Editor's Note

by Issue Editor: Robert C. Morris

In many classrooms across the nation a climate of interest, co-operation, and purposeful activity exists. Students show the teacher and one another mutual respect and confidence. However, in other classrooms, despite the teacher's best efforts, disruptions and misbehavior make learning almost impossible. These are the classrooms that have attracted negative attention and they are of deep concern to the teaching profession. According to Seyfarth (1996), the lack of discipline is the greatest and most pressing problem facing school personnel today. Teachers worry about the effect disruptive behavior has on learning. There is a consensus that something must be done but little agreement about what to do and how to do it.

Critics of education have attributed student unrest and violence to the decline in SAT scores and the increased permissiveness of the school. Some insist that parents have abdicated their responsibility for instilling values and building character. They say that parents have placed the entire burden of achieving these ends at the school-house door. Others place blame for the misbehavior of youth on the school. Conflicting signals inhibit the efforts of cooperation of parents and teachers. Obviously, to develop a school discipline policy that would please both camps would be ideal. Perhaps the only real public consensus on school discipline is that a climate conducive to learning must exist in the classroom and that the responsibility for developing and maintaining such a climate falls squarely on the shoulders of the classroom teacher who is in charge.

This issue of *Thresholds* will attempt to "revisit" some of the more traditional issues associated with discipline as mentioned above as well as considering some of the more current problems and situations that have emerged and are classified as discipline problems.

Teacher Education and Classroom Discipline: A Candid Conversation between a Teacher and a Professor
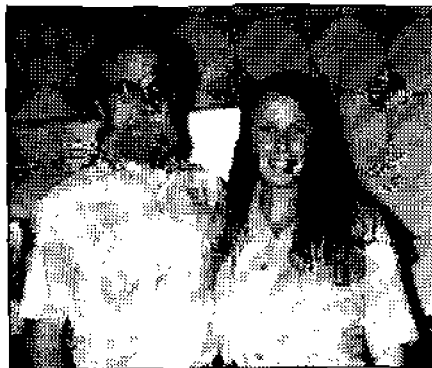
by Wanda G. Newman, Mobile County, Alabama, Public Schools and
Joseph W. Newman, University of South Alabama

Wanda G. Newman is a social science teacher in the Mobile County,
Alabama, public schools. She heads a site-based management team at
Scarborough Middle School. Joseph W. Newman is professor and chair of the
Department of Educational Leadership and Foundations at the University of
South Alabama. He is author of America's Teachers: An Introduction to
Education (1994).

The authors bring two different sets of credentials to this conversation. The teacher, Wanda Newman, is now in her fourth year in the middle school classroom. The professor, Joseph Newman, has taught for a total of twenty-two years, the first two as a high school teacher and the last twenty as a professor of education. The teacher is working on a master's degree in social studies education. The professor holds a doctorate in educational foundations. In these and other ways, their backgrounds are different.

They also bring different points of view to the conversation. The teacher is disappointed with some of the courses and other experiences in her undergraduate education program. Like many classroom teachers, she says nothing in the program really prepared her for the day-in, day-out ordeal of teaching—particularly the important task of disciplining students. Thinking back to the late 1960s and early 1970s, the professor remembers feeling much the same about his own preparation for the classroom. Only now, having spent a long career helping other people get ready to teach, he has to work at not being defensive about what teacher education programs can and cannot accomplish. The fact the teacher and the professor are married shapes the conversation that follows, but they feel it allows them to be even more candid than they might be otherwise. You can be the judge of that as they answer three questions about teacher education and classroom discipline:

What are teacher education programs doing now about discipline?
Why isn't that enough?
What else can be done?

What are Teacher Education Programs Doing Now About Discipline?

The teacher: My undergraduate education program did not offer a full course on discipline. Most of my training on the subject came in small units in two unrelated education courses, one in methods and one in educational psychology. The textbooks we used had a chapter or two that mentioned discipline, and the professors briefly discussed the matter. I remember hearing such words of wisdom as, "If a teacher keeps the students interested in learning, there should not be any behavior problems." I also recall hearing, "If students act out, just ignore them. Misbehavior will not continue if it is not reinforced." This advice seemed useful at the time: "For the truly bad kid, try using a social contract—an agreement to modify behavior with rewards and punishments." Here is one of my favorites: "Okay, we all know there are troubled children in this world. If a child constantly messes up, refer him or her to the special education department." The old faithful suggestion, the one that seemed most logical, was, "If things really get out of hand, send the troublemakers to the office."

The professor: What about field-based courses that got you off the college campus and into the schools?

The teacher: I took several courses that involved observations in schools, I completed an "opening

school experience," and I student taught for one quarter. All these experiences were positive, especially student teaching, but none of them taught me very much about discipline. Instead, the emphasis was on staying positive and keeping the kids motivated. Because I had neither talked with many teachers nor been in charge of my own classroom, I felt well prepared to handle any discipline problems. After all, the professors were professionals, and they knew what they were talking about. Right?

The professor: Of course you're right, but I can see where this conversation is headed, and I think I see an ambush waiting around the bend. To try to avoid it, let me admit I heard, during my student days, the same advice you heard. Even if some of it seems a bit simplistic and naive, it's not all bad. In fact, if you take those suggestions together, they add up to a pretty good set of guidelines. The key is learning to judge classroom situations so you will know when to use each suggestion. Student teaching is designed to help you do that. Then, when you get your first teaching job, you can continue sharpening your judgment and refining your disciplinary skills.

Professors of education can help you get started, but you must keep learning on your own, on the job.

Why Isn't That Enough?

The teacher: It sounds like you're ducking responsibility and passing the buck. After talking with a few teachers, I quickly learned it has been years since most professors of education have taught in K-12 schools. You, my husband, are a prime example. Some professors have *never* taught outside the university. I suspect education professors don't want to discuss discipline

because they realize kids have changed, and they don't have a clue about what's really going on in schools today.

My attempts to ignore students who were acting out just allowed them to put on a show and get more attention. Some students love to see how far they can go for a laugh.

What I learned about discipline in the college of education wasn't even close to what I needed. Let me return to those wonderful suggestions you first apologized for and then defended. During my first year of teaching, I worked at motivating the students. Trying to use all the tricks in the bag I had been given in college, I painfully discovered there are kids who refuse to study, learn, work in cooperative groups, or do anything else except get into trouble. My attempts to ignore students who were acting out just allowed them to put on a show and get more attention. Some students love to see how far they can go for a laugh. I found social contracts work well with a few students but fail with dozens more. And some kids *want* to be referred to the special education department so they can play more and try to qualify for the SSI benefits they call "crazy checks."

I want to spend more time discussing the old faithful suggestion of sending kids to the office because so many new teachers think of it as their backup strategy. I wish my professors had told me how several things can limit the effectiveness of

this strategy. First, teachers have to watch their reputations. Teachers who send kids to the office at the drop of a hat can become known for being unable to handle their classes. Untenured teachers who get that reputation may jeopardize their next contract, or so they fear. Second, the front office can easily become overloaded when too many teachers refer students for relatively minor offenses. In some schools, insubordination and disruption are considered minor offenses, and administrators simply tell the offenders to behave and send them back to class. Even after repeated offenses, students may get three swats from a paddle and return to class laughing. Finally, some administrators all but refuse to suspend students. Administrators have reasons ranging from wanting to keep kids off the streets to wanting to keep the school below the district's unofficial quota for suspensions.

Why did I have to wait until I got my first job to find out the rules of this game? Why didn't my professors prepare me to handle kids who repeatedly tell me my mama ain't nothing?

The professor: You've said a lot and asked a lot. Let me begin by pointing out professors of education are in closer touch with reality than you seem to realize. Faculty members in our college of education average five years of teaching experience in public schools. Very few have no K-12 experience. If you check national studies of teacher education (Goodlad et al., 1990), you will see the same patterns. Although it is true most professors have not had their own K-12 classrooms for several years, that doesn't mean we don't keep up with schools. Many of us visit schools regularly to supervise student teachers, conduct research, teach inservice courses, and provide service in a variety of other ways.

The teacher: And many of you don't. Some of you, in fact, never

darken the door of a school. Also, there's a big difference between "visiting" a school and working there.

The professor: True enough, but please allow me to continue. Because *most* professors of education know schools, most of us agree with veteran teacher Susan Ohanian (1985) that there are no "stir-and-serve recipes for teaching." Whenever I feel professors of education are letting teachers down—and believe me, I often do—I reread an article from *Phi Delta Kappan* in which Ohanian gets us partly off the hook by explaining we can only help teachers *begin* their professional education. While they are beginners, we can help them open their minds and give them a sense of purpose and direction so they can continue to learn on the job. But Ohanian says teachers should not expect professors to give them guaranteed formulas and foolproof cookbooks for any area of teaching—particularly not for something as complex as classroom discipline.

The teacher: I still think you're ducking your responsibility.

The professor: Hold on. I need to tell you the rest of Ohanian's message: Too many professors of education teach "stupid" courses that are worthless to teachers. She says professors need to leave their ivory towers more often and find out more about what's going on in schools. Professors of education are not nearly as helpful to teachers as they could be, she claims. I agree.

In fact, I am ready to confess we are guilty as charged in most of the areas you have mentioned. If we were in schools often enough and long enough to see administrators handling discipline referrals, to cite just one example, we might realize the importance of explaining to prospective teachers how that game is played, even though the rules do vary from administrator to administrator and school to school. So in the

spirit of agreement, let's turn to the last and most important question.

Teacher education programs need to offer—no, require—a full course in discipline for prospective teachers.

What Else Can Be Done?

The teacher: Once I got my own classroom, it didn't take me long to see teacher education programs need to offer—no, require—a full course in discipline for prospective teachers. You and I both know there is no one correct way for teachers to manage their classes. But a required course could suggest basic dos and don'ts and help teachers examine alternative strategies. An excellent textbook for the course would be C. M. Charles' *Building Classroom Discipline* (1996), a book that surveys ten different models ranging from Lee Canter's assertive discipline to William Glasser's discipline without coercion. Who teaches the course is more important than the textbook. I'd like to see classroom teachers from local schools serve as instructors or at least help keep you professors on track when you try to teach the course based on what you remember from long ago.

In addition to taking a course on discipline, prospective teachers need to spend more time in schools. The observations and field experiences in my program were the most practical part because they put me in contact with real teachers and real students. I'd like to see student

teaching extended over an entire school year, which would give prospective teachers more time to observe and assist their cooperating teachers before they actually take charge of the class. But I think I'm probably asking teacher education programs to change too much.

Here's a more workable suggestion: Every prospective teacher should be required to substitute teach. This change would be easier to implement because it would demand no extra courses, no extra anything, on the program's part. Everything would be up to the prospective teacher, who would be required to spend, say, ten days working as a substitute teacher before graduation. More days would be even better. If that requirement had been in effect while I was an undergraduate, I would have jumped to fulfill it. Not only would substituting help prospective teachers learn about discipline and almost every other part of their future work, it would also help school districts that always seem to be running short of subs.

The professor: I like your ideas, especially your last proposal. I haven't heard that one before, although I have heard most of your other recommendations from teachers I've worked with over the years. And you might be surprised how many professors of education would agree with much of what you've proposed.

The teacher: So what's the problem? Why not just do it?

The professor: Universities are resistant to change, and so are school districts. Both are comfortable doing business as usual. Let's consider your proposal of a required course in discipline for prospective teachers. Every time I hear the proposal discussed in my college of education, I sense more support than opposition. Then the institutional excuse-making begins. Most of us professors don't feel qualified to teach the course our-

selves, but we all know colleagues we think can do the job. Invariably, these colleagues are already busy with their regular assignments, thank you, but they might be willing to teach the course if the college made it a requirement. But if the course were required, it would probably have to replace an existing requirement, because political pressure has forced colleges of education to shrink rather than expand their programs for the last two decades. So whose required course would we push aside to make room for the new discipline course? Not my foundations course! Not one of the existing educational psychology courses, either, and not one of the methods or curriculum courses, and not...

The teacher: This discussion is making me sick. To think you professors get defensive about your little pieces of academic turf when you know teachers are being miseducated and underexposed to kids and classrooms.

The professor: Some teacher education programs have declared a truce in their turf wars and required a discipline course, you will be glad to know, but the course is no panacea. As you implied, it has to be well taught to be valuable. That's why I'm especially interested in your recommendation that classroom teachers help teach the course. Before that could happen, though, we would have to fight another kind of turf war, this one between universities and schools. Universities, with their air of academic superiority, are reluctant to let K-12 teachers serve even as adjunct instructors. I came face to face with this attitude recently when, in discussing the topic of discipline, one of my colleagues remarked, "We can't allow classroom teachers to teach university courses. Our faculty and administration wouldn't go for it, and our students wouldn't accept it. A principal with a doctorate might be

okay, but not a regular teacher with just a master's degree."

Imagine how much you could learn about discipline if, after participating in a seminar led by a teacher and a professor, you could walk right down the hall and watch the teacher put disciplinary strategies into action.

The teacher: Now I'm really upset. No one is better qualified to teach a course on classroom discipline than a person who works in a classroom full time. Surely your colleague knows teachers and administrators have different jobs and different points of view. I want classroom teachers' perspectives to dominate the course.

The professor: I agree, but let me talk about another of your suggestions. Turning student teaching into a full-year internship sounds great. My undergraduate foundations students hit on the idea every quarter and decide it's the solution to all our problems. But as you seem to realize, change cannot occur without upsetting business as usual. Would school districts pay intern teachers for their work? Would colleges of education make further cuts in existing courses to keep from lengthening their teacher education programs? How much time and money would students be willing to invest to become teachers?

The teacher: I realize those are tough questions, and that's why I hedged on my recommendation.

The professor: Let's not give up yet. One of the most promising signs on the horizon is the opening of *professional development schools* as joint ventures between universities and K-12 schools (Holmes Group, 1990). Professional development schools are real public schools that serve as clinical sites for teacher education. They are places where education professors and experienced teachers and administrators work together. Prospective teachers reap the benefits of genuine collaboration. Imagine how much teacher education could improve if a good share of the work moved from the college campus to a public school. Imagine how much you could learn about discipline if, after participating in a seminar led by a teacher and a professor, you could walk right down the hall and watch the teacher put disciplinary strategies into action.

The teacher: That will never happen in my school district or at my university.

The professor: Teachers across the nation are saying that, and they have every reason to be skeptical. Professional development schools represent a break with established ways of doing business. They are also expensive to operate. But they are already in place around the country, and your university and school district have in fact started one professional development school and made plans for several others. If your middle school became a professional development school, what could prospective teachers learn there about discipline?

The teacher: They could see how our Model Middle School plan is improving discipline. This site-based management program, now in every middle school in the district, revolves around teaching teams who share the same students.

Team members have a common planning period, which we often spend discussing discipline problems. We have lots of success using the telephone to contact and involve parents. Some of us even have cellular phones in our classrooms, and we use them to call parents on the spot. The Model Middle School plan gives us the power to recommend whatever courses of disciplinary action we think appropriate for our students — even suspension as a last resort. One of the most positive outcomes of the plan is that the number of students sent to the office has been cut in half. We teachers are able to handle more of our own problems. Prospective teachers could sit in on one of our team meetings and learn more about discipline in an hour than they do in one of your education courses all quarter.

The professor: Okay, you've made your point. Just don't drive it off the cliff. Whenever my founda-tions students observe in your school, they tell me how much they've learned. So I will try to get in the last word in this conversation by suggesting we build on it to prepare teachers for more effective classroom discipline.

The teacher: Spoken like a true professor of education. Nice thought, nice words, but watch the follow through.

References

Charles, C. M. *Building classroom discipline,* 5th ed. White Plains, New York: Longman, 1996.

Goodlad, J. I., Soder, R., and Sirotnik, K. A. *Places where teachers are taught.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1990.

Holmes Group. *Tomorrow's schools: Principles for the design of professional development schools.* East Lansing, MI: Holmes Group, 1990.

Ohanian, S. "On stir-and-serve recipes for teaching." *Phi Delta Kappan* 66 (June 1985): 696-701.

Contrasting Disciplinary Models in Education

by Robert C. Morris

Department of Educational Leadership & Foundations, State University of West Georgia, Carrollton, GA

The literature available about classroom management/discipline is sizable. It is, however, often difficult to find help in the myriad of answers. According to Wang, Haertel, and Walberg, an analysis of 50 years of research on the topic reveals that direct influences like classroom management affect student learning more than indirect influences such as policies. So what has discipline and classroom management become? Many authors define classroom management as the frame work of running a classroom. Others see classroom management as another type of discipline program. Some programs focus on the students' part in discipline, while others place the burden of discipline solely on the teacher. Consider some of the following ideas gleaned from the literature of today.

Teacher remedies for discipline problems today can be grouped into two large categories. One is labeled reactive and the other, proactive discipline (Ban, 1994). According to Ban, the reactive approach to discipline is the most common among teachers in public schools. Teachers react when discipline problems occur by deciding what to do on the spot and how to handle them. Ban points out that the misbehavior has not been anticipated and that a teacher usually has no plan of action to deal with the problem at hand. This method of dealing on the spot creates inconsistency that will eventually undermine the teacher's

authority. Reactive teachers resort to a mixture of reactions, most varying from day to day, from student to student, and from circumstance to circumstance (Kohn, 1996). In a nut shell, it is an impromptu classroom management style.

Most of the literature reviewed leans toward the more proactive approach to discipline. Proactive discipline is defined by Kohn (1996) as discipline that is predicted on the necessity for forethought, anticipation, preparation, and consistency with regard to teacher behavior and the consequences of the students' misbehavior. Where reactive discipline is impromptu, proactive discipline is systematic. And, like any usable system, it is made up of components that can be learned and used. Psychologists and educators alike have identified and established eight specific discipline models that fit into the proactive and reactive categories. Each model has its own characteristics, advantages, and disadvantages. What follows is a short review of those models or categories and significant insights about each.

The Neo-Skinnerian Model

The first discipline model is the Neo-Skinnerian Model. It focuses on the research of behavior psychologist, B. F. Skinner, in addition to new ideas from other psychologists who apply Skinner's findings to solutions for handling classroom

behavior. This discipline model is based on Skinner's notion that "human behavior can be shaped along desired lines by means of the systematic application of reinforcement" (Charles, 1993). In other words, if an authority figure, in this case the teacher, provides reinforcement, she/he can shape a student's behavior.

What reinforcement? Reinforcement involves the use of consequences to strengthen behavior (Woolfork, 1995). Reinforcement can be positive or negative; however, both types not only strengthen behavior but cause the behavior to be repeated. Positive reinforcement involves rewards such as extra recess, bonus points, and candy. After a desired behavior is observed by a teacher, she/he "rewards" the student. Typically, a student will continue to repeat this desired behavior in hopes of obtaining another reward.

The other type of reinforcement focuses on the negative to strengthen behavior and involves taking away an undesirable stimulus, such as escaping cleaning your room or faking sickness to get out of taking a test. Many people confuse negative reinforcement with punishment; however, the main difference between the two is that, again, *reinforcement strengthens behavior whereas punishment suppresses behavior.*

Reinforcement is a major component of the Neo-Skinnerian discipline model. Of course, teachers

must learn to use reinforcement so that it is effective in producing desired behaviors. An important factor to consider when using reinforcement is how often to provide it. A schedule of reinforcement is essential when a teacher uses reinforcement as part of a discipline plan, i.e., the frequency with which reinforcement is supplied (Edwards, 1993). An intermittent reinforcement schedule appears to be the most effective. It allows the teacher to provide reinforcement at various times, not after *every* desired response (or behavior) is given. This intermittent schedule encourages children to continuously work hard because they know "soon" they will be rewarded.

The notion of reinforcement supports several principles of the Neo-Skinnerian model. The following three principles form the foundation of this model: 1.) Specify rules clearly; 2.) ignore disruptive behavior; and 3.) praise children for following rules (Skinner, 1971). The reinforcement schedule ties closely with the praising aspect for following rules. It is helpful if teachers will ignore undesirable behavior and *acknowledge*, praise, and reward desirable behaviors.

It is easy to see that there is an advantage to this particular discipline model. Teachers can obtain desired behaviors and shape behaviors through reinforcement. However, there are also disadvantages to the Neo-Skinnerian discipline model. First, all students may not be receptive to the reinforcement concept. Some students will still misbehave! Others may respond to peer reinforcement instead of teacher reinforcement. In that case, the teacher would need to somehow adapt discipline procedures and possibly incorporate peer evaluations, suggestions, and reinforcements. Finally, teachers must be cautious about the use of punishment. Instead of using negative reinforcement, teachers use punish-

ment. Although punishment can stop undesired behavior, it can also backfire in the long run. "If students see punishment as unwarranted, malicious, or excessive, bad feelings result that are difficult to overcome" (Skinner, 1971). These bad feelings could create a permanent communication barrier between teacher and student and, also, create more discipline problems.

The Redl and Wattenberg Model

Fritz Redl and William Wattenberg address the concept of dealing with students as a group. Redl and Wattenberg focus their discipline model on the following idea: "Group behavior differs from individual behavior. Teachers can learn how to use influence techniques to deal with undesirable aspects of group behavior" (Redl and Wattenberg, 1959).

Redl and Wattenberg describe "key students" in every group or class. For example, each individual class has a couple of students who are leaders—those who naturally guide their peers through activities. Also, each class has a clown (the class entertainer) and instigators (troublemakers). By recognizing which roles students assume in the classroom, the teacher is more aware of and better prepared for different types of classroom disruptions which will affect the *whole* class.

Redl and Wattenberg also identify group dynamics as an essential part of their discipline model. In addition to teachers understanding how certain students (i.e., class clown and instigator) can affect group behavior, they must also be aware of the "group's own psychological forces that strongly influence individuals" (Charles, 1992). In group dynamics, the teacher must be ready for a "ripple effect" of undesirable behaviors. Sometimes a

group of students is waiting for one disruption which will ignite all students to be disruptive. Other group behaviors, such as scapegoating (blaming one student) and the teacher's pet notion, can trigger a class into chaos. Students can quickly put each other on the defensive and create havoc for the teacher. As part of the model, Redl and Wattenberg encourage teachers to anticipate certain behaviors and be ready to handle the problems from a group perspective.

In order to handle discipline problems effectively, teachers must understand the roles and images that students envision them fulfilling. It is essential for teachers to be consistent in the roles they do assume.

In addition to examining student composition of a group, teachers should also examine their different psychological roles. Redl and Wattenberg offer a list of these different issues and images. In order to handle discipline problems effectively, teachers must understand the roles and images that students envision them fulfilling. It is essential for teachers to be consistent in the roles they do assume. The diagnostic thinking approach involves a *first hunch, fact gathering , hidden factors, acting, and flexibility.*

The idea of first hunch refers to the teacher's idea of what is causing the problem. Fact gathering involves the teacher acknowledging obvious, observable actions or things. Hidden factors can be discovered by the teacher investigating in depth the incident, including the participants. Once the teacher has thoroughly investigated and examined the situation, she/he is ready to act and to try to resolve the problem. Finally, the teacher must be flexible. If the first solution does not resolve the problem, try another one. Redl and Wattenberg feel this approach is helpful if the teacher takes the time to understand her function as a peacemaker in the classroom.

In conjunction with the diagnostic thinking approach, influence techniques and the Pain-Pleasure Principle are also effective in this discipline model. Influence techniques force the teacher to establish an understanding of the discipline situation and choose appropriate methods for handling the problem so that positive behavior is encouraged. The Pain-Pleasure Principle can be explained as follows: "pain refers to unpleasant consequences for the student, and pleasure refers to pleasant consequences for the student" (Redl, 1972). It is imperative that teachers enforce and provide consequences, both positive and negative, consistently, or else students will disregard the teacher's attempt at discipline and classroom management.

The Redl and Wattenberg discipline model offers teachers effective ways to handle students as a group. This model continuously points out behavior characteristics of a group versus characteristics of individuals. The major disadvantage of this model is that it is unrealistic to expect that teachers have either the time or expertise to carry out in-depth diagnoses and remediations with the large numbers of students under their direction.

Kounin Model

Jacob Kounin's discipline model focuses on effective lesson management. His approach examines a teacher's presentation of a lesson and its effect on students' behavior. Kounin draws a correlation between the way in which teachers issue *desists* (remarks intended to stop misbehavior) and the impact of these desists on everyone in the class. He finds that a "ripple effect" is produced. *All* students react to desists, not just the disruptive student. Kounin's model emphasizes the use and effects of desists with the concepts of clarity, firmness, and roughness. Teachers should ensure that desists are clearly spoken and understood. Firmness and roughness do not impact the effectiveness of desists as much as the clarity.

When teaching a lesson, Kounin's model is emphasizing the importance of "with-it-ness." With-it-ness refers to the fact that the teacher knows what is happening *everywhere* in the classroom at *all* times. A teacher's nonverbal communication plays a significant role in this concept. For example, a student is writing a note to a friend while the teacher is lecturing. The teacher keeps lecturing while she takes up the note and throws it away. Without speaking a harsh reprimand, the teacher has illustrated that she is aware of what is happening in the classroom. It is felt that when teachers reflect the concept of "with-it-ness" to their classes, students are more apt to stay on task and to behave appropriately (Kounin, 1977).

The last part of Kounin's discipline model focuses on lesson management. By using this model, teachers should be able to keep the students focused on tasks. Behavior problems are minimized and learning can become interesting by challenging students and offering a variety of activities. The teacher should monitor students' progress

and communicate this progress to the students consistently. Finally, teachers should pace their lessons appropriately and smoothly with transitions from one topic to the next.

Kounin's discipline model has several advantages. It helps the teacher create a "with-it-ness" image about him- or herself in the classroom, which helps maintain discipline. It also aids the teacher in handling situational discipline problems through the use of desists. For example, by asking one pair of students to stop talking, the whole class will get quiet as a result.

There are, however, also several disadvantages to Kounin's discipline model. Students do not necessarily take personal responsibility for their behaviors, nor do they learn a lesson from the use of desists. The desists are used to immediately stop behavior, not to teach the appropriate way to behave. Furthermore, Kounin's model offers suggestions on preventing behavioral problems from occurring in the classroom but not necessarily for providing strategies to deal with serious problems when they arise.

The Ginott Model

In Ginott's discipline model, "communication is the key." In this case, the communication is between the teacher and the students. Teachers need to make their students feel accepted, even when they make a mistake. By keeping the lines of communication open, students are able to learn more effectively. For example, students learn through trial-and-error experiences. If teachers are understanding when a child makes a mistake, the child (it is felt) will be more willing to keep experiencing and learning. In addition, this open communication promotes autonomy among the students. The teacher encourages and remains sensitive to the child's needs. In fact, the teacher helps satisfy the defi-

ciency needs of Maslow's hierarchy which must be fulfilled before the child can advance through the basic needs.

Besides the promotion of positive communication between teacher and student, Ginott's model emphasizes the use of *sane messages*. These messages address the situation rather than the student's character (Ginott, 1973). Sane messages may be used to address an individual's problem (such as not completing homework) or a minor discipline problem (such as a student getting up while the teacher is talking). Because the teacher addresses the situation, the child feels less threatened by the teacher and is more willing to listen to the teacher's resolution or response to the situation. Also, the tone and sincerity in the teacher's voice when issuing the sane message impacts the effectiveness of the message.

When handling discipline problems, Ginott discourages teachers from the use of punishment. "Good discipline requires teachers to act with kindness and patience over a period of time" (Edwards, 1993). Teachers *must* be in control of their emotions when addressing a discipline problem and not let the problem become a "teacher versus student" situation. Also, by finding alternative means for discipline besides punishment, teachers can make discipline in the classroom a learning experience for all students.

Ginott's discipline model has several advantages. First, the formation of a positive, friendly rapport between teacher and students enhances the classroom learning environment. Secondly, "it emphasizes students' autonomy and promotes students' self-concepts" (Ginott, 1973). Finally, Ginott offers suggestions for preventing and handling a variety of (minor) discipline problems.

The disadvantages of Ginott's discipline model are that the strategies for addressing discipline problems are very broad and that the different parts of this model are not networked as one model. By most estimations, this model should be more comprehensive and cohesive.

The Dreikurs Model

Rudolf Dreikurs' discipline model emphasizes the use of student choice in affairs of the classroom and the use of democratic ideals. "Dreikurs believes that behavior is the result of one's own biased interpretations of the world" (Edwards, 1993). Every child views and interprets situations differently, and this should be a guiding principle for teachers as they communicate with their students.

Dreikurs' discipline model focuses on understanding why students behave a particular way in the classroom. He believes there are four basic reasons which explain why children misbehave in school. These reasons range from gaining attention, exercising power, exacting revenge, to displaying inadequacy (Edwards, 1993). By discovering and understanding the motives of children's disruptive behavior, teachers can develop strategies to handle particular problems — thus not allowing behavior to interfere with learning. Dreikurs also encourages teachers to openly communicate with students concerning the motives/purposes for misbehaving.

In addition to identifying motives for children's behavior, Dreikurs' model suggests that teachers use words of encouragement to demonstrate to students that they believe in them. This kind of activity will not only boost students' self-esteem and confidence, it will help keep students on task and minimize classroom disruption. In addition to encouragement, teachers should offer sincere praise to students who have done a good job on a particular task (Dreikurs, 1982).

The final component of Dreikurs' discipline model focuses on the concept of logical consequences. Prior to providing these consequences, teachers must establish simple, specific classroom rules. Once rules are established, a teacher should outline a logical sequence of consequences. By establishing consequences, students are forced to accept responsibility for their own behavior. Some teachers even allow students to help devise class rules and consequences. Dreikurs believes this can help deter discipline problems because the students work cooperatively to establish their own "common" rules and procedures. His thinking is that when students work together, there is an added bonus of improving interpersonal skills.

Dreikurs' discipline model obviously has advantages and disadvantages. One advantage is that the model promotes communication and respect between teacher and students. It also allows students a degree of autonomy, whether it is through the idea of taking responsibility for one's own actions or through the idea of helping to establish class rules. Furthermore, the logical consequences provide a fair, consistent aspect to a discipline plan.

There are several disadvantages to this model. First, teachers may have a difficult time identifying and understanding students' motives for misbehavior. Additionally, once teachers have established the motive for misbehavior, they still may not know how to respond to the inappropriate behavior. Finally, teachers may have a difficult time judging the sincerity of student motives.

Assertive Discipline Model

Lee Canter is the founder of the Assertive Discipline Model. He be-

lieves that "teachers are assertive when they make their expectations clear and follow through with established consequences" (Woolfolk, 1995). He views the assertive teacher as not having bias and if a student breaks a rule, he must pay the price. In this model, the teacher must begin by establishing a classroom behavior plan. This plan should include simple, specific rules, appropriate consequences, and realistic rewards. It will help if a copy of the behavior plan is sent home to parents, as well as displaying a copy in the classroom. This written behavior plan "sends students the message that discipline will be based on *their* behavior, not on the teacher's reactions to it" (Canter, 1994).

A possible immediate obstacle within this model deals with teachers' expectations (negative) about students (Canter, 1994). Canter wants teachers to look beyond physical appearances and hearsay concerning students. Canter stresses that if a teacher expects bad behavior from a student, eventually that student will follow through and cause problems in that classroom. This is a tall order for many teachers.

Canter's discipline model also requires the teacher to not only act assertively but to speak assertively, as well. Teachers must *not get* emotional when responding to discipline problems. They must remain calm and consistently follow an established behavior plan. For example, a student answers a question without raising his/her hand to be identified. The teacher responds by saying, "Don't answer unless you raise your hand and I call on you". The teacher's comment to the student reflects the idea that the student broke a rule — talking out without permission. Also, the teacher's comment appears to serve as a warning to the student, which could be the first consequence of breaking a rule.

Unlike several other discipline models, Canter's assertive discipline encourages the use of punishment. Several types of punishment are suggested: time-out, withdrawal of privileges, detention, parental contact, and referral to an administrator. Punishment, in this case, is used to ensure that undesirable behavior is suppressed.

It is recognizable that Canter's model has some advantages. First, "this model is simple to use, and it attempts to involve parents and administrators in the discipline process" (Canter, 1994). And secondly, the model allows teachers to meet their needs of stopping inappropriate behavior immediately.

A major disadvantage is that assertive discipline typically stops behavior problems for a short duration and does not appear to be effective in the long run. Accordingly, some students become resentful of warnings and punishments. Secondly, because this model is so clear-cut, there is little space for students to learn from their mistakes. In addition, Canter does not include strategies for understanding why children misbehave in the classroom. There is no guidance for teachers to attempt to better understand their students.

The Jones Model

Fredric Jones' discipline model focuses on the notion that teachers need to be able to maximize instructional time in the classroom. Jones emphasizes the importance of effective and efficient classroom management. At the very beginning of the school year, teachers should clearly state class rules and thoroughly explain their expectations to students. For instance, a seating chart should be employed that allows students and teacher sufficient mobility in the classroom as well as visibility of the chalkboard.

The Jones model also stresses the importance of establishing effec-

tive discipline. It is believed that teachers typically lose approximately fifty percent of their instructional time simply because their students are off task or otherwise disturbing the teacher or other class members. Jones suggests that teachers combine body language (such as facial expressions, gestures, and eye contact) with an incentive system to control discipline problems. The Jones model outlines a" back-up" system for use if disruptive behavior continues which includes step-by-step activities for teachers to follow as a student's behavior intensifies. Also the Jones model involves parents and administrators whenever possible (Jones, 1987).

The Jones model appears advantageous because it specifies a set of steps or activities to follow when dealing with discipline problems. This can be very helpful to teachers because it provides structure for their activities. Also, this model encourages teachers, administrators, and parents to work together to combat discipline problems.

A major disadvantage of the Jones model is that student' independence is not encouraged. For example, Jones emphasizes the importance of creating seating charts in which the student does not have the option of choosing a seat. Furthermore, the suggested use of body language may embarrass teachers and make students uncomfortable if taken to extremes.

The Glasser Model

This discipline model suggests that students should have an active role in their education and that teachers should help students become aware of how their behaviors affect the classroom and learning. Glasser suggests that students provide input in the progress of establishing rules and consequences.

Glasser's model also emphasizes the role of students' needs, as suggested by Maslow's hierarchy of

needs deficiency. Glasser wants teachers to acknowledge these needs as they teach and to understand that if these needs are not being met, students will usually not be successful. Glasser believes "that children who fail to satisfy their needs create problems in school" (Glasser, 1977). A teacher's discipline should incorporate these needs and emphasize *student* responsibility for *student* behaviors.

Furthermore, Glasser believes that teachers should help lead students through the curriculum to help increase interest in academics. Too often children are forced to learn through rote memorization. Students become bored and, therefore, start misbehaving in the classroom. Teachers need to make learning applicable to their students' lives. They should employ activities where students take responsibility for their education. Additionally, Glasser encourages cooperative learning which can help satisfy both a student's educational needs and their personal/individual needs.

A major advantage of this discipline approach is the emphasis placed on student independence

and acceptance of responsibility in the classroom. Also, students have the opportunity to work cooperatively with teachers in establishing classroom rules as well as behavior consequences. Also, Glasser's model creates awareness of how significant it is for students to have their needs met.

In contrast, this discipline model puts a strain on teachers to attempt to identify and satisfy their students' needs. During one class period of fifty-five minutes, it is extremely difficult for a teacher to focus on each and every student's needs. Furthermore, by allowing students to play an active role in establishing rules and procedures, classroom meetings may monopolize much of the teacher's instructional time. Finally some students may not have the skills to accurately and appropriately make suggestions to govern a body of students. A large portion of this approach depends on student input.

A Few Final Thoughts

By examining these different discipline models and approaches,

it is hoped that the more positive aspects of each model will emerge. Individually none of these eight discipline models appears to be adequate for today's classrooms—mainly because they were developed around presumptive, ideal classroom characteristics. As theoretical models on discipline emerged, such as the ones in this article, the varied socioeconomic status of the students is not considered. Another internal weakness in the models is their lack of acknowledgement on how teachers must vary their discipline procedures and approaches based on the unique classroom dynamics of each class period.

I am convinced my practical disciplining in the classroom necessitates a blending from these eight theories. However, the important realization is that there is not *one* perfect discipline approach. Teachers must discover what works best for themselves, their students, and their specific situations. Thus, teachers must remain flexible, innovative, and consistent in disciplining their students in the classroom.

Bibliography

Canter, L. (1994). *Scared or prepared: Preventing conflict and violence in your classroom*. Santa Monica: Lee Canter & Associates.

Canter, L. (1978). Be an assertive teacher. *Instructor, 88*, 60.

Charles, C. M. (1992). *Building classroom discipline* (4th Edition). White Plains, NY: Longman Publishing Group.

Dreikus, R. (1968). *Psychology in the classroom* (2nd ed.) New York: Harper & Row.

Dreikus, R., Grunwald, B., and Pepper F. (1982). Maintaining sanity in the classroom.

Edwards, Clifford H. (1993). *Classroom discipline and management*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.

Englander, Meryl E. (1986). *Strategies for classroom discipline*. New York: Praeger Publishers.

Glasser, W. (1977). *Schools without failure*. New York: Harper and Row.

Ginott, H. (1971). *Teacher and child*. New York: Macmillan.

Ginott, H. (1973). Driving children sane. *Today's Education, 62*, 20-25.

Jones, F. (1979). The gentle art of classroom discipline. *National Elementary Principal, 58*, 26-32.

Jones, F. (1987). *Positive classroom discipline*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Kohn, A. (1996). *Beyond discipline: from compliance to community*. ASCD Publications, Alexandria, VA.

Kounin, J. (1971; 1977). *Discipline and group management in classrooms*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Redl, F. (1972). *When we deal with children: Selected writings*. New York: Free Press.

Redl, F. & Wattenberg, W. (1951; 1959). *Mental hygiene in teaching.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and World.

Skinner, B. F. (1971). *Beyond freedom and dignity.* New York: Knopf.

Woolfolk, Anita E. (1995). *Educational Psychology* (6th Edition). Boston: Allyn & Bacon Publishing.

An Alternative Program to Improve Student Behavior: The Focus Program

by Les Potter and Clete Bulach

Les Potter is an assistant professor with the University of West Georgia, Carollton, Georgia. He has been in public education for 24 years, 17 as an administrator. He has worked very closely with at-risk students and alternative programs. Les has developed several programs that are still successfully used in several states. Clete Bulach is an associate professor at the University of West Georgia. He has been in public education for 32 years, 19 as an administrator. His research interests are in the area of school climate with emphasis on discipline as it relates to climate.

All children are given an opportunity to a free education in the United States. Some students, however, find it more difficult to take advantage of the opportunity to learn. Students in educational distress, either caused by or related to behavioral problems, have created many different programs to help solve this national problem. Approximately 2,217 students drop out of school each school day (Children's Defense Fund, 1995). One of the reasons is the increased violence and disruptive behavior among our youth. Several staggering statistics include: 255 youth are arrested for drug offenses; 318 are arrested for alcohol-related offenses; and 327 are arrested for violent crimes in America-EVERY DAY (Children's Defense Fund, 1995). Obviously, this has a tremendous impact on what we do in our schools. We are, in fact, a slice of society.

In South Carolina, where this program originated, the dropout rates are even worse. Statistics released by the State Department indicated that 34 percent of the students who entered first grade in 1980 would not complete high school(At-risk youth in the Pee Dee, 1993). The costs of behavior problems in schools are well understood, and these costs are tremendous. At the school level, many administrators are employed almost exclusively for discipline. If these positions could be eliminated, imagine the cost savings for the district.

The links between out-of-school youths, delinquency, and crime are well known. When young people are not in school, whether through absences or dropping out, many will become involved in delinquent behavior activities. One purpose of the many alternative programs for behavioral-problemed students is to keep them off the streets. But if they are disruptive in school, what do you do with them? We wanted to establish a program at a middle grade school to help the disruptive student be academically productive as well as control his/her behavior. The middle grades are a most critical period for students who are at-risk. A study shows that the intervention at the middle school level is crucial for preventing students from dropping out of high school (Slavin & Maddin, 1987).

Suspension from school results in a large number of students being out of school and, in many cases, excessive suspensions may contribute to students dropping out of school. Students are punished by being excluded from school by suspension, which affects their grades as well as attendance. Students who are at-risk and miss school have a difficult time in maintaining their grades and, upon their return to school, generally get in more trouble. So we see a continuous cycle. This cycle needs to be broken for the sake of the children.

In the district where the study was conducted, the four middle schools had 681 out-of-school suspensions, for a total of 1,532 days in lost attendance during the one school year. This problem led to the creation of the Focus Program at all four middle schools. We will only look at one school, in particular; but the results are very similar for all of the schools.

There are several specific goals for the Focus Program, but for this study we will be concentrating on improving behavior. This goal was to decrease the suspension rate of the students who were selected for the Focus Program, compared to their own pre-enrollment figures.

A Focus Program description was developed by the South Caro-

lina school district for their four middle schools. This description established the following process for the implementation of the Focus Program. The students who were behavior problems in school and were not academically achieving were identified and became involved in this new program. The program provided at-risk students with a broad array of educational opportunities in a self-contained setting for over one-half of the school day. The core curriculum of language arts, reading, social studies, science, and mathematics was provided by the Focus teacher and an aide. The teacher and aide also provided a daily guidance group for students. Students received their electives and physical education in the regular school curriculum. The goal of the Focus Program was to improve students' behavior and academics. The teacher and aide were trained in different teaching and learning styles and focused on behaviors of disaffected students. The training was done in the summer before the start of the Focus Program. They received their training in a local college and through numerous workshops provided by the district. The program was funded by a state grant and through Chapter 1 funds.

Repeating seventh graders with a history of behavior problems were identified for the program. Parents were very involved from the onset and had to agree to work with the Focus teacher on a regular basis. It is necessary that teachers, district office, counselor, principal, parents, and social agencies work with these students to make it a rewarding experience. A major incentive for the students to participate in the Focus Program is that they enter school in the fall but, with their success in the program, by the second semester they would be "promoted" to the eighth grade. If they were equally as successful in terms of academics and behavior, then they would go to

the ninth grade in the fall — in effect, skipping a grade. The purpose of this incentive was to attract them into the program, help to maintain enthusiasm, and then narrow the age-mate gap in high school.

Students participated in daily Focus group experiences in which they identified and learned strategies for behavior change. A computer laboratory provided remediation, drill, and practice in reading and mathematics. Other components of the program were small class size (determined by the district to be 12 to 15 students) and the addition of a teacher's aide. A nine-week class in study skills was taught to all of the selected students. The students interacted with their peers through elective classes, lunch, and activities. Focus students were allowed to participate in all activities including motivational and recognition. An important aspect of the program was parent involvement. The Focus teacher worked with parents to increase their contact and involvement in their child's education. School activities for career education and field trips were planned.

The students who were recommended for the Focus Program were those whose intelligence was within normal limits, but who had behavior problems and were failing to achieve the basic skills necessary for success in school. The Focus students were not eligible for special education in this program. It was felt that the special education students were receiving enough additional help in their classes.

The school district was able to use a central office coordinator for the four programs. This job entailed helping the teachers and school administrators to develop the unique curriculum of the Focus Program. The budget, visitation, observation, and monthly planning sessions with the Focus teachers were the duties of the coordinator.

The Focus teacher was recruited, screened, and selected from

among applicants who wanted to participate in this special program. The teacher was selected by the principal and district coordinator. It was felt that the success(or failure) of the program would rest heavily on the ability of the teacher. The Focus aide was selected in the same procedure as the teacher. An aide was placed in the Focus class to provide support for the teacher. The aide worked with students in the computer lab, in the classroom, went on field trips, and made home visits.

The principal of the school was involved in the day-to-day supervision and management of the program. The teacher was the designee of the principal for on-site coordination. The principal helped the teacher in the support of the program.

The school guidance counselor provided individual and group counseling as needed. This individual worked with parents, social agencies, and provided support for the teacher and program as needed.

A major component of the program was to provide staff development for the teacher involved in the project. The training was both pre-service and in-service. Ten days of staff development activities were provided for the teacher including behavior management, study skills, computer-assisted instruction, career education, developmental needs of early adolescents, learning styles, and teacher renewal and stress reduction.

The school support team, which was composed of the selection committee, was responsible for receiving referrals, assessing needs, placement and intervention plans, and follow-up. Team members included the principal, guidance counselor, vice-principal, Focus teacher, and referring teacher. Support staff such as school psychologists, social workers, speech therapists, and nurses served on the team as needed.

Student team learning emphasizing instructional techniques involving students' learning in small, carefully structured teams was used. Students were rewarded for working toward a common goal, helping one another learn, gaining in self-esteem, and feelings of individual responsibility for their classmates. These techniques are used by the Focus teacher to help the students develop socially as well.

Students in the Focus Program are given the opportunity to participate in the Juvenile Training Placement Act summer program. This program provides remediation in reading and mathematics as well as developing study skills. Students also do manual work in parks, recreation centers, and schools. Students are paid per hour for participation in the program.

Opportunities are provided for enrichment for the Focus students. Learning both inside as well as outside the classroom through field trips, guest speakers, and special programs gives an interesting variety to the lessons. One program that the students seemed to enjoy and benefit from was a tutorial. The middle school Focus students went to the feeding elementary schools and tutored at-risk children in their academics. The middle school students also were involved in the elementary school students' counseling sessions on behavior. Here, the older students were teaching the younger ones how to behave and get along with people. A similar concept involved high school at-risk students working with the Focus program students at the middle school with their academics and behavior. All groups seemed to learn a lot. The Focus students even developed lessons plans, tutorial strategies, and counseling techniques for the younger students.

The statistics from this study made it clear that the Focus Program is one alternative to regular class instruction that has some degree of efficacy in fostering high levels of success among students with discipline problems. We looked at the average for a five-year time period for the Focus students at the one middle school.

- Before the Focus Program, students averaged 8.7 days suspended from school.

- During the Focus Program, students averaged 2.5 days suspended from school.

- After the Focus Program (the high schools do not have a program nor do they follow through with the concepts of the program), students averaged 6.3 days suspended from school.

Grades and attendance improve dramatically during the year in the Focus Program. Grades prior to the Focus program averaged only slightly better than a 1.0 (F) to a 2.5 (C) in their classes. Average attendance changed from 23 days of absence before the program to approximately 8 days a year. Test scores also increased an average of ten percent. The unfortunate part for the Focus students is that the high schools do not have this program, and many students will revert to their former habits. The Focus Program does indicate that certain students need constant attention and help to be successful. But this is a small price to pay for our young people.

Student Discipline: A School District's Response to S.A.F.E. Schools

by Stewart DeVane

Stewart DeVane is Dean of Students at Lawrence North High School, Indianapolis, Indiana.

My job title reminds me daily of the concerns the community and those in education voice constantly relevant to student discipline. The title: Student Support Specialist in charge of student discipline and attendance. I have become all to familiar with the agonizing concerns our collective colleagues throughout America have voiced. One of the most persistent and troublesome problems confronting educators is student discipline. Each morning parents send their children to school depending on the school to provide a safe and secure environment that is conducive to learning. In this setting, students must feel safe and secure in order to learn, and teachers must feel safe in order to teach.

The Winter 1996 issue of *School Safety* states that nearly three million crimes occur in or near school campuses every year, about one every six seconds that school is in session. About one in four public school teachers rate physical conflicts among students as being a serious or moderately serious problem in their schools. Violence and poor discipline are the public's biggest concern about public schools. Laura Miller, in *Education Week*, reports that poor discipline has been the most frequently mentioned problem in the annual Phi Delta Kappa Gallup Poll on education.

For the first time in 26 years of the survey, the category "violence/fighting,/gangs" tied for the top spot (Hodgin, 1994). These threats to the security and sense of well-being are being reported at an alarming frequency; subsequently, greater attention has been focused on school disciplinary problems.

> *It was Albert Einstein who said, "The world is not an evil place because of the evil that men do but because of those who allow them to do it."*

Officials of Phi Delta Kappa and the Gallup Poll cautioned that the public may be reacting more to extensive media coverage of school violence than to reality, stating that "Most of the schools in this country are a safe place to be" (Hodgin, 1994). Regardless of these concerns being one's perception or an example of reality, schools must react to insure an atmosphere of optimum learning for students and teachers. Schools in the 1990s are confronted with a variety of social issues and problems that often originate in the community but also exist in our schools. Schools and their respective communities cannot assume that they operate independently of one another, rather they must interface and work to develop a collaborative approach that addresses youth issues and concerns.

It was Albert Einstein who said, "The world is not an evil place because of the evil that men do but because of those who allow them to do it." Today's schools serve people from a variety of different socio-economic, ethnic, cultural, religious and moral backgrounds. Students are experiencing a multiplicity of social and peer pressures that often affect their judgment and behaviors in schools.

Three such issues facing students that affect schools are an increase in gang-related incidents; an increase in the number of students experimenting with and using drugs as well as the availability of drugs and alcohol; and finally, the number of non-students who frequent school grounds and school related activities. These young people/adults are often involved in drug dealing and gang recruitment (Hodgin, 1995).

One response to reports of school violence has been the adoption of a **S.A.F.E.** (Security Action Follow-up Enforcement) Schools Policy by the Metropolitan School

District of Lawrence Township School Board. Dr. Duane Hodgin, Assistant Superintendent, states "We are trying to make schools positive learning communities where both students and teachers want to be and feel safe." Besides the basic dimension involving the protection of students, staff and property, another component of S.A.F.E. Schools program is its role in nurturing and supporting the level of psychological security for the students and staff. This policy, a first of its kind in Indiana, is a collaborative relationship with the schools and the Lawrence Police Department. The S.A.F.E. School Plan is based on three important components of prevention, intervention, and education. It models school-community policing in order to provide school safety, security, and supervision for students and staff.

Phase One

The major focus of Phase One of the plan is educating the staff, students, parents and community on the reasons for implementing a proactive S.A.F.E. Schools Plan. During the first year in 1994, Police Support Officers (off-duty police officers) were assigned to provide parking lot security and after-school security for the two high schools. Police Support Officers were assigned to visit a middle school one day a week, and each elementary school was teamed with one of the Police Support Officers from the high school. The purpose of the Police Support Officer was to provide security based on prevention; however, if it were necessary to use them for intervention purposes, school administrators could readily contact them. Hand-held radio units were used by high school administrators and the Police Support Officer.

The Police Security Officer's function while outside the building is to patrol all areas of the school

parking lot from 7:30 a.m.-3:00 p.m. and 5:00 p.m.-10:00 p.m. They are responsible for directing visitor traffic to the designated entrances as well as checking student traffic for proper release from the campus. In this venture, they are charged with stopping any suspicious vehicle or person, checking identification and their reason for being on school grounds. Each officer catalogues the daily shift activity and submits it to the school administration at the close of the day for review by those administrators responsible for security. Inside procedures consist of the security officer controlling the "off-limits" areas from 3:00-5:00 p.m. They circulate throughout the building and are encouraged to learn student and faculty names while being visible to those in the building. When questioning a student, they are requested to have an administrator present if feasible. This component of officer-student contact with administrator presence is adhered to as the situation permits.

Should it be necessary for student or vehicle search if determined by the Police Security Officer, an administrator takes the lead in the process. If it is necessary for a student arrest, the officer, when possible, takes the guidance from the school administrator. A Police Support Officer-School Operations Manual was also developed so the officers and school administrators were knowledgeable of their respective responsibilities regarding school safety and security.

Each high school and middle school implemented a Peer Conflict Mediation program. The Peer Conflict Mediation Program in Lawrence Township is based on the Community Board Program which began in the San Francisco Public Schools in 1982. This program is currently in place in all three middle schools, both high schools, all 9 elementary schools, and will be implemented in the newly constructed ca-

reer center. Lawrence Township faculty and administrators have been trained by staff from the Community Board Program and, in turn, train student conflict managers. Conflict managers are trained student conflict resolvers who help disputing students to identify and express their concerns and agree to their own resolutions. It is viewed that conflict managers gain confidence in their leadership and communication abilities and provide models of effective communication and cooperation for fellow students (Wright, 1995). School staff members tend to spend less time on discipline and problem solving, and the overall school climate can and has improved in the schools. In the elementary schools, trained conflict managers, wearing arm bands for identification, work in pairs mainly on the playground and in classrooms to help resolve problems which might otherwise require adult intervention.

Students at the secondary level are referred to the Conflict Manager Program and are scheduled on a case-by-case basis with pairs of student conflict managers. The process differs somewhat in the three levels (elementary, middle school, and high school) but is similar in that basically both student disputants are asked to agree to participate in solving the problem, agree to a set of ground rules, state the problem from their perspective, express the feelings involved, and agree to the solution mutually agreed upon as well as what alternative actions can be taken to avoid further problems.

It is important to note that this process occurs only before a discipline infraction has occurred. If a disciplinary infraction has already occurred, disciplinary consequences will be served first, and conflict mediation may occur after the consequences are enacted but not before. The program is designed to be preventive rather than take the place of disciplinary action. This

program's mission is best summed up by Dr. Hodgin when he concludes that conflict is inevitable and our response to conflict is up to us.

Phase Two

Phase two goals were developed and include the development of a district-wide Code of Student Conduct Manual and in-service training for school secretaries and receptionists on safe school procedures and appropriate guidelines to follow. A manual of techniques for student disturbance intervention was developed. Student sexual harassment education from K-12 included steps for reporting the incident and student awareness to harassing situations. A comprehensive "Crisis Incident Plan" (hostage situation, natural disaster, explosives, student disturbance) was established in cooperation with the Marion County Sheriff's Department and the Lawrence Police Department. The implementation of visitor sign-in procedures at all schools and subsequent locking of exterior doors, except the main entrance, after school begins was established. In support of these initiatives, a Safe School Committee was established and includes central office administrators, building administrators, security officers, teachers, parents, and bargaining unit representatives. This committee serves to evaluate the plan and make recommendations for improvement.

Phase Three

The third and current phase of the plan emphasizes an educational component to school safety techniques. Police Support Officers are involved with speaking to classes, especially the incoming freshman during class meetings. A video was developed to be used at each high school to explain S.A.F.E. Schools Program and the role of Police Support Officers as well as the implementation of a district-wide focus and activities for "National Safe Schools Week." A Safe Schools Agreement/Pledge was implemented with all K-12 students. The continued education and emphasis on "S.A.F.E. Schools and Personal Responsibility" targeted for the elementary grade level In-service programs included "Discipline with Dignity," as well as "Adult Conflict Resolution with Students," "Gang Awareness and Intervention Program," and "Safe Intervention Techniques for Angry, Out-of-Control Students." The district-wide Crisis Incident Plan was implemented as an inclusive plan that encompasses emergency, trauma, and suicide situations. Emergency situations contained were:

Hostage Incident

Bomb Threat

School Evacuation

Field Trip Hostage Situation

Death of a Student

School Bus Crisis

Terrorist in the Schools

Chemical Spills, Gas Leaks and Hazardous Materials

Plans for these situations include response rationale, key contact personnel, administration, law enforcement and emergency personnel responsibilities, teacher responsibilities, procedures for working with the media, and reporting guidelines. Each school recommends a primary contact administrator who initiates the proper response and serves as the overseer of the appropriate plan. Teachers receive instruction as to the overall plan that includes written instructions pertaining to each situation contained in the plan.

The Crisis Plan represents a response to crisis situations designed to give the school ready reference to both resources and recommended procedures. It provides a coordinated and consistent response which collectively utilizes the assistance of both school personnel and community resources. Assistants from personnel from outside agencies may also be utilized as members of the crisis team.

Lawrence Township has reacted to insure a sense of security and well-being for its students and teachers through the adoption of the S.A.F.E. Schools Plan. The process is ongoing as Phase Three goals are met and Phase Four is developed. Our mission and position must be to take a strong stand as educators, parents, and community to affirm, model, and create expectations that we will not tolerate acts of violence, threats, intimidation, or aggression in our schools and in our community. **Safety is everyone's business** (Hodgin, 1995) and the Lawrence Township schools and community are working collaboratively to achieve these expectations.

References

Covaleski, John F. (1992). Discipline and morality. *Educational Forum,* Volume 56, Number 2, Kappa Delta Pi, W. Lafayette, Indiana.

Grossnickle, Donald R., Sesko, Fred P. (1990). *Preventive discipline for effective teaching and learning,* National Association of Secon-

dary School Principals, Reston, Va.

Hamilton, Robert E., (Spring 1996). Schools, police, probation: A

winning team in Fresno, *School Safety*, Pepperdine University, Westlake Village, California.

Hodgin, Duane, (1994). "School, community, and police working together." *M.S.D. Lawrence Township School Safety and Security Plan.*, Indianapolis, Indiana

Hodgin, Duane, (1995). *S.A.F.E. Schools Manual, M.S.D. Lawrence Township*, Indianapolis, Indiana.

Kenney, Dennis J., Watson, T. Stuart, (1992). Improving school safety by empowering students. *The Educational Forum*, Volumn 57 Number 1, Kappa Delta Pi, West Lafayette, Indiana.

School Safety, (Winter 1996). Pepperdine University, Westlake, California.

Wright, Brian, (1995). *Peer conflict resolution in the M.S.D. Lawrence Township*, Indianapolis, Indiana.

Safe Schools Checklist: Factors to Consider School Safety and Security								
	Scale of Factor Importance						**Presently in Place**	
	5 Very Important	**3** Important			**1** Not Important			
1.	Prepare and implement a comprehensive plan.	5	4	3	2	1	___Yes	___No
2.	Communicate discipline policies and procedures.	5	4	3	2	1	___Yes	___No
3.	Arrange for school security staffing.	5	4	3	2	1	___Yes	___No
4.	Track district-wide status offenses, crime, and disruptive incidents.	5	4	3	2	1	___Yes	___No
5.	Train staff and students.	5	4	3	2	1	___Yes	___No
6.	Assess buildings and grounds for safety.	5	4	3	2	1	___Yes	___No
7.	Acknowledge visitors to the school.	5	4	3	2	1	___Yes	___No
8.	Assign school personnel to roles for emergency.	5	4	3	2	1	___Yes	___No
9.	Arrange for effective communication both within the school and for the community at large during and following emergencies.	5	4	3	2	1	___Yes	___No
10.	Develop and implement transportation rules and accident procedures.	5	4	3	2	1	___Yes	___No
11.	Consider after-school options with respect to sports, clubs, cultural events, etc.	5	4	3	2	1	___Yes	___No
12.	Recognize the importance of violence prevention at competitive sports events utilizing security measures.	5	4	3	2	1	___Yes	___No
13.	Plan an alternative daily schedule plan which can be used to reduce opportunities for student confrontations during times of heightened tension.	5	4	3	2	1	___Yes	___No

How Can Schools Meet Public Expectations for Discipline?

by Dale Findley

Dale Findley is a Professor at the School of Education, Indiana State University, Terre Haute, Indiana.

Building level administrators and teachers spend considerable time dealing with discipline. Parents want their children to be educated in "safe" schools. How do schools determine what parents believe is effective discipline? What can building level administrators and teachers do to reduce discipline problems and have parents feel that schools are a "safe" place for their children?

The annual Phi Delta Kappa/Gallup Poll reveals some aspects of the public's attitude toward the effectiveness of discipline in the schools. The 28th annual Phi Delta Kappa/Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitude Toward the Public Schools published in the September 1996 issue of the Phi Delta Kappan revealed the following (Elam, 1996, pp. 47).

Using the A, B, C, D, and F letter grade scale, all respondents graded the public schools in their community, as follows:

However, those respondents who had children in the public schools gave more favorable grades to those schools. In addition, public school parents consistently rated each of these three categories higher in 1996 than in 1983, as shown in Table 1 (following).

Of those responding to the PDK/Gallup Poll in 1996, 40% gave an A or B to the ways schools are administered or run, only 25% gave an A or B to the way discipline is handled, and only 22% gave an A or B to behavior of students in schools. A somewhat higher percentage of public school parents gave an A or B grade to each of these three categories. Even though the 1996 percentage of public school parents giving A or B in these categories is higher than in 1983, it is apparent that something needs to be done to change the perception held by the public concerning discipline in schools.

"Over the past 10 years, drug abuse ranked first among local school problems seven times and once tied with lack of proper financial support. From 1969 to 1985, every poll but one ranked lack of discipline as the top problem. It is interesting that problems related to such critical matters as curriculum, quality of the teaching staff and the academic performance of students never make it to the top of the list." (Elam 1996, p. 49) The 1996 Phi Delta Kappa Poll national sample ranked lack of discipline as the second biggest problem followed by fighting/violence/gangs. Public school parents ranked fighting/violence/gangs as the biggest problem followed by drug abuse as a close second, while lack of discipline was ranked as the third biggest problem with which public schools in their community had to deal.

"Overwhelmingly, Americans believe in removing persistent troublemakers from the classroom so that order can be maintained. They would also ban smoking by students anywhere on school grounds, require that students remain on the school grounds during lunchtime, and even rule out kissing and hugging anywhere on school grounds. To improve security and address the drug problem, the public would approve security guards in school, the use of trained dogs to sniff out drugs, and random drug testing" (Elam 1996, p. 49).

	A or B%	A %	B %	C %	D %	F %	Don't Know
Ways schools are administered or run	40	8	32	34	15	8	3
Way discipline is handled	25	7	18	29	23	18	5
Behavior of students in school	22	3	19	35	23	17	3

Table 1

Percent of Public School Parents Who Gave A & B Grades		
	1996 %	1983 %
Ways schools are administered or run	49	39
Way discipline is handled	36	32
Behavior of students in school	31	24

When asked how important respondents considered a list of purposes of the nation's schools, 86% indicated "to prepare students to be responsible citizens" was very important. This was the highest percentage response in the very important category for any purpose on the list. It is apparent from looking at the results of the PDK/Gallup Poll that parents want "good discipline" in schools. However, we need to ask what "good discipline" really is.

"Discipline writers solemnly inform us that it is not enough to stop misbehavior in the classroom; rather we must take action beforehand to limit its occurrence. But the real quantum leap in thinking is not from after-the-fact to prevention, where problems are concerned. It involves getting to the point where we ask, 'What exactly is construed as a problem here and why?' It means shifting from eliciting conformity and ending conflict to helping students become active participants in their own social and ethical development" (Kohn 1996, p. 77).

Various techniques dealing with discipline have been used such as:

1. Assertive discipline
2. Removing students from class
3. Alternative schools
4. Suspension
5. Expulsion
6. Detention
7. Saturday school
8. Behavioral contracts
9. Time out areas in the classroom
10. Parent conference
11. Telephone calls to parents
12. Student work programs
13. Behavior modification through positive rewards

Too often many of the approaches for dealing with discipline only relate to consequences when an infraction has occurred. Many efforts seem to involve ways to control students. Even those techniques which reward good behavior, though more positive in nature, still seek to control students. Sometimes teachers feel the best way to deal with classroom discipline problems is to send students to the principal's office. The threat of consequences is utilized in an attempt to instill fear of the consequences in students.

Many discipline techniques are reactive in nature and are implemented only after the discipline problem exists. It would seem to be more effective use of time and energy to be proactive rather than reactive when dealing with discipline. What process can be developed in order to be proactive? What follows is a proposal which should allow schools and school districts to be more proactive.

It seems important to develop a district and a school strategic plan to deal with discipline. Many believe that commitment to following rules and regulations is better when those affected by it are involved in the development of rules and regulations. Sometimes rules and regulations are so specific that too much energy is spent in monitoring conformity to the rules or regulations.

If parents don't support the established rules, then the school and the parents will be involved in problems related to disagreement as to the sensibleness of the rule. It seems to make sense to spend more energy on the development of a strategic discipline plan rather than on the enforcement of rules.

What should be the goal of such strategic plans to deal with discipline? The overriding concern should be with student learning and development of student citizenship in the present and for the future. For some students, it is difficult to look beyond what happens to them at the present. One goal should be to assist them in understanding how behavior today can affect their future life. The PDK/Gallup Poll indicates the public wants schools to prepare students to be responsible citizens.

Students, parents, members of the community, administrators, and teachers must be involved in the development of strategic discipline plans. Development of a strategic plan would alert the community to the commitment of schools to develop better discipline within the schools.

Perhaps a good starting point for the development of a strategic discipline plan would be to gather information from the community through the use of an instrument similar to the PDK/Gallup Poll to elicit attitudes toward ways to improve discipline in schools and to determine information related to goals to be achieved through better discipline. Students and school personnel should also be included in the survey. Information from data bases concerning the number and type of discipline problems should be developed and shared with the community. If data bases that yield this type of information are not available, then these data bases should be developed. The use of computers to establish these data

bases would permit a much better understanding of what the real problems are.

Using information from the community survey and the data bases, a representative committee could begin to develop the goals of a strategic discipline plan. Some general goals could be established for the entire district. It is imperative then to establish committees for each building in the district to develop specific goals for that building. Once goals have been established, it is necessary to design techniques that would assist in reaching these goals. The goals should be stated in such a way that would allow one to measure the extent to which each goal was achieved. The committees should involve parents, the public in general, teachers, administrators and students. Data bases should be established which would permit recording of the information necessary to measure attainment of each goal.

This sort of arrangement would permit continuity on the committee. If certain techniques utilized to reduce discipline problems do not assist in reaching a goal, then they should be revised or another technique should be tried. Timelines should be established within each goal as to how long the technique will be utilized before the results will be measured.

Strategic discipline plan committee membership should be on a staggered time basis. That is, some members should remain on the

committee for a period of three years, some should be on for a period of two years while others should remain for a period of one year. Perhaps one third of the membership could be in each of the three time categories. Members would be replaced as their terms expire.

This type of arrangement to deal with discipline would require an investment of time and energy. Meeting times for committees would need to be established for the convenience of all. It may mean some compensation time for teachers and administrators who are involved in working with committees. It may mean that substitutes would need to be hired periodically to permit teachers and administrators to work with committees. Summer retreats may be necessary to develop strategic discipline plans.

Perhaps a goal could be to reduce suspensions of students from school by 30% within one academic school year. One would need to establish baseline data to determine how many students were suspended from school during the past academic year. It would be necessary to understand what type of infractions caused suspensions from school. If one reason for suspensions was the fact that students were fighting in the school, then perhaps a technique could be implemented that would assist students in dealing with conflict resolution. At the end of the academic year, one would measure the extent to which fighting in the school was reduced.

If no alternative schools exist within the district to deal with student behavior problems, it may be necessary to establish goals for such a school and then determine the procedure and criteria utilized to determine who would be placed in such schools. Measurable goals would need to be established, data gathered, measurement procedures developed, and techniques to be utilized to reach goals would need to be developed. Timelines for measuring goal achievement would also need to be set. After some established period of time, when a number of approaches to reducing discipline problems have been tried, another PDK/Gallup Poll type of survey should be taken of community attitudes related to discipline problems in schools. A comparative analysis of these results with results produced by previous surveys should be undertaken. This would yield information about changes in the public perception as to how schools handle discipline.

The strategic discipline plan technique may require a lot of work, time and energy but so does dealing with discipline problems on a daily basis. Hopefully, the ultimate result of such efforts will decrease discipline problems and increase student achievement in the school and district. An effective strategic discipline plan should also help schools meet public expectations for discipline.

References

Elam, Stanley M., Rose, Lowell C. , and Gallup, Alec M. (1996). "The 28th annual Phi Delta Kappa/Gallup poll of the publics attitudes toward the public schools", Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 78 No. 1: 41-59.

Kohn, Alfie. (1996). *Beyond discipline: From compliance to commu-nity*, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

An Invitational Approach to Conflict Management

by William W. Purkey and John M. Novak

William Watson Purkey is Professor of Counselor Education at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. He has written more than 80 articles and the books Self-Concept and School Achievement, Counseling: An Inviting Process *and* The Inviting School Treasury, *and is co-founder of the International Alliance for Invitational Education. John M. Novak is Professor of Graduate Studies in the Faculty of Education at Brock University, St. Catharines, Ontario, Canada. An active writer and lecturer, Dr. Novak has addressed groups throughout North America, New Zealand, and Australia. His most recent books are* Advancing Invitational Thinking *and* Democratic Teacher Education.

This article presents a simple and principled method of managing conflicts at the lowest possible level, with the least amount of energy, and in a caring, respectful, and appropriate manner. The method is based on an approach to education called "invitational theory."

> When Yen Ho was about to take up his duties as tutor to the heir of Ling, Duke of Wei, he went to Ch'u Po Yu for advice. "I have to deal with a man of depraved and murderous disposition.... How is one to deal with a man of this sort?
>
> "I am glad," said Ch'u Po Yu, "that you asked this question....The first thing you must do is not to improve him, but to improve yourself."

Taoist story of ancient China (Reported in Bennis & Nanus, 1985).

Educators who seek to call forth human potential in imaginative and helpful ways face the need to resolve conflicts, handle difficult situations and maintain discipline the same as others in education and society. Invitational education (Purkey & Novak, 1996) suggests a means to manage conflicts in a way that demonstrates respect for the worth and dignity of everyone involved and provides possibilities for growth.

Invitational education is a self-concept approach to teaching, learning, and democratic practice. Focusing on the quantity and quality of messages sent and received, the underlying theoretical perspective aims at analyzing, developing, and evaluating intentional and unintentional human signal systems that influence human interactions and development. The theory is centered on five interconnected assumptions about positive and negative signal systems that exist in human experience and that either summon forth the realization of human potential or defeat and destroy potential. The five assumptions follow:

1. People are able, valuable, and responsible and should be treated accordingly.

2. Educating should be a collaborative, cooperative activity.

3. The process is the product in the making.

4. People possess untapped potential in all areas of worthwhile human endeavor.

5. Human potential can best be realized by creating and maintaining places, policies, processes, and programs specifically designed to invite development, and by people who are intentionally inviting with themselves and others, personally and professionally (Purkey & Novak, 1996, p. 3).

Quite simply, invitational education maintains that every person and everything in the total environment adds to, or subtracts from, the process of developing fulfilling lives in a democratic society.

This paper presents an invitational approach to conflict management and extends what is offered in the third edition of *Inviting School Success*. It explains what educators and others can do to manage many conflicts at the lowest possible level, with the least amount of energy, with the lowest cost of time and energy, and in a most caring, respectful, and appropriate manner. To do this, the "Rule of the Six Cs" is employed. The rule is to employ, whenever possible, the lowest "C" level first, and then move upward

toward higher Cs only as necessary. The six Cs are concern, confer, consult, confront, combat, and conciliate.

In any situation, major or minor, personal or professional, where there is the possibility of conflict, the educator's first thought should be: "How can I successfully manage this situation at the lowest possible level? Anyone can escalate a situation into a major confrontation. It takes special knowledge to successfully manage a conflict with the lowest "C" possible, beginning with concern.

Concern

The first question that should pop into mind when using the "Rule of the Six Cs" is to ask oneself "Is this really a matter of concern?" For example, an educator might prefer that students dress better when they come to school, but it may not be a concern. Here are some questions that help to determine whether or not a situation is a matter of concern:

1. Will this situation resolve itself without intervention?

2. Can this situation be safely and wisely overlooked without undue personal stress?

3. Does this situation involve a matter of ethics, legality, morality, or safety?

4. Is this the proper time to be concerned about this situation?

5. Is the situation a matter of concern because of my personal prejudices or biases?

Often, what at first blush appears to be a concern is simply a preference. By asking the above questions, the situation may manage itself without intervention.

There are times when a situation is sufficiently troublesome that it requires more than analysis; it requires action. Should this be the case, and sufficient resources and information are available, it is time to confer.

Confer

Professional educators may reasonably be held to a higher level of behavior than the average person. The goal is to invite voluntary compliance. One begins the conferring process by calming down and cooling down. If the educator cannot demonstrate self-control, he or she will be unable to control the situation.

To confer means to initiate an informal conversation with the other person *in private*. Begin by signaling, both verbally and non-verbally, the desire for a positive and non-threatening dialogue (i.e., a smile, relaxed posture, eye contact, using the person's preferred name, handshake, some small expression of appreciation). Then state, in a caring and respectful manner, *what* the concern is, *why* it is a concern, and *what* is proposed to resolve the concern. For example, "Harry, you are late for class, and arriving late disrupts the group. Will you please arrive on time?" Another example: "Mariba, you are borrowing my stapler without asking. I spent too much time looking for it. Will you please ask before you borrow things? Will you do this for me?" It is important to describe what is wanted and then ask for it. (Obtaining voluntary verbal compliance is vital to higher "C" levels, should they be needed.)

Here are some questions to consider at the conference level:

1. After expressing concern, has the educator listened to encourage honest communication?

2. Is there a clear understanding by all parties regarding the nature of the concern?

3. Is there room for compromise or reconceptualization? (Perhaps the student is tardy for class because a previous class runs late. This may require other action).

4. Has the educator clearly asked for what he or she wants? ("Will you do this for me?")

5. Has the educator received voluntary verbal compliance?

In most situations, a one-on-one, non-threatening, friendly dialogue will successfully resolve or at least manage the situation. In cases where conferring has been used, patiently and intentionally, and not worked, then the third C: consult, is appropriate.

Consult

When faced with situations where conferring has not worked, it is helpful to vary the approach. Now is the time to remind the other person that he or she has made an agreement. Talk about what was agreed upon at the conferring level and indicate, firmly and directly, that it is important to abide by previous commitments. For example, "Harry, you told me that you would be on time for class, and I expect you to live up to your word." Consultation involves talking about previous commitments. Questions that the educator might ask of oneself at the consultation level:

1. Is it clear what is expected?

2. Is there room for compromise or reconceptualization?

3. Are there ways that the educator can assist the party to abide by previous commitments?

4. Is the concern important enough to move to a higher C if necessary?

5. Have the consequences of not resolving the conflict been considered?

6. Is there time to allow both parties to reflect on the concern before further action is taken?

When a clear and direct discussion has not resolved the troublesome situation, then it is time to move to the fourth C: Confront.

Confront

Confrontation is a very serious attempt to resolve or manage a conflict. It is important to insure that lower levels have not worked before moving into this high-risk confrontation level. While others may not have as much power as an educator, no one is without power. Use adrenalin, rather than be ruled by it, and point out again, in detail, what the concern is, why it is a concern, and what can be done about it. Point out that this situation has been addressed previously and repeatedly, that the person gave his or her word that it would be resolved, and that progress has been insufficient.

At the confrontation level is it appropriate to talk about logical consequences. For example, "Susan, you told me that you would walk in the hallway. You were running. The next time I see you running in the hall, I will arrange for you to be escorted to the lunchroom." Another example: "Harry, you told me that you would be on time for class. Should you be late for class again, I will call your home and see what we can do about your tardiness." In the continuing effort to manage the conflict at the lowest possible level, questions to be asked even at this very serious level include:

1. Have sincere efforts been made to resolve the conflict at each of the previous three levels?

2. Is there documented evidence to show that earlier efforts have been made to resolve the conflict at each level?

3. Is there sufficient authority, power, and will to follow through on the consequences *before* they are stated?

4. Have all options been explored with the other party to obtain voluntary compliance?

When each of the first four levels of concern, confer, consult, and confront have been applied in turn, it is likely that stated consequences are fair and respectful. Should the conflict persist in spite of the effects of the first four "Cs", the fifth C is appropriate: combat.

Combat

In this paper, "combat" is used as a verb rather than a noun. The goal is to combat the troublesome situation, not to engage in combat with a person. Use of the word "combat" stresses the gravity of the situation. Because the conflict has not been resolved at each of the lower levels, it is now time to move to follow through on logical consequences.

For many reasons, situations that involve combat should be avoided whenever possible. At the combat level, stakes are high and people are forced into the role of winners and losers. At this high level, who will win and who will lose can be unpredictable. Furthermore, having to combat situations requires a great deal of time and energy that could be used in more productive endeavors. Yet when all else fails and the troublesome situation remains unresolved, then it is time to initiate the consequence.

In preparing for combat situations, be sure to ask oneself the following questions:

1. Is there clear documentation that other avenues were sought?

2. Have all lower levels of conflict management been honestly tried?

3. Even at this late date, is there a way to find room for compromise?

4. Are there sufficient support and resources available to successfully follow through on the consequences of combat?

5. Has the educator sought help from fellow professionals before reaching this high level?

People are likely to become angry when they believe that others are trying to control them, particularly in combat situations. For this reason, be quick to ask for help when needed and maintain a consistent stance in accordance with invitational education: that people are able, valuable and responsible and should be treated accordingly. This is especially important in implementing the final C: conciliate.

Conciliate

After combating a situation, it is important to restore a non-combative atmosphere to the educational environment. Former combatants and non-combatants need to find thoughtful ways to carry on and possibly grow from what has occurred. Invitational educators attempt to operate from a framework that emphasizes imaginative acts of hope. While these qualities were present in the previous five Cs, it is essential that they are reaffirmed after a conflict has been dealt with. Three principles are kept in mind at this conciliating level. First, do no harm. This means do not fan the flames of tension. Second, allow some distance. This is not the time for "in your face" interactions. Third, keep dancing with the date you took to the dance. That is, stick with the principles which enabled you to handle conflict in a respectful and effective manner. Here are some questions to consider at this reconciliation level:

1. Is there the avoidance of rubbing it in?

2. Is there an attempt to allow the parties involved to have

some time and space to adequately resume normal interactions?

3. Can helpful intermediaries be used?

4. Can non-threatening activities be used to restore a sense of inclusion?

5. Is the first C returned to when a new conflict situation occurs?

It is written that the person who speaks without thinking is likely to get the greatest speech he or she will ever live to regret. By intentionally following the rule of the six Cs and striving to manage conflict at the lowest possible level, the invitational educator will save energy, reduce hostility, avoid acrimony, and successfully manage many conflicts.

References

Bennis, W., & Nanus, B. (1985). *Leaders: The strategies for taking charge.* New York: Harper & Row.

Purkey, W.W., & Novak, J.M. (1996). *Inviting school success: A self-concept approach to teaching, learning, and democratic practice.* Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing.

Discipline for Discipleship*

by Thomas Peterson

Educational Leadership & Foundations, State University of West Georgia.

Central in the field of education, particularly in teacher training programs, is the issue of classroom management. The abundance of literature and workshops focusing on classroom management and discipline also testifies to the struggles education is having with these issues. Since 1969, the American public has most often indicated that discipline was the number one problem in the public school system according to Phi Delta Kappa Society surveys. In 1993, discipline, drug abuse, and violence were ranked as three of the top four problems facing public schools (Veenman, 1984; Johnson, 1994). Beginning teachers perceive discipline to be their most serious problem (Johnson, 1994). Teachers express that they encounter more stress, often severe, due to discipline problems and student violence in and around schools (Fennimore 1995). Students, too, find management and discipline policies and practices dehumanizing and stressful. They sometimes use the terms prison or jail to describe their school environment. As a result of the stressful climate produced by unsuccessful management and discipline policies and practices found in many schools and classrooms, administrators frequently value management and discipline over all other professional competencies in teachers (Bellon,

Bellon, & Banks 1992; Fennimore 1995). This strong emphasis on management and discipline has lead administrators to seek help from parents and community, to run workshops on effective management strategies, and develop assessment instruments to measure behavioral outcomes (needed for rewarding teachers who manage their classes well) (Furtwengler W. & Konnert W. 1982; Tavares 1996).

Whether in or out of the classroom, there is ample evidence that recent practices of managing students are not working. In fact, the adult community's responses seem only to exacerbate the problem, rather than to reduce it. This can be seen as the crimes committed, especially among younger children, continue to rise at alarming rates. Sabatino, Sabatino, & Mann (1983) suggests that public school discipline practices contribute to societal problems such as: (a) increases in prison populations, (b) increases in alcohol and drug abuse, (c) vandalism in schools, (d) high dropout rate (17-23 percent), and (e) a suspension rate of 5 to 30 percent. According to the Association for Childhood Education International Exchange (1994), every day, ten Americans younger than 19 are killed in gun accidents, commit suicide, or are homicide victims. One in 7 children is affected by bullying; 1 in 12 stays home from school; 15 percent of

school children report gangs in their schools. In addition, 3 million thefts and violent crimes occur on or near schools every year. Twenty percent of all public school teachers report verbal abuse, 8 percent report physical threats, and 2 percent report physical attacks. According to the Childrens' Defense Fund Report of 1994, every 5 seconds of the school day a child is arrested for a violent crime. Every 4 minutes a child is arrested for an alcohol-related crime. In one year in the life of American children, 613,514 students are corporally punished in public schools and 1,977,862 students are suspended.

There are critical problems associated with conventional approaches to managing students. For example, teachers also experience stress when they know they will receive poor evaluations because their students did not test as high as they were expected on standardized tests, they are having a hard time managing their classes well, they receive too many complaints from parents, or they write too many "referrals."

Teachers are increasingly concerned and frustrated as their roles become more like disciplinarians, policemen, prosecutors, or judges (Sabatino, Sabatino, & Mann 1983). These concerns are serious when we consider that 40 percent of new teachers leave the profession in the

---

*"Discipleship" is a term not commonly used in conjunction with conventional theories of management. It is a term I have borrowed (one commonly used to describe spiritual relationships) to be used as a metaphor and as a way to reconcile strained relationships. Additional readings on this and related topics are included in the References and Readings section.

first three to seven years (Charles 1992). From 1985-1990, in the state of Georgia, one out of six new recruits left after their first year of teaching; and nearly a third of newly employed teachers with no prior Georgia experience left within three years. These numbers may express the despair teachers experience as they look for answers relating to classroom management and the politics of education.

To better understand the failure of our conventional approach to classroom management, we must examine its historical constructions. A great deal of what we currently understand about managing and discipline theory arrived in the Massachusetts Bay Colony in the form of Calvinistic theology. Jonathan Edwards' Calvinism declared that children are basically bad, heirs of hell, and in need of harsh discipline. In 1699 Cotton Mather wrote *A Family Well-Ordered*, in which he vividly described the dreadful consequences that would befall the undutiful child, including hanging, suicide, banishment to eternal hell, and other dreadful things (Rich, 1992). Disciplinary action often meant inflicting direct action upon the child in the form of corporal punishment. Punishment was often severe and served to "drive the devil out" of the child. Classroom management in this period had to do with controlling students in order to achieve unmediated identification with religious authority and school morality (Tavares, 1996). Ironically this era was known as the "Great Awakening."

A more contemporary look would have us briefly examine Frederick Winslow Taylor's *Principles of Scientific Management*, commonly known as "Taylorism." This model was based on the factory system of the day and brought efficiency and management into the educational domain. More than managerial efficiency, Taylorism was about redescribing students,

not as people with feelings and spirit, but in terms of representing machines (Tavares 1996). In 1914, William Bagley looked at classroom management as a "business problem," and his methods stressed an objective, impersonal, and detached attitude towards students.

In the early nineteenth century educational management's specific function was the establishment of religious authority and the development of morals and virtue. The procedures for attaining these aims were made explicit through punishment to the body. Current techniques for managing students represent a dramatic shift away from punishing the body to strategies that are psychological. This shift away from the external to the internal is not new to education but current theories of management dramatically alter the role of the teacher. Today, management requires the participation of more than just the teacher. The support group may include participation of the student, teacher, as well as an administrator, counselor, social worker and perhaps a therapist, all for the support and reinforcement of classroom management. Most current psychological models of classroom management stress the use of very specific and defined behavior modifying techniques to control students' behavior. Emphasis is placed on defining and collecting data on each student's classroom conduct. This data is then developed and displayed on charts, forms, or other props portraying conduct patterns as evidence of a "behavior problem."

A more insidious form of management involves having the students themselves monitor their own behavior by having them collect data on themselves. This form of self-monitoring is effective in that it actually creates an internal locus of control in the child. Students have a sense of control over their own behavior, but are actually being ma-

nipulated and controlled by teachers who have found another method to manage students.

As a consequence of current policies and practices of classroom management, teachers see themselves more and more as "classroom managers" or as facilitators. This view is understandable when we consider the signification and limitations of our use of metaphors. "Classroom management" has long been used as a metaphor for establishing a hierarchy of relations of authority (McLaughlin 1994). Discipline and management, as they are currently understood in industry and applied in education, define the subordinate relational role of students with their teachers. This hierarchy has been accepted as natural and necessary to effective administration. Discipline as it is used in classroom management must still be viewed within philosophical systems and political stances as a way of controlling students. While there is an attempt to change our industrial metaphors, the importance and need for power and control has not changed.

Lost in our literature on education and to a large degree from our language is a metaphor that can bring about the emancipation of both the teacher and student. There is a model that recognizes an important relationship between discipline and discipleship. A call to discipleship is not gripped in the language of industry and machines, power and control, but emerges from our need to know and our need to be known. A call to discipleship is about building bridges and healing strained and broken relationships. It rejects conventional models which are eager to conscript the minds of our impressionable children and turn them into automatons. It is a call for students to be thinkers and not mere reflectors of others thoughts. It invites students to seek and to apply those virtues and morals that are demon-

strated in their teachers. It asks teachers to pursue openness, fairness, respect, compassion, and provides a space for students to respond without fear of retaliation.

This model is to be understood as being descriptive and not a prescriptive list of "how tos." It emerges with the teacher as a model. When teachers objectify students and see their job as "managing children," it is not surprising to find teachers resisting the notion that they are expected to be role models. For a discipline that brings about discipleship to be successful, the teacher must recognize themselves as a positive role model.

A teacher may care deeply about a student, but until it is demonstrated in some specific and personal way it may never be recognized by the student. It is at this critical stage that teachers often act as obstacles driving students away from the very ideal we would have them embrace.

Teacher as Model

John Dewey contends that moral education centers upon the school as the model of social life and that the "deepest moral training" evolves out of relationships. A most influential and important relationship students will encounter in their classrooms is the teacher. While students see the teacher as a person they also see him/her as a model from which they may or may not choose to pattern their own lives. So a teacher must recognize himself/herself as a model by which a student may pattern his/her life. A teacher has a high responsibility to demonstrate his/her life in a morally and ethically responsible manner, exhibiting characteristics of openness, fairness, care, concern, compassion, and love.

Declaring You Care

For discipline to be effective, this model necessitates a teacher developing a positive relationship with each child. This begins with the teacher comprehending a child as sacred, having great worth and not as an object, product, or machine. This relationship calls for a teacher to respect, love, and honor his or her students.

Demonstrating Your Care

The next step requires the teacher to demonstrate his/her love for all students. This is a demonstration of a positive attitude towards every student, even those who can test a teacher's patience. The term my students use to describe this phenomena is the teacher "walks the talk." A teacher may care deeply about a student, but until it is demonstrated in some specific and personal way it may never be recognized by the student. It is at this critical stage that teachers often act as obstacles driving students away from the very ideal we would have them embrace. Disciplining a student who thinks a teacher doesn't care about them often results in the student resisting or confronting the discipline and resenting the teacher.

Students who know a teacher cares about them as persons are more likely to respond in a positive manner to discipline. Teachers must also critically examine their policies and practices while referencing them to elements of power, control, and objectifying students.

The Call for Discipleship

Following a demonstration of care for a student, the teacher can now call his/her students for discipleship. The call is not a call for the students to be obedient to a set of arbitrary and autocratically initiated and directed rules. It is a call to enter into a relationship where students and teachers enter into dialogue about what it means to "play fair" and respect someone. It means a teacher must go beyond the discussing of issues of acceptable behavior. It calls for a teacher to model patterns of moral and ethical behavior.

Discipleship, in a broad sense, calls for students to learn from a teacher's example what is right and wrong. Students have always learned a great deal more from their teachers than knowing the right answers for a test. They learn what is good or bad, right or wrong, fair or unfair, kindness, forgiveness and love; not so much from what a teacher may say as how a teacher models his/her life. A teacher with a positive attitude towards education and students will more likely stir students' emotions and draw them into a deeper and more meaningful relationship with learning and themselves than a teacher displaying a negative disposition. Lessons learned from a teacher will then be internalized, compared with prior experiences and knowledge, and reintroduced into various discussion formats. If a student decides to change his/her behavior, it should be due to a re-cognition that

is not controlled by teachers, but emerges as a transformation from within a student. A call to discipleship frees a student from making choices based solely on a set of rules. The students will be able to make behavioral decisions not motivated out of fear, but because he/she has had the opportunity to critically examine many if not all aspects of the issue, including outcomes. Teachers often make it difficult for students to be like themselves (disciples).

Discipline

The proceeding steps are critical and must evolve before students will respond positively to discipline. The purpose of discipline must not be seen as a way to manage or control the wills of children. Discipline is a practice of calling students to discipleship. A teacher desires students to pattern his/her life after a himself/herself. Discipleship means to make one his/her disciple. In essence teachers invite students to become "little teachers." This is not to insinuate that students become "cookie cutter kids," an exact replica of their teacher replicating their attitudes. Rather, students are invited to examine a teacher for those virtues which they find inspiring and not conflicting with their consciences.

When an inappropriate behavior calls for discipline, a teacher must express his/her disappointment with the behavior and not the child. It must be discussed with the student and ministered with love and care – not out of anger or fear. Discipline, as John Dewey advocates, must emerge out of the natural consequences one experiences in life. When discipline emerges as a natural consequence to inappropriate behavior and is ministered with love and compassion, students can more easily make appropriate and necessary associations; and stronger bonds of relationship can be formed between a teacher and student.

Students have a need to know that a teacher cares enough to discipline. This often provides a student with needed comfort and security. Disciplining a student for discipleship sends a powerful message to a student – that even though they have exhibited inappropriate behavior the teacher loves and cares about them. This model of discipline is about healing strained and often hostile relationships between a teacher and his/her students. It is about building stronger bonds of trust and care which promotes a comfortable learning environment. Discipleship is also an attribute that is valued in most homes and families. Finally, a call to discipleship is an invitation to reconciliation and wholeness, which has an enlivening effect on the very hearts of us all.

References and Readings

Association for Childhood Educational International Exchange (1993-1994), *Childhood Education*. 70(2), 96D.

Bellon, J. J., Bellon, E. C., & Bank, M.A. (1992). *Teaching from a research knowledge base: A development and renewal process*. New York: Merrill.

Buber, Martin. (1965). *Between man and man*. New York: Collier.

Buber, Martin. (1929). *I and thou*. New York: Scribners.

Buber, Martin. (1949, 1988). *Paths in Utopia*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.

Bonhoeffer, Dietrich. (1937, 1963). *The cost of discipleship*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.

Bullough, Robert B. Jr. (1994). "Digging at the roots: Discipline, management, and metaphor."

Action in Teacher Education. XVI(1), 1-10.

Charles, C. M. (1992). *Building classroom discipline*. New York: Longman.

Children's Defense Fund. (1994). "The state of America's children 1994," Washington, DC: Author.

Coles, Robert. (1993). *The call of service*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Coles, Robert. (1990). *The spiritual life of children*. Massachusetts: Houghton Mifflin Co.

Dewey, John. (1916) *Democracy and education: An introduction to the philosophy of education*. New York: Macmillan.

Dewey, J. (1938) *Experience & education*. New York: Collier.

Dewey, J. (1915) *Schools of tomorrow*. New York: E. P. Dutton.

Fennimore, Beatrice S. (1995). *Student-centered classroom management*. Albany, New York: Delmar Publishers.

Fields, Marjorie V. (1994). *Constructive guidance and discipline: Preschool and primary Education*. New York: Merrill.

Frith, Greg H. (1985). *Behavior management in the schools: A primer for parents*. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas Publishers.

Furtwengler, Willis J.; Konnert W. (1982). *Improving school discipline: An administrator's guide*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

Johnson, Virginia G. (1994). "Student teachers' conceptions of classroom control." *The Journal of Educational Research*. 88((2), 109-117.

Kohn, A., & Brandt, Ron. (1995). "Punished by rewards." *Educational Leadership.* 53(1), 13-16.

Kameenui, Edward J. (1995). *Instructional classroom management: A proactive approach to behavior management.* New York: Longman.

Lasch, Christopher. (1979). *The Culture of narcissism: American life in an age of diminishing expectations.* New York: Warner Books.

Lasley, Thomas J. (1994). "Teacher technicians: A 'new' metaphor for new teachers," *Action in Teacher Education.* XVI(1), 11-19.

Martin, Jane Roland. (1992). *Schoolhome.* Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.

McLaughlin, James H. (1994). "From negation to negotiation: Moving away from the management metaphor." *Action in Teacher Education.* XVI(1), 75-85.

Mendler, Allen N. (1992). *What do I do when...?: How to achieve discipline with dignity in the classroom.* Bloomington, Indiana: National Educational Service.

Moffett, James. (1994). *The Universal schoolhouse: Spiritual awakening through education.* San Fransisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Morine-Dershimer, Greta. (1994). "Prospective teachers' images of management," *Action in Teacher Education.* XVI(1), 29-39.

Nieto, Sonia. (1992). *Affirming diversity: The sociopolitical context of multicultural education.* New York: Longman.

Orr, David W. (1994). *Earth in mind: On education, environment, and the human prospect.* Washington, DC: Island Press.

Palmer, Parker J. (1983, 1993). *To know as we are known: education as a spiritual journey.* San Fransisco: Harper.

Purpel, David E. (1989). *The moral & spiritual crisis in education: A curriculum for justice & compassion in education.* Massachusetts: Bergin & Gravey Publishers, Inc.

Randolph, Catherine H. (1994). "Images of management for learner-centered classrooms," *Action in Teacher Education.* XVI(1), 55-63.

Rich, Martin John. (1992). *Foundations of education: Perspectives on American education.* New York: Mcmillan Publishing Company.

Sabatino, D. A., Sabatino, A. C., & Mann, Lester. (1983) *Discipline and behavioral management: A handbook of tactics, strategies, and programs.* Rockville, Maryland: An Aspen Publication.

Tavares, Hannah. (1996). "Classroom management and subjectivity: A genealogy of educational identities," *Educational Theory.* 46(2), 189-201.

Veenman, S. (1984). "Perceived problems of beginning teachers," *Review of Educational Research.* 54(2), 143-78.

Weinstein, Carol S. (1994). "Protector or prison guard? Using metaphors and media to explore student teachers' thinking about classroom management," *Action in Teacher Education.* XVI(1), 41-54.

White, Ellen G. (1947). *Christian Service.* Takoma Park MD: Review Herald Publishers.

Wolfgang, C. H. & Wolfgang, M. E. (1995). *The three faces of discipline for early childhood: Empowering teachers and students.* Boston: Alyn and Bacon.