

Overview of Research for School-Wide Discipline and Citizenship Programs

By
Cheryl Brown, M.Ed.
Revised November, 2003

Teacher behaviors

Teacher behaviors and their effect on achievement and student attributes are widely discussed in the literature and researched extensively. Although, Dunkin and Biddle (Brophy, 1988) caution that, prior to the 1970s, research related to teacher behaviors did not always include rigorous standards for definitions of teacher behavior, did not use adequate sampling techniques, did not report descriptive data, and did not make use of appropriate inferential statistics. During the 1970s, the Office of Education (OE) and the National Institute of Education (NIE) became involved in funding large-scale field studies and experiments on process-product research. These federal agencies also sponsored conferences that allowed researchers to share information on teaching. Ned Flanders and his associates conducted the most useful research prior to the 1970s. (Brophy, 1988) Five of their studies between 1959 and 1967 included measures of adjusted student achievement. Findings indicated that teacher talk correlated positively with achievement: "negative correlations for restrictiveness and criticism tend to be stronger and more consistent than the positive correlations for praise and acceptance of students (especially in the data for student achievement)," (p. 30) while praise and sustained acceptance often correlated in opposite directions in reference to achievement. Flanders's group found that flexibility and achievement produced the most consistent positive correlations indicating the importance of tailoring teacher behavior to each situation. According to the Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence, teachers must express that all students have the ability to be successful.

Traits negatively correlated with achievement gain include restrictiveness, negative authority, and ignoring, belittling, harassing, shaming, and excluding students. (Brophy & Good, 1984) Achievement gain also correlated negatively with strong teacher criticism; although, Brophy and Good make the assumption that teacher behavior is just one component of poor classroom managers or poor instructors. Gary Bridge and his colleagues (*The Culture of an Effective School*, 1984) reviewed three studies that found high teacher turnover is negatively correlated with math and

verbal achievement. This does not make the assumption that high teacher turnover is the cause, but could be related to the school itself, in that, teachers in low-achieving schools might feel discouraged and seek to work in another environment. Many researchers have found commonalities among successful teacher behaviors, although Brophy and Good (1984) agree with Flanders who noted that optimal teacher behavior may vary according to the demands of the current situation. Rosenshine (Brophy & Good, 1984) found consistent, but not always significant, relationships between certain teacher behaviors and achievement. Teacher behaviors that showed a positive correlation with achievement include warmth, businesslike orientation, enthusiasm, praise and acceptance of student ideas, flexibility, and pleasant personality with the ability to apply a personalized touch to each student, consistency, organization, and a focus on academic activities that include a variety of materials and learning opportunities. The classroom atmosphere and structure perpetuated by a successful teacher include being knowledgeable about the subject matter, the ability to involve all students through individualizing, pacing, and an appropriate wait-time for answers to questions. Rashed (Brouillet, Marshall, & Andrews, 1987) found that the use of broad questions followed by a longer wait-time had a significant positive influence on student achievement. Other facets include assigned work that is pertinent and close monitoring of student progress. The teacher encourages students to put forth good effort and helps them understand that they are personally responsible for their academic progress. Students perceive the more effective classroom manager as a better teacher, but also as friendly, consistent, predictable, capable of taking responsibility for mistakes, and as someone who values each student. (Berliner, 1986)

Teacher praise of students is a teacher behavior that appears to produce conflicting results. Crawford (Brophy, 1988) found in elementary level Title I students that the frequency of praise from the teacher resulted in a negative relationship with achievement gain. In opposition to that, Brophy (1988) took the position that praise rates would have a weak, but positive, correlation with achievement especially in schools that served low SES families or low achievers. However, Brophy did augment this train of thought by stating that a supportive learning environment combined with a patient, encouraging teacher would enhance achievement more than copious amounts of public praise. Bluestein (1985) corroborates this perspective by stating that praise should be administered privately.

Bloom (Percy, 1990) found that approximately 25% of the variance in achievement may correlate with the quality of communication in the classroom. According to *The Culture of an Effective School* (1984), more effective teachers create a classroom atmosphere of mutual respect, while their less

effective counterparts tend to have classrooms that are marked by dissension and conflict. In order to reduce negative student-to-student interactions, the relationship that the teacher develops with the students must be friendly and positive. An atmosphere of trust in the classroom must be established in order for students to perceive feedback on their behavior as a positive. Teachers, who are cognizant of their "modeling," understand that social reinforcements for positive behavior and consistent consequences for negative behavior will provide a respectful, nurturing learning environment for the students. (CSPV, 2001)

Each teacher must incorporate a management style that fits their belief system, but should stay within research-based guidelines asserts Bowman (1983). Limit- setting, consequences that emphasize development of student responsibility, nonjudgmental enforcement of classroom rules, consistency, high academic and behavioral expectations that communicate the importance of learning to the student, and teaching students to learn from their mistakes are all research driven components that are employed by a successful classroom manager.

Student Discipline

"If desirable behavior is to be learned, educators must know that it must be taught and must commit themselves to developing methods, procedures, and practices for teaching it." (Wayson, 1985, p. 227) Brophy (1985) expresses a similar point of view: "Theory and research on classroom management have concentrated mostly on how teachers can control student behavior rather than on how teachers can develop self-guidance in their students." (p. 234) Self-guidance or learning to adapt to the accepted norms of the current setting is one of the goals of the educational system and is stimulated through socialization with significant others who, for the majority of students, are their peers. Combs (1985), through his work in humanistic-experiential psychology, delineated four basic principles that enhance a person's understanding of self-discipline: (a) perceptions determine self-discipline; (b) persons who are self-disciplined view themselves positively; (c) success reinforces self-concept and self-discipline; and (d) belongingness is a requisite for self-discipline. "Discipline encourages learning, responsibility and self control." (CSPV, 2000, p. 1)

An important ingredient in the development of self-guidance is self-esteem. Lerner (1986) has a strong reaction to the recent trend of enhancing self-esteem.

"Earned self-esteem is based on success in meeting the tests of reality--measuring up to standards--at home and in school. It is necessarily hard-won and develops slowly, but it is stable and long-lasting, and provides a secure foundation for further growth and development. It is not a precondition for learning but a

product of it. It is the polar opposite of what I call the 'feel good now' self-esteem fashionable today. Standards and demands on students to keep working until they meet them, are critical steps toward earned self-esteem . . ." (p.33)

Bluestein (1985) states that teachers who develop responsible students operate from an authoritative rather than an authoritarian point of view and are less judgmental. "The behavior of the obedient child and of the responsible child may 'look' the same, but their motivation and commitment are different." (p. 57) Offering students information and encouraging self-choice, while allowing them to make decisions independently teaches them to problem-solve and accept the consequences of their behavior, both positive and negative. Brophy and Good (1984) support Bluestein's stand by stressing the importance of teacher support of the student's self-concept and presenting the teacher as an authoritative helper who monitors student progress. Gathercoal (1987) supports the idea that teachers should refrain from parenting students in matters of discipline and accept them as young persons with rights and freedoms. According to Combs (1985), responsibility and cooperation are learned behaviors. Successful peer interactions are more important than the curriculum and peers have a more powerful effect than teacher-student relationships.

Until students are allowed to have and to begin to feel a proprietary interest in school and classroom rules, classroom control and a good learning environment will always be a risk . . . Students are far more likely to develop good character and become accountable when they are provided an opportunity to learn and actively participate in a democratic learning environment. (p. 29)

Effective managers of students consistently monitor student compliance with classroom expectations, enforce consequences for late or unacceptable work, and are prepared to punish repeated offenders positively and prescriptively. (Good, 1988) Richmond (1990) indicates that a teacher who uses coercion as a means of control affects student motivation negatively, which in turn affects learning. There appears to be a positive relationship between learning and the development of positive student attitude toward the teacher.

During the 1960s and 1970s, management of student behavior focused on a reactive approach. Many researchers and practitioners developed methods of dealing with children's misbehavior after it happened. During the 1970s, process-product research came to the forefront. Early research found that effective teaching and skill in classroom management had a positive relationship. These findings drew educators toward a preventive approach in dealing with disruptive student behavior. (Gettinger, 1988) A reactive discipline program becomes more centered on disruptive students rather than focusing on the students who behave appropriately. Gettinger states that preventive or

proactive classroom management includes three characteristics that distinguish it from other techniques:

1. It is preventive, rather than reactive, in nature.
2. It integrates behavioral management methods with effective instruction to facilitate achievement.
3. It focuses on the group dimensions of classroom management rather than the behavior of individual students.

Brophy and Good (1984) outlined several guidelines that they felt should be followed in order to manage student behavior successfully.

1. Use an informative style rather than a dictatorial style when setting limitations within the classroom.
2. Establish a rationale for the expectations.
3. Emphasize the positive effects of the classroom structure to enable students to internalize the rules.
4. Be authoritative; students will not develop the necessary life skills if there is little to no structure.
5. Corrections of a student's behavior should emphasize the desired positive behavior.
6. Punishment should not be invoked with anger or vengefulness.

Sherman (1981) agrees with these guidelines in order to foster a preventive rather than a reactive approach to inappropriate student behaviors. Brophy and Putnam (Kuder, 1986) found that preventing behavioral problems was the most effective way to manage a classroom successfully. "Managing behavior should be a continuous process, not something that takes place after an incident." (Kuder, 1986, P. 533) McDaniel (Gettinger, 1988) states that teachers can anticipate behavioral problems and intervene by inserting the student's name into the instruction, moving near the student, or using nonverbal clues. Evertson, Weade, Green and Crawford (1985) and Fitzpatrick (1985) support a preventive approach, which can be accomplished by initially planning systematic rules and procedures that monitor and provide feedback for academic work and student behavior followed by presenting the behavioral expectations to students. Kuder (1986) adds the following suggestions based on research and experience: (a) involve students in the decision-making process when establishing classroom rules; (b) through continuous monitoring intervene before the situation escalates; (c) when a problem arises, deal with a student privately to avoid "loss

of face," (d) consistently enforce the classroom rules with the understanding that occasions for exceptions will arise; and (e) if students are unable to function within a whole group framework, divide the class into small groups. Wayson (1985) agrees with Kuder that quiet interventions avoid a win-lose confrontation, which otherwise would create a hostile classroom environment and demean the student. Bluestein (1985) and Glasser (1985) also support Kuder's suggestions by adding that allowing students to make choices, without moralizing or initiating a power struggle, gives them the opportunity to maintain a sense of control over their lives, which leads to self-motivation, initiative, and active participation. In addition, outlining consequences (based on rules of order that benefit and protect the group) rather than just administering punishments allows the teacher to detach him or herself emotionally from a disciplinary situation. Lasley (1985), supporting these components from the viewpoint of a different discipline, gleaned information from anthropological writings and found that nonaggressive adult models and learning to cooperate with others for the good of the whole are instrumental in the development of nonaggression. (Nonaggression is defined as the ability to control emotions, to maintain composure during conflicts, and to interact socially in a selfless manner.) With these components in place teachers can increase task engagement, experience less disruptive student behavior, and be involved in smoother instructional activities.

The Middle School, Rockport, Massachusetts project *The Culture of an Effective School*, (1984) focused specifically on the development of behavioral management strategies. Parents and staff worked on improved personal interactions. The immediate effects were (a) a decrease in teacher tension, (b) more open communication between parents and staff, (c) enhancement of behavioral management skills, (d) improved skills in conceptualizing, designing, and implementing modified academic programs, and (e) significantly improved academic and behavioral performance on the part of the students.

Student discipline procedures have changed dramatically over the past ten years, moving from a primary focus on specific children with problem behaviors and each classroom teacher using a singular format to proactive school-wide systems that systemically define, teach, and support appropriate behaviors for all students throughout the day in all areas of the school campus. This approach establishes a school culture in which students encourage responsible behaviors and discourage negative behaviors among themselves, thus allowing teachers to focus on teaching students rather than controlling students. (OSEP Technical Assistance Center on Positive Behavioral Interventions & Supports) The following figure from the OSEP document illustrates

the concept of effective school-wide discipline, which takes into consideration all areas and individual student needs.

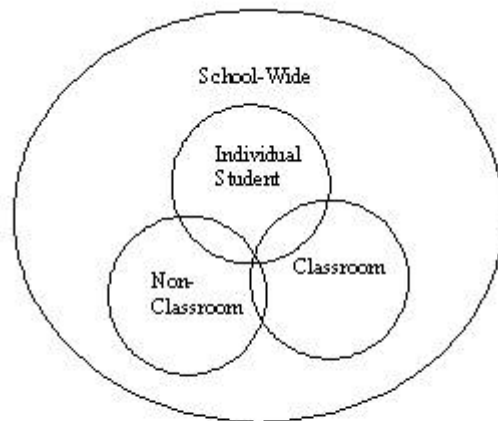


Figure 1- Four systems of a school-wide approach to discipline.

According to Gips and Burding (1983), encouragement of parental participation in student discipline is also important because it makes use of a larger pool of problem-solvers, it provides parents with ownership bridging the gap between home and school, and it helps professionals and parents develop trust and confidence in each other. As a result, students benefit from unified support and control of home and school.

Classroom Management Components

Fouts (1999) quotes a national study, *Order in the Classroom: Violence, Discipline, and Student Achievement* (1998), which found "Another empirical assumption supported by this research is that the stakes in maintaining order are high. The consequence of student disorder is not merely more disorder; disorder also erodes the learning environment for all students as indicated by lower student achievement gains." The Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence in the Fact Sheet *Reducing School Violence*, (1998) indicates that an emphasis on academics, behavioral norms that are clear, nonviolent and prosocial, rules enforced consistently and fairly, while providing an emotionally supportive atmosphere seems to reduce disorder in schools. Therefore, the lack of these components would lead to negative student behaviors in schools.

"Classroom management is seen as primarily a matter of telling and showing willing but ignorant students what to do, rather than enforcing compliance from students who know what to do but tend not to do it on their own." (Brophy, 1985, p. 233) Montero-Sieburth (1989) takes the position that the primary purpose of classroom management is to focus on academics, not on behavioral management. Kounin's observational study in 1970 (Gettinger, 1988) analyzed well-managed classrooms and poorly managed classrooms. Well-managed classrooms functioned smoothly with few disruptions and were well organized, while less effective classrooms experienced frequent disruptions with a large amount of time spent on discipline and transitions were lengthy and chaotic. Kounin expected to find that the teachers of the well-managed classrooms would possess more effective disciplinary techniques. Surprisingly, he found that both were approximately equal in dealing with student misbehavior, the variance was that the successful classroom managers were more efficient at minimizing behavioral problems by intervening before the misbehavior escalated.

Brophy (1985) and Kuder (1986) cite Kounin who delineated key behaviors of successful classroom managers: (a) "withitness" - awareness of all parts of the classroom at all times, (b) overlapping - the ability to do more than one thing at a time, and (c) signal continuity and momentum during academic lessons. Research supported behaviors and characteristics of effective classroom managers include (a) preparation of the physical environment and beginning the school year by establishing rules and procedures that are reiterated and reinforced as necessary throughout the school-year, (b) monitoring the entire classroom at all times, (c) prior preparation for lessons in order to maintain the flow of academics, (d) preparation of interventions to minimize disruption to the lesson if the need arises, (e) academic assignments that are diverse and challenging, and (f) accountability procedures that are clear and consistent. (Brophy, 1988; Fitzpatrick, 1985; Gettinger, 1988; & Kuder, 1986)

Effective classroom organization allows for active teaching in which time is spent on academics rather than on administrative details. (Bluestein, 1983 & Brophy, 1988) Brooks and Hawke (Berliner, 1986) found that effective classroom managers begin lessons quickly in a businesslike tone of voice, included academic and behavioral expectations, and asked for questions. This approach seems to convey a sense of the importance of the learning to take place. As a result, students of the successful classroom manager showed higher gains in achievement. According to Stallings et al. (Brophy, 1988), the quantity of instruction to student correlates positively with academic achievement. Negative correlates of achievement include: (a) little teacher interaction with students, (b) time spent on organization rather than instruction, (c) teacher providing students

with a choice of activities, (d) silent reading or independent written assignments rather than instructing the students, (e) outside interruptions and/or social interactions that use instructional time, and (f) the frequency of disciplinary interventions. Achievement testing supports research-based characteristics of a well-managed classroom cited by Sanford, Emmer, & Clements (1983):

1. Students are highly involved in teacher-led academic instruction.
2. Students understand classroom expectations and are usually successful in accomplishing them.
3. Wasted time, confusion, and disruptions are kept to a minimum.
4. The pleasant, relaxed classroom environment is work-oriented.

In addition, Sanford, et al. emphasize that this type of classroom is accomplished by careful planning and detailed thinking about procedures and student behavior. A select number of appropriate rules are posted and a realistic system of consequences is in place. Hargreaves, Hester, and Mellor (Gettinger, 1988) agree that classroom rules should be succinct. Too many rules contribute to management problems because it becomes overwhelming for the teacher to enforce all rules consistently. Gathercoal (1987) contributes to that philosophy by stating that although the rules should be concise, they should be written in broad terms so students cannot use the defense that their inappropriate behavior was not covered by the rules. Gettinger (1988) confirms that these facets allow a teacher to manage the flow of information in the classroom, which is an important component of a successfully managed classroom.

The Culture of an Effective School cites research that confirms more effective learning takes place in a secure, orderly, nondisruptive environment. Glasser (1985) concurs by asserting that students find complete freedom threatening, but desire the freedom to make choices within a structure. A disruptive setting activates the lower parts of students' brains that are tapped in times of higher stress such as social challenges or physical threats. "An orderly/controlled environment allows the neocortex to function efficiently, facilitating learning of cerebral subjects." (Glasser, p. 3) Berliner (1986) and Casanova (1986) support the concept that students prefer an orderly, efficient learning environment as shown through higher achievement gains in classrooms that meet this criterion. The physical environment of a classroom enhances achievement according to Kuder (1986) who stresses arranging furniture to enhance teaching, students' personal space, and taking into account students' individual needs concerning the environment. Arranging a psychologically comfortable

classroom increases the opportunity to provide a preventive rather than a reactive teaching environment.

Gettinger (1988) states the first few days of class are critical in establishing the climate of the classroom. Classroom rules and procedures should be clearly explained and enforced. It is important to spend the first few weeks helping the students learn rules and procedures. Teachers of younger students need to spend more time than teachers of older students, as there is a carry-over from year to year of basic school socialization procedures. Minger (Gettinger, 1988) feels that a developed routine of classroom procedures decreases disruptions because students know what is expected.

Interestingly, researchers have found a quiet, smoothly run classroom that allows for high task engagement does not necessarily correlate with achievement. According to Doyle (Gettinger, 1988) successful classroom management does not always correlate with achievement as teachers may sacrifice challenging assignments that decrease students' comfort levels in exchange for lower level assignments that allow the teacher to maintain classroom order with less effort. Stalling (Montero-Sieburth, 1989) also found that student learning is not as affected by time available to learn, but is affected by how the time is used. On the other hand, Leach and Tunnecliffe (Montero-Sieburth, 1989), who completed a study in Australia, found that task engagement correlated strongly with achievement and was responsible for approximately 58% of the variance. Crawford (Brophy, 1988) stated that the type of time-on-task behaviors that correlate with achievement gain involves the active participation of the teacher through directed teaching or active supervision of independent activities, successful monitoring, and additional classroom management techniques that maximize time-on-task and minimize disruptions.

During 1984, four schools in Hawaii participated in the Youth Development Projects, which is a program aimed at preventing delinquency. The treatment included social skills training, cooperative learning, and parent-school liaison. Positive significant results were found in the categories of absenteeism, tardiness, disciplinary referrals, classroom management, and social skills. Because of the improved classroom environment and more time-on-task, teachers posited that student achievement had improved; however, this position was not supported by an increase in grade point averages. (Nanos, 1988) Brophy cautioned that a more effective research approach would concentrate on the opportunity to learn and the quality of the instruction, rather than assuming increased time-on-task improves achievement.

School-wide discipline/citizenship programs

Research has shown that best practices in relation to whole school reform include the following components: a) identification of need, b) investigation of programs and/or approaches, c) ask questions of or visit a sampling of schools currently using possible programs, d) staff vote, e) materials and training, f) site-based team to maintain program, g) supportive administrative leadership, and h) commitment to resources needed. Fouts (1999) referenced Research You Can Use to Improve Results, (1999), Northwest Regional Education Laboratory, to discuss the following best practices for school discipline/citizenship programs:

- Teachers Emphasize the Importance of Learning
- Teachers Provide Instruction and Practice in Citizenship Skills
- Teachers Make Efficient Use of Learning Time
- Teachers Establish Clear Discipline Policies and Apply Them Fairly and Consistently
- Administrator and Teachers Assure that School Time is Used for Learning
- Administrators and Teachers Establish and Enforce Clear, Consistent Discipline Policies
- Administrators and Other Leaders Continually Strive to Improve Instructional Effectiveness

Schools are discovering that the most effective means of reducing discipline referrals is to become proactive with school discipline. Collaborative development of school-wide rules that are clear, all-encompassing and seen as fair must then be communicated to the school community and consistently followed. Consequences must be reasonable for the offense and combined with the teaching of strategies that address the behavior. (Dwyer, Osher, & Warger, 1998)

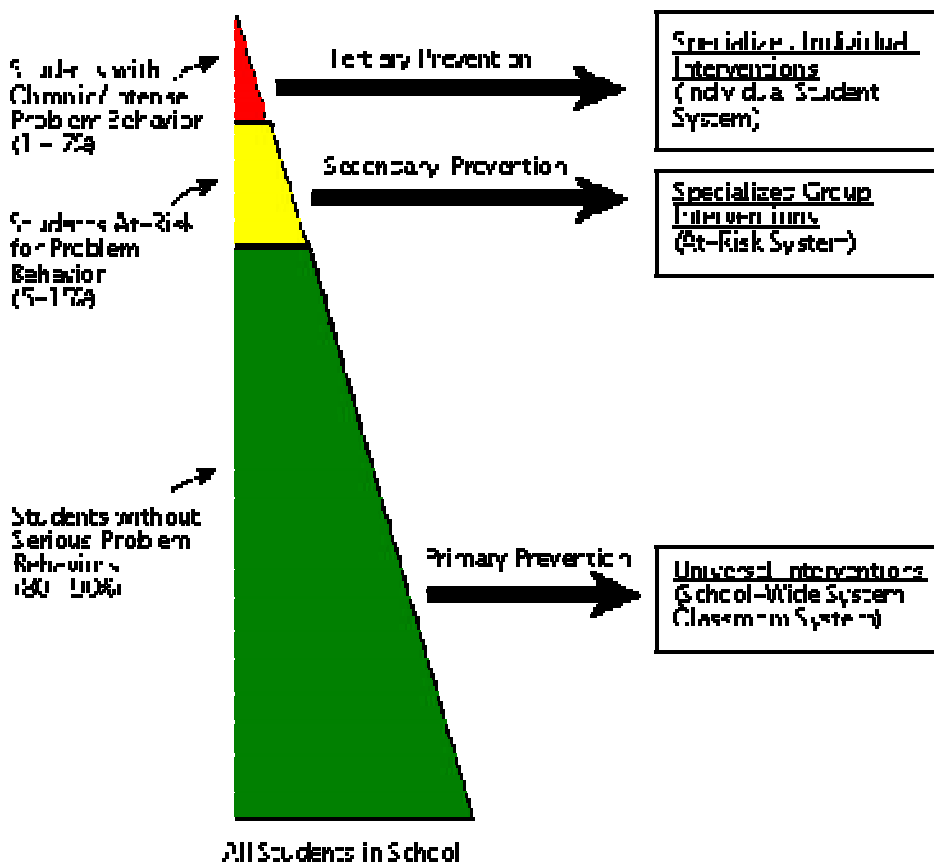
School safety begins with a teacher and staff commitment toward creating a safe, welcoming school environment. Plans that are developed to address this share many features, but are tailored to each school's individual needs. (CSPV, 1998) There are key developmental tasks pertinent to each age group that must be mastered. The development of self-regulation is important for children ages 2-5. Middle childhood, ages 6-11, includes developing normative beliefs about aggression and interpersonal negotiation skills. Adolescent needs include development of a consistent peer group and the consolidation of personal and ethnic identities. (CSPV, 1998) The National School Safety Center (CSPV, 2000) determined that student perspective of the school climate is impacted by the degree of student involvement in learning; comfortable peer relationships; support from teachers, buildings that are clean, supervised, and safe; clear understanding of rules and feeling that conflicts and infractions are dealt with consistently and fairly; and involved in the decision-making to improve the school. In addition, parent participation

with their children and at the school is considered to be a critical factor in achieving safe schools. (CSPV, 2000)

The Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence (1998) makes several recommendations that support safe schools. A campus that is safe and welcoming from the moment the students enter campus, which induces a climate of ownership and pride support a safe school climate. Safe practices in reference to student behavior and management include the development and enforcement of a dress code and sufficient supervision by adults. In order for staff to provide appropriate behavioral support they must have training in behavior management. Students should be actively involved in developing and maintaining a safe school environment. "Firm, fair and consistent discipline is fundamental to making school campuses safe and secure. . . .The number of rules isn't as important as the intent. . . .There should be a reason for each rule and rules should not be harsh." (CSPV, 2000) In addition, effective discipline codes are straightforward and clear, reflect best practices, include appropriate penalties, are fairly and consistently enforced with all students, prompt resolution of problems, parent acknowledgement of behavioral expectations and discipline procedures for students, and are economical, enforceable and practical. On-going review of the school-wide system that includes input from the school community of students, staff and parents is another critical element of effective programming.

Positive behavioral support (PBS) integrates "behavioral science, practical interventions, social values and a systems perspective." (Sugai, et al., 1999, p. 7) Through the application of PBS, research-validated methods are employed school-wide to improve the school environment for all children by reducing the effects of negative behaviors and validating positive behaviors. In place of coercion to achieve desired behaviors, emphasis is placed on modifying adult behavior and providing improved learning environments. In other words, it is not about "fixing" the child, but about fixing the environment. Therefore, all contexts are considered in implementation such as the community, family, school, classroom, to and from the classroom and school and the individuals themselves. School-wide positive behavioral support provides a continuum of support for all students.

Walker, et al. (1996) describe this continuum as Primary Prevention, Secondary Prevention, and Tertiary Prevention. Most students, 80-90%, do not have serious problem behaviors and are supported under a school-wide system, which is the universal intervention. See diagram that follows.



Continuum of behavioral support "in which prevention is emphasized and intensity of problem behavior and context is considered." (Sugai, et al., 1999, p. 11-12)

Comparison of Make Your Day Components and Research-Based Schoolwide and Classroom Management Components

The components of the Make Your Day model are aligned with best practices in the areas of student discipline, classroom management, school-wide discipline and positive behavior support (PBS). All members of the school community play a part in creating a safe school environment, all parties have a personal responsibility to “maintain order, demonstrate mutual respect and caring for one another...” (Dwyer, Osher, & Warger, 1998, p. 2) Classroom rules and expectations are clear and succinct, but essentially cover all possible behaviors and students have advance knowledge of the consequences for interfering behaviors. (Gathercoal, 1987 & Gettinger, 1988; Fouts, 1999; CSPV, 1998) Teachers, through continuous monitoring of student behavior and intervening immediately in order to avoid an escalation of disruptive behaviors, take a preventive or proactive rather than reactive approach. (Brophy & Good, 1984 & Gettinger, 1988) The teacher administers discipline from an authoritative rather than an authoritarian platform by enforcing limits and consequences without moralizing or judging. (Bowman, 1983 & Glasser, 1985) Interventions are invoked privately avoiding a power struggle with and "loss of face" for the student. (Bluestein, 1984; Kuder, 1986 & Wayson, 1985) The administration of steps involves a specific, consistent structure that includes a brief conversation that helps students understand the behavior that led to the use of steps. In contrast to many other approaches or in schools without a school-wide program, steps “...are actually quite mild discipline procedures and consequences for students...” (Fouts, 1999)

An emphasis on student responsibility, development of self guidance and problem-solving skills, establishment of a proprietary interest, earned self esteem, and a classroom environment of mutual respect are components supported by research and writing. (Berliner, 1986; Bluestein, 1985; Bowman, 1983, Brophy, 1984; Combs, 1988; & Purkey, 1985) In addition, students are taught to take responsibility for their actions and consequences are the result of choices they made. Reinforcing the community values such as respectfulness, kindness and honesty promotes the development of good citizenship and character. (Dwyer, Osher, & Warger, 1998)

The period by period self-evaluation provides students with a predictable, consistent classroom organization. (Berliner, 1986; Brophy & Good, 1984; & Gettinger, 1988) Frequent self-assessment allows students to take ownership when evaluating their performance the previous period, which

“...is probably a strength of the program.” (Fouts, 1999, p. 11) Student involvement in the disciplinary process allows them to develop interpersonal communication skills and teaches them to learn from their mistakes. (Bowman, 1983 & Kuder, 1986) The affirmation portion of self-assessment, concerns, has both strengths and the potential for misuse. According to Fouts, (1999) in assessing this component of Make Your Day

“My observation is that this is a relatively effective way to handle conflicts between students and to provide some type of recourse for the quieter, less assertive students to have their concerns addressed and their rights protected. I will add here that I recognize the potential for abuse of this process. But with all citizenship/discipline programs there are certain trade-offs, advantages and disadvantages in ways of dealing with student-to-student problems. In this instance, on balance and when properly conducted, this procedure can be quite beneficial in protecting students’ rights, holding students accountable for their treatment of others, and teaching students what is acceptable and unacceptable behavior around others.” (p. 11)

The Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence in the Fact Sheet *How Students Can Avoid School Victimization* (1998) concurs by advocating that students should be taught to understand that “Telling is not tattling...immediately inform school officials of any bullying, victimizations, and/or threats.” (p. 1) Students should inform adults of any concerns, but also learn to be assertive by appropriately defending themselves in a non-aggressive manner. Dwyer, Osher, & Warger (1998) state, “Effective schools also foster positive student interpersonal relations—they encourage students to help each other and to feel comfortable assisting others in getting help when needed.”

Classroom instruction is begun with academic and behavioral expectations, which emphasizes the focus on learning. (Berliner, 1986; Montero-Sieburth, 1989; & Sanford et al., 1983) High expectations for behavior and achievement are conveyed, however, individual differences are supported. (Dwyer, Osher, & Warger, 1998)

The school-wide approach, which Make Your Day provides, is aligned with research-based procedures as described on the OSEP Technical Assistance Center website in *School-wide Support: Proactive Approach to School-Wide Discipline*.

1. Behavioral Expectations are Defined. A small number of clearly defined behavioral expectations are defined in positive, simple rules.
2. Behavioral Expectations are Taught. The behavioral expectations are taught to all students in the building, and are taught in real contexts. The goals of the teaching are to take broad expectations (like Be Respectful), and provide specific behavioral examples (In class: being respectful means raising your hand when you want to speak or get help. During lunch or in

the hall: being respectful means using a person's name when you talk to him or her). Teaching appropriate behavior involves much more than simply telling students what behaviors they should avoid. Behavioral expectations are taught using the same teaching formats applied to other curricula. The general rule presented, the rationale for the rule is discussed, positive examples ("right way") are described and rehearsed, and negative examples ("wrong way") are described and modeled. Students are given an opportunity to practice the "right way" until they demonstrate fluent performance.

3. Appropriate Behaviors are Acknowledged. Once appropriate behaviors have been defined and taught, they need to be acknowledged on a regular basis. Some schools do this through formal systems (tickets, rewards), others do it through social events. Schools that are successful in creating a competent culture typically establish a pattern in which adult interactions with students are "positive" four times as often as they are "negative". To achieve this standard, some strategy is needed to build and maintain positive adult initiations to students (both in class and outside of class).
4. Behavioral Errors are Corrected Proactively. When students violate behavioral expectations, clear procedures are needed for providing information to them that their behavior was unacceptable, and preventing that unacceptable behavior from resulting in inadvertent rewards. Students, teachers, and administrators all should be able to predict what will occur when behavioral errors are identified.

Make Your Day is the universal intervention or school-wide system that supports 80-90% of the students. Those students who are at-risk (5-15%) or have chronic problem behaviors (1-7%) are quickly identified and supported through specialized group interventions such as social skills groups or specialized individual interventions such as functional behavioral assessments that drive an individualized behavioral support plan. (Sugai, et al., 1999)

Parent participation and communication are an integral component of the Make Your Day model. (Gips & Burdin, 1983) Continuous efforts to involve parents by informing them about school discipline policies, routine updates on their children's behavior, and involvement in the school-wide discipline procedures are common practice for safe and effective schools. (Dwyer, Osher, & Warger, 1998)

Make Your Day and Special Education

Amendments to the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) became law on June 4, 1997. Positive behavioral support (PBS) and functional behavioral assessment (FBA) were two of the concepts introduced to address the needs of students whose behavior exceeds the school norms. These methods are not new, however, the challenge has been to "fit" them into the "regular" school setting in which negative behaviors are minimized and positive behaviors are

promoted.. Sugai & Horner (1994; 1999) and Zins & Ponti (1990) suggest that “host environments,” which use effective practices, provide a systemic solution. “Effective host environments have policies (e.g., proactive discipline handbooks, procedural handbooks), structures (e.g., behavioral support teams), and routines (e.g., opportunities for students to learn expected behavior, staff development, data-based decision making) that promote the identification, adoption, implementation, and monitoring of research-validated practices.” (Sugai, et al, 1999)

“Schoolwide strategies create a foundation that is more responsive to children in general—one that makes interventions for individual children more effective and efficient.” (Dwyer, Osher, & Warger, 1998, p. 19) A small percentage of students are in need of additional support in the areas of interpersonal relationships and development of positive social skills. More attention to teaching strategies that decrease impulsivity and increase effective listening are critical supports. (Dwyer, Osher, & Warger, 1998) The application of Make Your Day, a school-wide program, provides a universal structure in which the majority of students are successful – a host environment. Those students who are truly in need of small group or individual interventions are quickly identified, which allows supports to be put in place in a timely fashion. Through the information gained from functional behavioral assessments (FBAs), the school-wide program, Make Your Day, can be modified to encourage positive behavior and decrease problem behaviors. The goal for all students with behavioral challenges is that they will be able to be successful within the universal structure.

bibliography

- Beckerman, L. (1988). No participation without good attendance: a successful program in New York. *NASSP Bulletin*, 72, 102-104.
- Berliner, D. (1986, September). How to make a good impression everyday. *Instructor*, pp. 12-13.
- Bluestein, J. (1983, September). Grand Plan for Classroom Management: Routine ways to better your teaching. *Instructor*, pp. 76-77.
- Bluestein, J. (1985, February). The beauty of losing control. *Instructor*, pp. 56-60.
- Bowman, R. (1983). Effective classroom management: A primer for practicing professionals. *Clearing House*, 57(3), 116-118.
- Brewster, C., Railsback, J. (2001). Schoolwide prevention of bullying. By Request. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 461 175).
- Brocato, J. (1989). How much does coming to class matter? Some evidence of class attendance and grade performance. *Education Research Quarterly*, 13(3) 2-6.
- Brophy, J. E. (1985). Classroom management as instruction: Socializing self-guidance in students. *Theory Into Practice*, 24(4), 233-240.
- Brophy, J. E. (1988). Research linking teacher behavior to student achievement: Potential implications for instruction of Chapter I students. *Educational Psychologist*, 23, 235-312.
- Brophy, J. & Good, L. E. (1984). Teacher behavior and student achievement. (Occasional Paper No. 73). Michigan State University, The Institute for Research on Teaching.
- Brouillet, F. B., Marshall, C. R., & Andrews, T. E. (1987). Teaching and learning in the cognitive domain: A review of the literature. Olympia, WA: Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction.
- Burns, J. W. (1990). An evaluation of the make your day program of student management. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Northern Arizona University, Flagstaff.
- Casanova, U. (1986, September). How to make a good impression everyday. *Instructor*, pp. 12-13.
- Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence. (2001). Bullying prevention: Recommendations for schools. (CSPV School Violence Fact Sheet). Boulder, Colorado.
- Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence. (1998). Evaluations of school-based violence prevention programs. (CSPV School Violence Fact Sheet). Boulder, Colorado.
- Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence. (1998). How students can avoid victimization. (CSPV School Violence Fact Sheet). Boulder, Colorado.
- Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence. (1998). Recommendations for safe school plans. (CSPV School Violence Fact Sheet). Boulder, Colorado.
- Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence. (1998). Reducing school violence. (CSPV School Violence Fact Sheet). Boulder, Colorado.
- Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence. (2000). Safe communities – Safe schools, Discipline codes. (CSPV School Violence Fact Sheet). Boulder, Colorado.
- Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence. (1998). Safe school planning. (CSPV School Violence Fact Sheet). Boulder, Colorado.
- Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence. (2000). What is a safe school? (CSPV School Violence Fact Sheet). Boulder, Colorado.
- Combs, A. W. (1985). Achieving self-discipline: Some basic principles. *Theory into Practice*, 24(4)), 260-264.
- Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1997). Schoolwide programs. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 461 446).
- Duke, D. L. & Jones, V. F. (1985). What can schools do to foster student responsibility? *Theory into Practice*, 24(4), 277-285.
- Dwyer, K., Osher, D., and Warger, C. (1998). Early warning, timely response: A guide to safe schools. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.
- Eber, L., Lewis-Palmer, T. & Pacchiano, D. (2002). School-wide positive behavior systems: Improving school environments for all students including those with EBD. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 465 253).
- ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management. (1984). The Culture of an Effective School. (Research Action Brief Number 22). Washington, DC.
- Evertson, C. M., Weade, R., Green, J. L., & Crawford, J. (1985). Effective classroom management and instruction: An exploration of Models. (Grant No. NIE-G-83-0063). National Institute of Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 271 422)
- Fitzpatrick, K. A. (1985). A research-based teacher professional development team. Oregon: Center for Educational Policy and Management. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 253 955)
- Fouts, J. T. (1999). Make your day program evaluation, Emerson elementary school, Everett, WA. Unpublished evaluation at request of Everett Public Schools.
- Gathercoal, F. (1987). Judicious discipline. Ann Arbor: Prakken Publications.
- Gaustad, J. (1992). School Discipline. *ERIC Digest*, 78. OERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 350 727).

- Gettinger, M. (1984). Achievement as a function of time spent in learning and time needed for learning. *American Education Research Journal*, 21, 617-628.
- Gettinger, M. (1988). Methods of proactive classroom management. *The School Psychology Review*, 17(2) 227-242.
- Gips, C. J., & Burdin, J. L. (1983). Parents and teachers as collaborating educators: A training model for emerging times. Ohio: College of Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 251 407).
- Glasser, W. (1985). Discipline has never been the problem and isn't the problem now. *Theory Into Practice*, 24(4), 241-246.
- Hegner, M. (1987). Absentee prevention—a model for intervention. *NASSP Bulletin*, 71, 125-126.
- Hoffman, C., Jackson, S., & Osher, D. (2000). Safe schools—healthy students: Putting research based knowledge into practice. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 464 458).
- Knoff, H. (1999). Project ACHIEVE and the need to create effective building-based social skills, discipline/behavior management, and school safety systems. (ERIC Document Reproduction Services No. ED 445 464).
- Koki, S. (2000). Prevention and intervention for effective classroom organization and management in pacific classrooms. (Pacific Resources for Education and Learning, November) Honolulu, HI. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 451 137).
- Kuder, S. J. (1986). An ounce of prevention. *Academic Therapy*, 21(5), 531-536.
- Lasley, T. J. (1985). Fostering nonaggression in the classroom: An anthropological perspective. *Theory into Practice*, 24(4), 247-255.
- Leedy, P. D. (1989). *Practical research: Planning and design*. (4th ed.). New York: McMillan.
- Lerner, B. (1986). Student self-esteem and academic excellence. *The Education Digest*, 52, 32-35.
- Manos, M. J. & others. (1988). Youth development project: Preventive intervention in delinquency. Three-year evaluation report. Honolulu, HI: Hawaii University, Manoa Center for Youth Research. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 312 573)
- Meichenbaum, D. (1990). Cognitive perspective on teaching self-regulation. *American Journal on Mental Retardation*, 94, 367-369.
- Miller, D. (1986). Cornucopia of ideas—fifty ways to improve attendance. *NASSP Bulletin*, 70, 74-79.
- Missouri State Department of Elementary and Secondary Education. (2001). Positive behavioral interventions & supports (PBIS). Show Me How Technical Assistance Bulletin. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 451 659).
- Missouri State Department of Elementary and Secondary Education. (2001). Positive behavior intervention & support (PBIS) system. Effective Practices Technical Assistance Bulletin. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 451 658)
- Montero-Sieburth, M. (1989). Classroom management: Instructional strategies and the allocation of learning resources. (BRIDGES Research Report Series, No. 4). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University, Institute for International Development. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 314 834)
- Moskowitz, J. M. (1981). The effects of a classroom management teacher training primary prevention program on fifth-grade students. Napa, CA: Pacific Institute for Research and Evaluation. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 212 679).
- National Association of State Directors of Special Education, Alexandria, VA. (1994). Disciplining students with disabilities: A synthesis of critical and emerging issues. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 378 712).
- National School Safety Center, Malibu, CA. (1992). *School discipline notebook, revised edition*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 411 601).
- Office of Educational Research and Improvement. (2000). *Character Education*. (ERIC Reproduction Service No. ED 446 107).
- Office of Special Education Programs, Washington, D. C. (2001). *Prevention research & the IDEA discipline provisions: A guide for school administrators*. (ERIC Reproduction Service No. ED 455 650).
- OSEP Technical Assistance Center on Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports. School-wide support. http://www.pbis.org/english/Schoolwide_PBS.htm.
- Percy, R. L. (1990). The effects of teacher effectiveness training on the attitudes and behaviors of classroom teachers. *Educational Research Quarterly*, 14(1), 15-20.
- Purkey, W. W. (1985). Inviting student self-discipline. *Theory into Practice*, 24(4), 256-259.
- Richmond, V. P. (1990). Communication in the classroom: Power and motivation. *Communication Education*, 39, 181-195.
- Sanford, J. P., Emmer, E. T., & Clements, B. S. (1983, April). Improving classroom management. *Educational Leadership*, pp. 56-60.
- Sherman, T. M. (1981). Effective management of instruction in the classroom. *Educational Technology*, 21(8), 20-27.
- Skiba, R. (2000). *Zero tolerance, zero evidence: An analysis of school disciplinary practice*. Policy Research Report #SRS2. Indiana Education Policy Center.
- Stepteau, D. (1987). Student competition spurs better attendance. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling*, 22, 95-96.
- Sugai, G. and Horner, R., Dunlap, G. & Hieneman, M., Lewis, T., Nelson, C. & Scott, T. & Liaupsin, C., Sailor, W. & Turnbull, A. & Turnbull, H. & Wickham, D. & Ruef, M. & Wilcox, B. (1999). *Applying positive behavioral support and functional behavioral assessment in schools*. OSEP Center on Positive Behavioral Interventions and Support.

- Sugai, G. & Horner, R. (2001). School Climate and Discipline: Going to Scale. Presented at the National Summit on the Shared Implementation of IDEA.
- Sugai, G. & Lewis, T. (1999). Developing positive behavioral support for students with challenging behaviors. From the Third CCBD Mini-Library Series, What Works for Children and Youth with E/BD: Linking Yesterday and Today with Tomorrow. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 435 155).
- Votaw, S. L. (1987). Picacho Junior High School excellence award: A report to the Department of Education. Las Cruces, NM: Picacho Junior High School. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 291 700)
- Wayson, W. W. (1985). Opening windows to teaching: empowering educators to teach self-discipline. *Theory Into Practice*, 24(4), 227-232.
- Ziomek, R. L. & Schoenenberger, W. J. (1983). The relationship of Title I student achievement to program and school attendance. *The Elementary School Journal*, 84, 232-240.