the rights of others. When teachers deliver consequences as a result of misbehavior, they are respectful of the constitutional rights of the students. This model allows teachers and students to relate to one another in a democratic way and teaches students about their responsibilities to other class members. When students are involved in selecting classroom rules, then they will have a level of ownership required to make democratic principles operative in the classroom.

Through their schooling experiences, students are expected to become empowered to govern themselves within a social context and to learn to think for themselves and make decisions that are a blend of personal rights and social responsibilities. The classroom, therefore, serves as a model of the same system of laws under which students will live when their schooling is completed.

As compared to discipline plans that require blind obedience, judicious discipline helps students to think and act like responsible citizens. If judicious discipline is to work, Gathercoal maintains, educators must understand human growth and development, learning theory, and classroom management as they teach their students to be democratically involved in the classroom. Rather than punish, teachers need to motivate and encourage when helping students learn and behave appropriately.

**HIGH TEACHER CONTROL APPROACHES**

*High control approaches* are based on the philosophical belief that students’ growth and development are the result of external conditions. Children are seen as being molded and shaped by influences from the environment; they are not seen as having an innate potential. Therefore, teachers and adults need to select desired student behaviors, reinforce appropriate behaviors, and take actions to extinguish inappropriate behaviors. Little attention is given to the thoughts, feelings, and preferences of the students since adults are more experienced in instructional matters and have the responsibility for choosing what is best for student development and behavior control.

Teachers using high control approaches believe that student behavior must be controlled because the students themselves are not able effectively to monitor and control their own behavior. The teachers select the rules and procedures for the classroom, commonly without student input. Teachers then reinforce desired behavior and take actions to have students stop inappropriate, undesired behavior. When misbehavior occurs, teachers take
steps to stop the disruption quickly and redirect the student to more positive behavior. Behavior modification, behavioral contracting, and reinforcers are characteristic of high control approaches. Compared to the previous models, there is more emphasis on managing the behavior of the individuals than the group.

Several educators have described cohesive approaches to deal with students that represent the high teacher control approach to classroom control and order. These approaches are discussed in the following sections.

**Behavior Modification: B.F. Skinner**

B.F. Skinner (1902–1990) spent most of his academic career at Harvard University, where he conducted experimental studies in learning. In *Beyond Freedom and Dignity* (1971), Skinner challenged traditional views of freedom and dignity and instead claimed that our choices are determined by the environmental conditions under which we live and what has happened to us. He thus maintained that we are not free to choose. Skinner's work has been extended and modified by many psychologists and educators. Its application to classroom practice has been called behavior modification, a technique that uses reinforcement and punishment to shape behavior.

Behavior modification, as proposed by Skinner and others, has several distinguishing features. Behavior is shaped by its consequences and by what happens to the individual immediately afterward. The systematic use of reinforcers, or rewards, can shape behavior in desired directions. Behavior becomes weaker if it is not followed by reinforcement. Behavior is also weakened by punishment. In the early stages of learning, constant reinforcement produces the best results.

Once learning has reached the desired level, it is best maintained through intermittent reinforcement that is provided only occasionally. Behavior modification incorporates several types of reinforcers. It is applied primarily in two ways: (a) when the teacher rewards the student after a desired act, the student tends to repeat the act; and (b) when the student performs an undesired act, the teacher either ignores the act or punishes the student; the misbehaving student then becomes less likely to repeat the act.

Several types of reinforcers can be used: (1) edible reinforcers, such as candy, cookies, gum, drinks, nuts, or various other snacks; (2) social reinforcers, such as words, gestures, stickers, certificates, and facial and bodily expressions of approval by the teacher; (3) material or tangible reinforcers, which are real objects that students can earn as rewards for desired behavior; (4) token reinforcers, including stars, points, buttons, or other items that can be accumulated by students for desired behavior and then ‘‘cashed in’’ for other material or tangible reinforcers; and (5) activity reinforcers, which include those activities that students prefer in school. Reinforcers will be further discussed in Chapter 6.

Behavior modification works best when used in an organized, systematic, and consistent way. The various types of behavior modification systems seem to fit into five categories (Milenberger, 2001). (1) The “catch them being good” approach involves making positive statements to students who are doing what is expected of them. For example, a teacher might thank a student for getting out class materials and being ready to start the class. (2) The rules-ignore-praise approach involves establishing a set of classroom rules, ignoring inappropriate behavior, and praising appropriate behavior. This approach works best in elementary grades and is less effective in secondary grades. (3) The rules-reward-
behavior. That represents high teacher control with approaches that resemble taking charge.

The high teacher control approaches are described in detail by Lee and Marlene Canter (1971). These approaches are based on the principle that our actions, whether covert or overt, shape what has been called the environment of the individual. This work has been particularly useful in connection to classroom behavior management. Here are the five high teacher control approaches:

1. Punishment approach: This approach involves establishing classroom rules, rewarding appropriate behavior, and punishing inappropriate behavior. This system is quite appropriate for older students. (4) The contingency management approach is a system of tangible reinforcers where students earn tokens for appropriate behavior that can be "cashed in" at a later time for material rewards. This approach can be used at all grade levels, but it is especially effective when working with students with chronic behavior problems and those who are mentally retarded. (5) Contracting involves preparing a contract for an individual student who has chronic problems or is hard to manage. Contracts often include statements about the desired behaviors, deadlines for completion of certain acts, and the reinforcers and punishments if the desired behaviors are met or not.

**Assertive Discipline: Lee and Marlene Canter**

Lee Canter is an educator who first came into prominence in 1976 with the publication of Assertive Discipline (Canter & Canter, 1992), a take-charge approach for teachers to control their classrooms in a firm and positive manner. Since that time, he has created an organization called Canter and Associates that prepares a variety of materials concerning classroom discipline and conducts workshops and training programs for teachers, administrators, parents, and other educators.

Over the years, Canter has expanded and built upon the basic behavior management principles from the assertive discipline book. Since today’s teachers face even more complex situations, a more comprehensive discipline model was developed. The revised edition of Assertive Discipline (1992) goes beyond the initial take-charge approach and includes additional classroom management procedures. In the revised Assertive Discipline, Canter discusses the assertive attitude necessary to deal with classroom management and discipline, the parts of a classroom discipline plan, aspects of teaching responsible behavior, and ways to deal with difficult students. The goal of assertive discipline is to teach students to choose responsible behavior and in doing so raise their self-esteem and increase their academic success.

Canter maintains that teachers have the right and responsibility to (a) establish rules and directions that clearly define the limits of acceptable and unacceptable student behavior; (b) teach these rules and directions; and (c) ask for assistance from parents and administrators when support is needed in handling the behavior of students. The manner in which teachers respond to student behavior affects students’ self-esteem and success in school. Therefore, teachers must use an assertive response style to state expectations clearly and confidently to students and reinforce these words with actions.

A classroom discipline plan has three parts: (a) rules that students must follow at all times; (b) positive recognition that students will receive for following the rules; and (c) consequences that result when students choose not to follow the rules. Sample rules may be to follow directions, keep hands and feet to oneself, or be in the classroom and seated when the bell rings. Positive recognition may include various forms of praise, positive notes sent home to parents, positive notes to students, or special activities or privileges.

Consequences are delivered systematically with each occurrence of misbehavior. The first time a student breaks a rule, a warning is given. The second time, the student may lose a privilege, such as being first in line for lunch or staying in class one minute after the bell. The third time, the student loses additional privileges. The fourth time, the teacher
In addition to the personal calendars, I have a gem jar on my desk as a reward for the entire class. It is simply a clear coffee cup with three permanent levels marked on the side to indicate 5, 10, and 15 minutes of free time earned. As I observe the entire class on task, I place several gems in the jar. Gems may be marbles, bubble gum, candy corn, jelly beans, or other small items. Gems can be earned for a variety of behaviors such as good hall behavior, the entire class on task, the entire class completing homework, or other valued actions. The sound of the gems hitting the glass cup brings smiles to my fifth graders.

calls the parents. The fifth time, the student is sent to the principal. In cases of severe misbehavior, these preliminary steps may be skipped and the student is sent to the principal.

Another part of Canter's assertive discipline plan is to teach responsible behavior. This includes determining and teaching specific directions (classroom procedures), using positive recognition to motivate students to behave, redirecting nondisruptive off-task behavior, and implementing consequences. Canter further emphasizes that successful teachers need to blend academic and behavior management efforts into a cohesive whole so that classroom management actions are not apparent.

Canter gives special attention to dealing with difficult students, who represent perhaps five to ten percent of the students you may encounter. In *Assertive Discipline* (Canter & Canter, 1992), recommendations are provided for conducting a one-to-one problem-solving conference with the teacher and the difficult student. The goal of the conference is to help the student gain insight into the problem and ultimately choose more responsible behavior. Guidelines are offered to provide positive support to build positive relationships with difficult students, and recommendations are made for developing an individualized behavior plan. Parents and administrators can offer additional support when dealing with difficult students. Canter now has a separate book on this subject: *Succeeding with Difficult Students* (1993).

**Positive Discipline: Fredric Jones**

Fredric Jones is a psychologist who conducted research on classroom practices and developed training programs for improving teacher effectiveness in behavior management and instruction. In *Positive Classroom Discipline* (1987), Jones emphasized that teachers can help students support their own self-control. Jones recommends that teachers (a) properly structure their classrooms; (b) learn how to maintain control in the classroom by using appropriate instructional strategies and limit-setting techniques; (c) build patterns of co-
CLASSROOM DECISIONS

At the end of most class sessions, you have your students start their homework while you walk around to provide assistance and to monitor them. Four students in the class regularly have difficulty understanding the material and need a considerable amount of your time for additional explanations and assistance during this seatwork. What could you do to minimize the amount of time that you need to spend with these four students? How might you use other students to provide this assistance?

First, consider various rules, routines, and standards; seating arrangements; and student-teacher relationships when structuring your classroom. Rules, procedures, routines, and classroom standards need to be taught to students so they understand the standards and expectations in the classroom. Jones points out that the arrangement of the classroom furniture can maximize teacher mobility and allow greater physical proximity to students on a moment-to-moment basis. While presenting several ways to arrange student desks in a classroom, Jones indicates that any arrangement that provides quick and easy access to all students is likely to be successful. Jones also prefers to have assigned seats for students to disperse the good students between the chronic disrupters.

Maintain control in the classroom by using appropriate instructional strategies and limit-setting techniques. Jones maintains that teachers lose control of their classes when they spend too much time with each student, such as during seatwork. Teachers commonly spend time to find out where a student is having difficulty, to explain further the part the student doesn't understand, and to supply students with additional explanations and examples. Instead, Jones recommends that teachers use the three-step sequence of praise, prompt, and leave. In this sequence, teachers first praise students for what they have done correctly so far. Second, prompt students by telling them exactly what to do next and encourage them to do it. The teacher then leaves to let the student take the needed action and also to be available to help other students.

Another aspect of maintaining control is by setting limits. Jones proposed a series of specific actions that can be taken when a student is getting off-task. These techniques primarily involve the use of body language to convince the students that the teacher is in control. These steps involve being aware of and monitoring the behavior of all students: terminating instruction when necessary to deal with a student; turning, looking, and saying the student's name; moving to the edge of the student's desk; moving away from the student's desk when the student gets back to work; placing your palms on the desk and giving a short, direct verbal prompt if the student does not get back to work; moving closer over the desk; and finally moving next to the student behind the student's desk.

Build patterns of cooperation with your students. Jones proposed an incentive system called Preferred Activity Time (PAT) that can be used so students can earn certain benefits if they behave and cooperate. The PAT may be a variety of activities and privileges that
are given to the class as a whole at the start of a predetermined time (a week’s worth). When an individual student misbehaves, the teacher uses a stopwatch or timer to record the length of time of the infraction, and this amount of time is subtracted from the class’s total time. On the other hand, students can earn bonus time for the class by cleaning up the classroom in a hurry, being in their seats in time, or some other desired behavior.

Last of all, develop appropriate backup systems in the event of misbehavior. Backups are to be used systematically from lesser sanctions to more serious ones. Low-level sanctions involve issuing a warning; pulling a card with the student’s name, address, and telephone number; and then sending a letter to the parents. (But first the student is given an opportunity to correct the behavior; if so, then the letter is not sent.) Mid-level sanctions include time-out, detention, loss of privileges, and a parent conference. High-level sanctions include in-school suspension, Saturday school, delivering the student to a parent at work, asking a parent to accompany the student in school, suspension, police intervention, and expulsion.

Behaviorism and Punishment: James Dobson

Many educators endorse behavior modification as an effective means to deal with misbehavior, but few educators support the use of corporal punishment as one of the consequences to be used in behavior modification. James Dobson is among those who support the use of corporal punishment. At least 27 states, however, have banned the use of corporal punishment in schools (Hyman, 1997).

James Dobson is a licensed psychologist who first gained national recognition with his book Dare to Discipline (1970). When the context of his book became out of date, Dobson wrote The New Dare to Discipline (1992) to provide parents and teachers with his updated views on child rearing. Simply stated, he maintains that healthy, happy kids typically emerge from homes where parents achieve a balance between love and control.

While The New Dare to Discipline includes many chapters that are of interest primarily to parents, some material is directed to teachers. His fundamental convictions about raising children are expressed. He maintains that children thrive best in an atmosphere of genuine love, undergirded by reasonable, consistent discipline. Permissiveness has failed as an approach to child rearing, and children need to be taught self-discipline and responsible behavior. The children need assistance to learn how to handle the challenges and obligations of living.

Children must understand that they must obey parents and teachers so that they can be protected and taken care of properly. Parents and teachers have a responsibility to establish clear boundaries for appropriate behavior. In the absence of clear boundaries, permissiveness occurs, resulting in childish disrespect, defiance, and the general confusion that occurs in the absence of adult leadership. The consequences for stepping out of these boundaries of appropriate behavior also should be strong. In relating a classroom example, Dobson (1992) endorses giving children “the maximum reason to comply with your wishes” (p. 118).

Corporal punishment is acceptable under certain circumstances. Dobson states that children must learn that there are dangers in the social world, such as defiance, sassiness, selfishness, temper tantrums, behavior that puts your life in danger, and others. He main-
tains that the minor pain from corporal punishment that is associated with this deliberate misbehavior tends to inhibit it, just as discomfort works to shape behavior in the physical world. Corporal punishment should be used infrequently. There are other punishments that also could be used, such as time-out or loss of privileges.

Dobson believes that it is acceptable to begin spanking children from the age of eighteen months. He suggests that most corporal punishment should stop prior to the first grade (six years old). For older children and teenagers, Dobson suggests lost privileges, financial deprivation, related forms of nonphysical retribution, or other creative approaches. He notes that corporal punishment is not effective at the junior and senior high school levels, and he does not recommend its use there. It can be useful for elementary students, especially with amateur clowns. But Dobson cautions that corporal punishment that is not administered according to very carefully thought out guidelines is a dangerous thing.

Dobson believes that corporal punishment will inflict pain and thus teach the child a lesson about how to behave. He states that it is an effective technique and that it works well with young children. Only by startling children with pain will they learn the boundaries of acceptable behavior to be remembered for adult life. Direct commands, reinforcement, and isolation are effective additional means of punishment.

DECIDING ON YOUR APPROACH TO CONTROL

To what degree do you want to exercise control in your classroom? That is the fundamental question when deciding on your approach to classroom management and discipline. To answer that question, you will likely consider a number of factors, such as your views of educational philosophy, psychology, and child development. For example, when determining your approach to control, you will likely take into account your beliefs about what is the dominant influence on a child's development—inner forces, outer forces, or a combination of the two. You may want to review Table 2.2, which outlines the proponents of various discipline models.

Your examination of these issues will probably reveal whether you are inclined to use low, medium, or high control approaches. After determining your relative position on the teacher control continuum, decide whether you want to use a particular discipline model, synthesize two or more models, or create your own approach. The teacher behavior continuum helps you see the philosophical range of decisions you might make concerning order. Even if you choose one model, you may find that the context of the classroom and the actual events cause you to shift from that model and use elements of other approaches. You don't have to accept the entire set of actions proposed by a certain model.

When determining the relative merits of the different discipline models, it may be useful to establish criteria to compare the relative characteristics, strengths, and weaknesses of each model. As a means of evaluation, Edwards (2000) proposes using questions that focus on whether the plan helps the child become more self-disciplined and autonomous, promotes a good self-concept and good classroom behavior, prevents discipline problems, is consistent with the instructional program, and is easy to implement.

This chapter provides a brief orientation to the various models of discipline, ranging from low to high teacher control. Rather than proposing one model of discipline from
Table 2.2 Proponents of Various Discipline Models

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<tr>
<th>The Guiding Model</th>
<th>The Interacting Model</th>
<th>The Intervening Model</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low Control Approaches</td>
<td>Medium Control Approaches</td>
<td>High Control Approaches</td>
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**Congruent Communication**

*Haim Ginott*
- Use same messages
- Invite student cooperation
- Express helpfulness and acceptance

**Group Management**

*Fritz Redl and William Wattenberg*
- Deal with behavior of the group
- Identify student roles in the group
- Use influence against misbehavior

**Discipline as Self-Control**

*(Teacher Effectiveness Training)*

*Thomas Gordon*
- Identify problem ownership
- Maximize communication
- Use the power of influence

**Teaching with Love and Logic**

*Jim Ray and David Pink*
- Share control with students
- Maintain student self-concepts
- Balance consequences with empathy

**Inner Discipline**

*Barbara Coloroso*
- Enable students to solve problems
- Provide support and structure
- Treat students with dignity and respect

**From Discipline to Community**

*Alfie Kohn*
- Provide an engaging curriculum
- Develop a caring community
- Allow students to make choices

**Logical Consequences**

*Rudolf Dreikurs*
- Teach in a democratic manner
- Identify and confront students' mistaken goals
- Use logical consequences

**Cooperative Discipline**

*Linda Albert*
- Establish a sense of belonging
- Build student self-esteem
- Promote cooperative relationships

**Positive Classroom Discipline**

*Jane Nelson, Lynn Lott, and H. Stephen Glenn*
- Use classroom meetings
- Exhibit caring attitudes and behaviors
- Use management skills

**Noncoercive Discipline**

*(Reality Therapy and Control Theory)*

*William Glasser*
- Provide quality education
- Help students make good decisions
- Provide support and encouragement

**Discipline with Dignity**

*Richard Curwin and Allen Mendler*
- Create a three-dimensional plan
- Establish a social contract
- Teach students to make responsible choices

**Judicious Discipline**

*Forrest Gathercoal*
- Help students understand their rights and responsibilities
- Involve students in rule selection
- Deliver consequences to improve behavior

**Behavior Modification**

*B. F. Skinner*
- Identify desired behaviors
- Shape behavior through reinforcement
- Use behavior modification systematically

**Assertive Discipline**

*Lee and Marlene Carter*
- Recognize classroom rights
- Teach desired behavior
- Establish consequences

**Positive Discipline**

*Fredric Jones*
- Structure classrooms
- Set limits and promote cooperation
- Have backup systems

**Behaviorism and Punishment**

*James Dobson*
- Provide a balance of love and control
- Set clear boundaries
- Use strong consequences

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**MAIN P**

1. A contr control can views expression and discipline.
2. Low con belief that it is to make.
3. Educator are Haim Gi Gordon, Jim Kohn.
4. Medium selection bet of natural and a child's envir is a joint res.

**DISCUSS**

1. What are the associated with control?
2. Recall a that was an of control?

**SUGGESTIONS**

1. Prepare a the relative for each discipline.
2. Using the various models in this chapter.
3. Talk with teachers who of this. As.
those described in this chapter, a synthesis of information from researchers and practitioners is presented in the following chapters. This chapter provides a philosophical perspective concerning the degree of teacher control you would like to establish.

MAIN POINTS

1. A continuum showing a range of low to high teacher control can be used to illustrate the various educational views expressed by educators about classroom management and discipline.
2. Low control approaches are based on the philosophical belief that students have primary responsibility for controlling their own behavior and that they have the capability to make these decisions.
3. Educators representative of the low control approach are Haim Ginott, Fritz Redl, William Wattenberg, Thomas Gordon, Jan Fay, David Funk, Barbara Coloroso, and Alfie Kohn.
4. Medium control approaches are based on the philosophical belief that students develop from a combination of natural forces within the child and outer forces of the child's environment. Thus, the control of student behavior is a joint responsibility of the student and the teacher.

DISCUSSION/REFLECTIVE QUESTIONS

1. What are the merits and problems that might be associated with each of the three levels of teacher control?
2. Recall a favorite teacher you had. What level of control did that teacher use? What are the indicators of that level of control?

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Prepare a list of items comprising the criteria to assess the relative characteristics, strengths, and weaknesses of each discipline model.
2. Using the list of criteria you selected to assess the various models of discipline, assess each of the plans reviewed in this chapter.
3. Talk with several students about their experiences with teachers who use low, medium, and high control approaches. Assess their experiences.
4. Talk with several teachers to learn about the degree of control they use in the classroom. See if they use one particular model, a combination of several models, or their own unique approach.
5. Talk with the school counselor or psychologist to get an appraisal of the three levels of teacher control and the effects on student behavior.