

Equitable Distribution of Response Opportunities

Low-achieving students are less likely to be called on by the teacher than are Lhigh achievers. When low achievers are called on, they are likely to be asked easier questions. Teachers cite three possible reasons: 1) they do not wish to embarrass a student who does not know the answer, 2) they want the class to hear the correct response, and 3) successful answers reward teachers' efforts. A student's success, after all, is not measured by right answers or high grades. Success is measured by a student's growth or progress. This research of Thomas L. Good (1987) and others reaffirms earlier studies confirming inequitable response opportunities for low-achieving students.

Students observe and quickly decode a teacher's responses to one another. Students discern who gets noticed and what responses capture the teacher's attention. The teacher's actions determine who is most important, smartest, well liked, and capable. Even seating low-achieving students in a separate group from high-achieving students announces teacher expectations. Students soon decode who is in high and low reading groups. Ignored students may get a message that they are less capable than the other students. If they deem themselves less capable, their schoolwork may suffer.

The teacher's positive attention toward students results in positive academic changes. Hispanic students' grades improved more than 10% per year when students were given equal opportunity to respond and re-

ceived individual help. Schoolwork turned in by students increased 15% as a result of having equitable opportunities to respond in class (Bartley, et al, 1999).

Inequities between the genders still remain, with the gap between success in school for boys and girls due partially to the attention teachers give students. Calling on boys is still more prevalent even when the girls volunteer (Clarken, 1995). A study of secondary teachers showed that more attention is given to boys. The boys interacted more than girls did with teachers (Martin and Newcomer, 1999). In another study of health and classes, boys received more teacher attention while girls received direct instruction in participation and cooperation. This resulted in an increase in girls' participation but not necessarily an increase in achievement (Owens and Cooney, 1999).

Teachers serve students by focusing on the child's growth and setting aside their own pre-existing ideas. When a student's true potential is the center of attention, a teacher's personal biases, past experiences and ideas about that student are forgotten.

REFERENCES: Brophy; Finn; Good; Good and Brophy; Hall and Sandler; Horn; Jones; Kelly; *Research for Better Schools;* Rist; Rubovits and Maehr; Sadker and Sadker; and Wallens. Update: Bartley, et al; Clarken; Martin and Newcomer; Peck.

TEACHER OBJECTIVE:

To provide response opportunities to perceived "low achievers" as frequently as to other students in the class.

STUDENT AWARENESS:

"I am going to be called on to perform in this class."

Positive is coded when the teacher provides a response opportunity for one of the five students identified as low achievers or one of the five high achievers. A response opportunity is any specific opportunity provided or permitted by the teacher for a student to respond to a question, recite, read aloud, express an opinion, give a report, do a problem on the chalkboard, demonstrate something, confirm a response given by another student, and so on.

UNIT 1 A Response Opportunities

- ► The response opportunity may be extended or brief.
- ➤ The response should be a public one. The student is in some way performing before a small group or the whole class. A minimum of four would be considered a small group.
- ► The response opportunity may be specifically directed to the student by calling his name or signaling to him nonverbally.
- ▶ When a student calls out a response, a positive is coded only if the teacher clearly recognizes the student's response (perhaps by saying "That's right, Billy," or "Naoko almost has the answer").
- ► If the calling out is ignored by the teacher, nothing is coded.
- ▶ Sometimes teachers delegate to the students themselves the responsibility for deciding who will perform next. This procedure does not relieve the teacher of the responsibility for equitable distribution of response opportunities.
- ► A positive is coded each time the student who is authorized to select responders calls on a target student.
- ► If the student does not respond when called on, responds incorrectly, or says he has no response, a response opportunity is nevertheless coded.
- ➤ Sometimes it is difficult to determine whether a series of questions directed

- toward one student constitutes a single extended response opportunity or several response opportunities.
- ► If a series of questions are all directed toward getting one particular response, one response opportunity should be coded.
- ► If the teacher obtains an acceptable response and then asks a different question, to which a different response is expected, a second response opportunity is coded.
- ► If the teacher calls on a student as a control technique (i.e., to get his attention), a response opportunity is not coded. The teacher does not expect the child to respond, and usually the child is aware that a response is not expected.

EXAMPLES OF:

C DES

Primary Grade Level: "Lamar, please spell *cat.*"

Intermediate Grade Level: "Sarah, what is the product of 10 times \$325.95?"

Secondary Grade Level: "Diego, what are the advantages of using solar energy instead of fossil fuels?"

Negative is coded when the teacher unreasonably prohibits a target student from responding or performing.

- Simply failing to call on a student does not result in a negative coding.
- ► If the student indicates that she wishes to respond, and in fairness should be given the opportunity, a negative is coded.
- ► A negative is also recorded if the target student is individually scolded for calling out an answer. (Scolding implies rebuking a student in a sarcastic, demeaning, or ridiculing manner.)
- ▶ A negative is not recorded if a student calls out an answer and the teacher reminds the entire class that this is inappropriate behavior without actually directing the criticism to the specific student. Sometimes reprimanding a child for calling out answers is entirely appropriate. Our concern is that a student for whom low expectations are held should receive his share of positive response opportunities and should not experience predominantly negative interaction with the teacher.

EXAMPLES OF:

CODES

Primary Grade Level: Teacher calls on Terry twice while ignoring a target student whose hand is up.

Intermediate Grade Level: "Luísa, I told you *not* to shout out answers when it's not your turn! Don't you ever listen?"

Secondary Grade Level: "Quiet, Nigel! You're always talking out of turn!"

Note: Certain subject areas lend themselves to more *frequent practice* of strands A and B of Unit 1; remember that the TESA theme is *equitability* of treatment for lows and highs. Teachers in such classes will find they can practice interactions from subsequent workshop units more frequently.



Affirmation or Correction

Students perform for teachers and, in turn, they want to know what teachers think of their performance. Students answer questions, complete tests, write journal entries, participate in class discussions, make projects and pictures, and so on. Teachers' responses to performance are a barometer for students to gauge how they are measuring up to the teacher's expectations. Unfortunately, research suggests that specific feedback occurs more with high achievers than low achievers. Low achievers may receive little or no feedback. If they do receive feedback, it often does not include the remedies for performance improvement.

African American and Latino students receive more negative feedback and less attention from teachers than do Euro-American students (Cooper and Allen, 1998). Providing more negative feedback and ignoring students may negatively impact student achievement. Constant correction has the potential to lower student self-esteem. Students may begin to rely exclusively on others for assistance. This is particularly true for second language learners (Parrini, 1997).

Teachers can benefit students by modeling corrective feedback. By demonstrating how to correct a mistake, teachers can help students develop self-correction skills. Self-regulating skills ensure that students become self-directed and not dependent on others. These skills include the ability to reflect on their own progress and achievement, identifying resources and goal-setting (Hilary Gardner, 1998).

Five key instructional practices are identified as most effective in providing corrective feedback and in helping students to self-regulate their own learning. This process includes: 1) giving timely, direct and appropriate guidance to enhance achievement; 2) guiding self-beliefs (encouraging positive self-talk and self-image) and goal-setting; 3) promoting reflective dialogue; 4) connecting abstract concepts; and 5) linking learning to new experiences. The conclusion underscores the importance that teachers play by providing appropriate cues, or affirming and correcting, during the process of giving feedback (Travers and Sheckley, 2001).

REFERENCES: Brophy; Good; Good and Brophy; Holt; *Research for Better Schools;* Rosenshine; Rubovits and Maehr; Sadker and Sadker; U.S. Commission on Civil Rights; Zigler and Kanzer. Update: Cooper and Allen; Gardner; Travers and Sheckley.

TEACHER OBJECTIVE-:

Low achievers will receive feedback about their class performance as frequently as others do.

STUDENT AWARENESS:

"I am going to be told promptly that my classwork is acceptable or not."

UNIT 1 ${f B}$ Feedback

Positive is coded when the teacher informs the student who has responded to a question, or performed in some way, or who is working at his desk, that his response or work is or is not acceptable.

- ➤ A positive is coded even if the feedback informs the child that his answer is wrong or his performance is inadequate.
- ➤ Sometimes the teacher may involve other students in providing affirmation or correction. A positive is coded in this instance.
- ► Feedback may be coded as positive even though it is cursory or perfunctory: "yes," "uh-huh," "good," "OK," "wrong," "no," or repetition of the student's answer while nonverbally communicating approval or disapproval, as by nodding or shaking your head.
- ▶ Redundant feedback should be coded only once. Redundant feedback occurs when the teacher uses several expressions to convey affirmation of one student response. For example, after a student has answered a question the teacher may say: "Yes. That's right. OK. Good." Since all four expressions affirm the same student response, only one positive is coded.

EXAMPLES OF:

C DES

Primary Grade Level: "Yes, Sang Woo, that's the way to hold your hand during the flag salute."

Intermediate Grade Level: "No, Tom, gunpowder was not used by the Romans against the Huns."

Secondary Grade Level: "The first two steps have been correctly computed, Cassandra. The third step needs to be recalculated because the math computation is incorrect."

O Negative is coded when the teacher does not react or comment after a student has responded to a question, read aloud, recited, or performed in some way, usually at the teacher's request.

- ➤ A negative is coded if the student is not informed as to the acceptability of his performance by any verbal or nonverbal communication from the teacher.
- ► A negative should he recorded if the teacher repeats the question in a quizzical manner without indicating then or later whether the student's response was right or wrong.
- ► Should a teacher belittle a student's response by using sarcasm or embarrassing criticism, a negative should be coded.
- ► Nothing is coded if the teacher ignores an unsolicited or called-out response of a student.

EXAMPLES OF:

CODES

Primary Grade Level: Teacher asks target student to point to the item that does not belong to the set, then does not react to the student's choice.

Intermediate Grade Level: "You *really* believe in Santa Claus, Ted?" (said in a demeaning or sarcastic way).

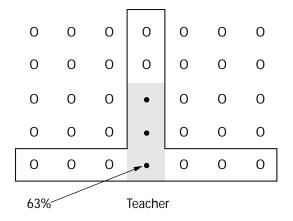
Secondary Grade Level: "You call that a lateral pass?"



Proximity

Proximity refers to the location of students in the classroom and the distance between the student and the teacher. Low achievers are frequently placed farther from the teacher or in a group that receives less of the teacher's attention. Low achievers are most frequently clustered in the rear corners of the room or in a group off to one side, as noted by TESA classroom observers (Rist, 1972).

Students most likely to be asked questions by the teacher or to participate in discussions were seated in a T-shaped area. The top of the T extends across the front row of seats, and the stem extends down the middle of the room. Sixty-three percent of student responses came from one of the three seats in the stem of the T. This arrangement can be effective in classrooms if low-achieving students are seated in key positions in the T. In this way, the teacher can be within arm's reach and can interact with them as frequently as with other students (Adams and Biddle, 1980).



The teacher's proximity to Hispanic students results in increased achievement. When the teacher is physically closer to students, grades increase 10 percent for some students (Bartley, et al, 1999). Parker Palmer, in To *Know as We Are Known*, points out that when chairs are arranged facing the front of the class, row upon row, the learning space is confined to direct attention between students and teacher (1983). Such an arrangement suggests that there is no room for students to relate to each other. When chairs are placed in a circle, creating an open space, the arrangement invites connection and a community of learning. Teachers are free to interact and walk among students. Many teachers have a "circle time" where students share stories in a space apart from more rigid arrangements of desks and chairs. This, too, invites sharing, community and engaging with one another.

REFERENCES: Adams and Biddle; Good; Hall and Sandler; Rist; Sadker and Sadker; Research for Better Schools. Update: Bartley, et al; Palmer.

TEACHER OBJECTIVE:

In a friendly manner, to be within arm's reach of low achievers as frequently as with other students in the class.

STUDENT AWARENESS:

"My teacher is close by, and it doesn't bother me."

UNIT 1 C Personal Regard

Positive is coded when the teacher comes within arm's reach of a target student, whether or not the student is aware of her presence.

- ► If the class is working in small groups and the teacher is physically part of the group, a positive is coded once for each target student who is within arm's reach of the teacher.
- ▶ If the students are working in assigned locations and the teacher remains for the most part in one location, a positive is coded once for each target student who is located within arm's reach of the teacher. This situation may occur when the teacher is leading a total class discussion or when the students are working at their seats while the teacher remains at the desk.
- ► If students are working individually or in clusters and the teacher is moving about the room, a positive is coded each time the teacher goes to a student and interacts with her.
- ► If a student has chosen to isolate himself from the class, a positive is coded if the teacher goes to the student.
- ► Merely passing by a student does not qualify for a positive code unless the teacher should speak to or touch the student in passing. If the purpose of the proximity is punishment, nothing is coded.
- ► Nothing is coded if the proximity is initiated by the student.

EXAMPLES OF:

C DES

Primary Grade Level: Teacher stands behind Jim while he puts a piece into a jigsaw puzzle.

Intermediate Grade Level: Teacher talks with Pedro while sitting beside a target student who is reading silently.

Secondary Grade Level: Teacher stops to look at Connie's worksheet on the way to the chalkboard.

O Negative is coded when the teacher avoids proximity with a target student.

- ➤ The teacher may remove the student to a more distant location. Or the teacher may step away from a student who has approached.
- ► In some circumstances, proximity with all students is not possible. Also, students sometimes have a genuine need to isolate themselves from the teacher and their classmates. Remember that it is the distribution of positive and negative codings that concerns us.

EXAMPLES OF:

CODES

Primary Grade Level: "You're behaving poorly, Thelma. Go to the Principal."

Intermediate Grade Level: "Take your book and sit in the hall, Calvin."

Secondary Grade Level: The teacher sits behind the desk and motions to the student to come to the desk and says, "Bring your paper up here."

Individual Helping

Teachers are usually alert to the need of low achievers for individual help. However, high achievers and average students are often more aggressive in seeking the teacher's help. Teacher expectations, discussed in *Equitable Distribution of Response Opportunities*, may also result in higher achievers getting more than their share of a teacher's time. One or two students in a classroom may be consistently ignored, even though they signal for a teacher's assistance.

Changes in state and local policies that encourage individual attention have occurred during recent years. For instance, California's Class Size Reduction Initiative in primary grades occurred in the early 1990s. This resulted from research that substantiated the finding that smaller classroom size increased educators' ability to understand and work with their students.

Mentoring is one means of giving students individual help. Even though mentoring is not always an activity conducted exclusively between teacher and student, there is merit in considering the benefits of mentors. Mentors are committed to students' success. Mentors are actively involved in responding to students' performance, offering assistance and outside resources, assessing obstacles and solutions. Bond (2000) studied the effects of mentoring on student achievement. His report discusses one-on-one tutoring, volunteer tutor schemes, peer tutoring as well as

teacher-student mentoring. He promotes mentoring as a model for a better learning environment because it focuses on the social and individual contexts of learning. These are considerations for teachers who want to increase the availability of individual help for students.

Belcher et al (2000) evaluated a program to enhance student motivation that incorporates the mentoring of homework assignments. Their study drew a correlation between poor homework completion and poor self-perceptions and self-esteem. In addition to the individual mentoring of homework assignments, classroom activities were used to stimulate participation and interest. Results showed increased student achievement and a reduction in incomplete assignments.

REFERENCES: Good and Brophy; Mendoza; Sadker and Sadker; Torrance. Update: Belcher; Bond.

TEACHER OBJECTIVE:

To provide individual help to my low achievers as frequently as I do my other students.

STUDENT AWARENESS:

"My teacher is concerned about me and wants me to succeed."

UNIT 2 A Response Opportunities

Positive is coded when the teacher gives individual assistance to a student.

- ► The teacher's help may or may not be solicited by the student.
- ▶ Individual help is usually a relatively private interaction between a student and the teacher. We will usually not code as individual help teacher-student exchanges to which the rest of the class or group is an audience. However, the teacher may find several students having the same difficulty and form a temporary group or help two students seated together at the same time. In this case, positives will be coded for each target student involved.
- ➤ One positive is coded whether the individual help is extensive (five minutes or more) or brief (a simple comment). The length of the helping time does not necessarily correspond to the quality of the help.
- ▶ Brief help could be nonverbal. For example, a teacher sometimes points to an error, and smiles or nods when the student makes the correction. A positive should be coded.
- Merely commenting on a student's work does not necessarily constitute help. The observer must decide that the teachers' action will help the student to improve her

- work. If the teacher looks at a student's work and comments, "That's good," a positive would *not* be coded for individual help because the student is not being told how to *improve* her work. (Such interaction is praise, and will be explained in strand B of this unit.)
- ► Individual help provided by someone other than the teacher will not be coded. To do so would obscure the teacher's interaction patterns. Also, the observer will need to be attentive to the teacher to code all three strands in Unit 2.

EXAMPLES OF:

C DES

Primary Grade Level: "Hold the pencil just tight enough to keep it from slipping, but not so tightly that it dents your finger, Daryl."

Intermediate Grade Level: "Nikki, write your numerals in straight columns so you can add them accurately."

Secondary Grade Level: "Step forward with your left foot, Lupé, then pivot to your right."

O Negative is coded when the teacher ignores the student's attempt to obtain teacher help.

- ▶ For example, if the teacher is moving about the room helping individuals and a student has raised his hand as a signal that he needs help, a negative is coded if the teacher does not provide help within a reasonable time. Reasonability is easily determined by an observer. If the teacher helps other students at the same table, or assists other students more than once without assisting the student who is signaling for help, the observer would code a negative, because help was not provided when it was reasonable to do so.
- ➤ A negative is also recorded if a student approaches the teacher asking for help and is told to take his seat in a discourteous or disrespectful manner. However, if the teacher cannot help the student at that

time and postpones the help, a negative is not recorded; when the help is provided, a positive should be coded.

EXAMPLES OF:

CODES

Primary Grade Level: The teacher fails, within a reasonable time, to assist a student who signals for help.

Intermediate Grade Level: "I told you not to come up here until your turn, Cynthia. Now take your seat this minute."

Secondary Grade Level: "Washington is always capitalized, Bob!"

Praise for the Learning Performance

Research suggests that teachers are less likely to praise perceived low achievers and more likely to criticize them for incorrect public responses. When low achievers do get praise, it is often for marginal or inadequate public responses from a teacher who may be sympathetic rather honest in his or her assessment. Paul Burnett's study (1999) supports previous research that states that praise is more effective than criticism. In his study of 263 students, positive comments were found to be more influential on students' achievement than were negative comments. His study concluded that frequent positive comments from teachers also have the benefit of increasing students' positive self-talk.

Positive student-teacher relationships increase self-esteem and the level of student participation in the classroom. Praise significantly impacts these student-teacher relationships (Hodges and Wolf, 1998). The interaction of the teacher has a strong impact on student achievement. Alexander Yeung (1999), in his study of self-esteem and interest in schoolwork, suggests in-service training for teachers on effective feedback techniques for academic expectancy.

Praise is more likely to be effective if given immediately after the accomplishment. It is also more likely to be effective if it is honest and consistent with the effort or amount of accomplishment. Connolly and others point out that "quality components" are important to consider when giving praise. These non verbal messages include:

Looking at the student Voice tone

Calling the student by name Smiling Using appropriate humor Being enthusiastic Being honest and natural

In his article, "Losing Faith in Self-Esteem," Richard Colvin (2000) contends that selfesteem does not have a substantial impact on achievement; rather, healthy self-esteem comes from achievement. Schools should support and promote accomplishment over "feel good" activities. Carol Dweck's (1999) review of research suggests that praise alone is not enough. Students also need to focus on their potential to learn, value challenge, and concentrate on effort and the learning processes in the face of obstacles. She suggests that empowering students to take responsibility for their learning over dependence on outside reinforcement will increase student achievement.

Praise can be more helpful for dependent, anxious students than for assertive, confident ones. Frank Merrett's study (1996) examines the effectiveness of 1) praise, 2) prompting students with questions to help them discover answers, and 3) waiting for responses when tutoring slow learners. He found that praise is the most significant factor of the three, correlating positively with student gain. Achievement increases when teachers use praise.

The quality of the praise, not the quantity, has the most impact on students. Teachers can increase the positive effects of praise by directing it to students who respond well to it. Praise is also most effective when it is specific and credible rather than general and vague. For example, "Susan, your answer

shows that you thoroughly understand the formula for finding circumference!" is more effective than "Good work, Susan" (Wilson-Saddler, 1997). Real encouragement is even better than praise. It comes in the form of honest, caring concern without strings attached (Gonzalez-Mena, 1995).

REFERENCES: Brophy; Clark and Walberg; de Groat and Thompson; Dornbusch and Scott, Good; Good and Brophy; Hadley; Hurlock; Lanzetta and Hannah; Lesniak, Perkins; Riessman; Rist; Rosenshine; Sadker and Sadker; Soar; Vandell; Weiner and Kukla; Yee. Update: Alber; Colvin; Connolly; Dweck; Gonzalez-Mena; Hodges and Wolf; Merrett; Wilson-Saddler, Yeung

TEACHER OBJECTIVE:

To praise the learning performance of low achievers as frequently as that of other students.

STUDENT AWARENESS:

"My teacher is especially pleased with my classwork."

UNIT 2 B Feedback

Positive is coded when the teacher praises the student's learning performance.

- ▶ Praise goes beyond mere acceptance to express pleasure in or enthusiasm for the student's performance of activities related to class objectives.
- ➤ A teacher may say "Right" or "Good" in a toneless way, with little facial expression. She is merely accepting or affirming the student's answer. She is not expressing enthusiasm or pleasure. On the other hand, the teacher may say "Right!" or "Good!" in a tone of voice and with a facial expression that says to the student, "I am really pleased. You did a fine job."
- ▶ We are concerned only with praise of learning performance here. A positive is coded when the teacher praises a student's answer to a question, a report, written work, contribution to a discussion, and so forth. Nothing is coded for compliments regarding posture, neatness, clothing, and so forth. Such comments will be considered in the next unit.
- ► The observer should code only once for each unit of praise, whether it is one word or an extended comment.
- ▶ If the teacher uses a reward system—giving the student points, a token, or a piece of candy—a positive may be coded when such a reward is given, since the reward implies praise. This coding assumes that the students understand the reward system and value the reward.
- ► Phony praise is easily detected by most students and may be more harmful than helpful. Teachers should watch for oppor-

- tunities to praise sincerely rather than praise indiscriminately.
- ▶ Many students, especially older students, respond more to praise given in private than in public. To accommodate private praise, Unit 2 couples praise in strand B with individual helping in strand A. Observers may need to move about the room to remain close enough to the teacher to code private praise. But observers will find that praise can be seen as well as heard. The teacher's expression, gestures, and posture communicate praise even when the observer cannot hear every word.
- ► If the teacher arranges for praise by another student, a positive is coded. For example, after Siang Sea reads her composition to the group, the teacher may ask Jack (who appears favorably impressed), "What did you like about Siang Sea's story?"

EXAMPLES OF:

C DES

Primary Grade Level: The teacher gives Angelina two plus marks for completing her task card on time.

Intermediate Grade Level: "Show the class your Halloween drawing, Sam."

Secondary Grade Level: "Your insightful analysis of this poem shows you understand the writer's intent. Tell us how you came to this conclusion."

O Negative is coded when the teacher criticizes the student's performance in a sarcastic or demeaning manner.

- ▶ Obvious nonverbal indications of disapproval will be coded negative (e.g., looking disgusted or extremely frustrated and annoyed after a student responds). In coding a negative, the criticism or nonverbal expression should go beyond "correction" (See Unit 1, strand B, Affirmation or Correction). The statement "Your answer is incorrect" is correction and would not be coded negative, even in Unit 1.
- ► "Wrong again, Julio. You come up with more wrong answers than right answers," is criticism. Simply shaking your head to indicate that an answer is wrong is correction. Shaking your head with a deliberate look of exasperation is criticism. The student is made to feel ashamed of his learning performance.

➤ Criticisms of the student's social interactions ("Another fight, Billy?") or personal attributes ("Couldn't you try to be neater?") should not be coded.

EXAMPLES OF:

CODES

Primary Grade Level: "Can't you do anything right, Tillie?"

Intermediate Grade Level: "You're not too graceful, are you, Mark?"

Secondary Grade Level: "This cake looks like someone sat on it, Rosa."

UNIT 2 B Feedback

Praise

During Unit 2 you will be called upon to use praise rather than just letting the student know whether he is right or wrong. It has been noticed that teachers do not often vary their words of praise. When "good" is used repeatedly, it loses its impact.

Edward S. Kubany (1972) suggests various ways to say "good for you." You may find them helpful in implementing Unit 2.

- ► I am proud of the way you worked today.
- ► I think you've got it now.
- ► I knew you could do it.
- You are really improving.
- ► You are getting better everyday.
- ► That is quite an improvement.
- ► That's IT!
- ► You have great potential.
- ► That looks like it is going to be a great report.
- ► You are on the right track now.
- ► You remembered.
- ► You really make my job fun.
- ► Good for you.
- ► Keep up the good work.
- ► BRAVO!

- ► You figured that out fast.
- ► That's the way to do it.
- You are doing fine.
- ► You make it look easy
- ► Now you've got the hang of it.
- ► Good thinking.
- ► That's right.
- ► Show the class your work.
- ► How impressive!
- ► That is a good observation.
- ► Way to go.
- ► You are very good at this.
- ► That's better than ever.
- ► You must have been practicing.
- ► Congratulations!

Courtesy

Webster's International Dictionary defines courteous behavior as attentive, considerate and thoughtful. The reverse would be ignoring, unkind and rude behavior. If the attention a student receives from the teacher is considered a demonstration of courtesy, many female and minority students are treated discourteously. The distribution of verbal attention in the classroom closely parallels the way in which social or gender groups are rewarded in the world of work.

Research has indicated that "the best and the brightest" students get the majority of teacher attention. Teachers give the most time and attention to the most demanding and aggressive students, who usually are male. Males are given more opportunities to respond and receive more verbal coaching and nonverbal encouragement than are females. Minorities and low achievers are frequently ignored, interrupted, spoken to harshly, reprimanded and given little encouragement. Careful attention should be given to subtleties such as the tone of conversation and nonverbal interactions with students (Sadker and Sadker, 1985).

Courtesy is shown in environments of care. Care is a critical component in schools. Students need it to thrive (Vare and Miller, 2000). Teachers can create a caring environment by being honest, communicating effectively, being flexible, kind, promoting humor and developing interpersonal relationships

with students. Teachers who demonstrated that they cared were most highly rated by students (Cothran and Ennis, 2000).

"Good teaching cannot be reduced to technique: good teaching comes from the identity and integrity of the teacher" (Palmer, p. 10). His definition of hospitality captures the essence of courtesy and caring:

"Good teaching is an act of hospitality toward the young and hospitality is always an act that benefits the host even more than the guest. The teacher's hospitality to the students results in a world more hospitable to the teacher." (Palmer, p. 50)

REFERENCES: Davidson and Lang; Dusek and Joseph; Dillon; Good; Good and Brophy; Hall and Sandler; Hilliard; Lippitt and Associates; Rist; Sadker and Sadker; Silberman. Update: Cothran and Ennis; Krall and Jalongo; Palmer; Vare and Miller; Webster.



To use courteous words as frequently with low achievers as with other students and as frequently with all students as with adults.

STUDENT AWARENESS:

"My teacher respects me."

Positive is coded when the teacher uses expressions of courtesy in interaction with the student.

- ► "Excuse me," "You're welcome," "Will you please?" "I'm sorry," and "Thank you" are appropriate expressions of courtesy. Intonation and facial expression suggest sincerity.
- ► A pleasant manner, without the *words*, is not enough for a positive code.

EXAMPLES OF:

C DES

Primary Grade Level: "Thank you, Miguel, for holding the door for me."

Intermediate Grade Level: "Ellen, will you please run the projector today?"

Secondary Grade Level: "Excuse me, Philip, I didn't hear the last part of your question."

UNIT 2 C Personal Regard

Negative is coded when the teacher behaves toward the student in a disrespectful manner that would not be characteristic of the teacher's behavior toward adults.

- ➤ The teacher makes rude or insulting remarks to the student (e.g., "What's it to you?"; "Who do you think you're talking to?"; "So what?"; "Don't he so stupid"). A negative coding should he used even though the teacher's remark is accompanied by a friendly expression or is said in a kidding way. Sometimes a teacher's cleverness is dearly bought at the cost of a student's dignity.
- ► The teacher uses expression of courtesy, but in a sarcastic tone or with a facial expression that suggests insincerity.
- ► The teacher interrupts while the student is speaking, without apology or explanation.
- ► If the teacher fails to say "Thank you," or "Excuse me," nothing is coded.

EXAMPLES OF:

CODES

Primary Grade Level: "Who do you think you're talking to, Mike?"

Intermediate Grade Level: "Will you *please* be quiet, Myra?"

Secondary Grade Level: "Get out of my way, Jamal!"

Latency

The term *latency*, or *wait time*, applies to the time that elapses between asking a question and terminating the opportunity for a response (Brophy and Good, 1969; Good, 1987). Pausing three seconds or more after asking a question (*wait time 1*) and pausing after a student response (*wait time 2*) increase the students' use of language and logic. (Rowe, 1986).

Benefits of teacher wait time are:

- ➤ There is a decrease in disciplinary actions such as "time-out" or stopping in order to regain control of students.
- ► The length of student responses increases 300%-700%.
- ► The responses are more often supported by evidence and logical argument.
- ► There is an increase in higher-level thinking that involves considering options.
- ► The number of questions asked by students increases, as do the number of experiments they propose.
- Student-teacher exchanges increase; teacher-centered, "show-and-tell" behavior decreases.
- ► The variety of students participating voluntarily in discussions increases.
- ► The number of unsolicited but appropriate contributions by students increases.
- ► Student confidence increases, as reflected in their responses.
- ► Achievement improves on written measures where the items are cognitively complex, because pauses allow students time to take notes and to mind-map.

The length of the pause after a question should vary according to the complexity of the question; higher-level questions require longer wait times. These include questions that invite students to do more than recall simple facts. Higher-level questions invite students to interpret or reorganize facts, analyze information and apply abstract principles. These answers require more thinking time, so wait time should be increased.

Elementary teachers typically provide significantly more wait-time for male students than for females. Providing more wait time for boys conveys that the teacher expects they know the answer. Calling on boys more often also conveys that boys should be prepared to be called on. These teacher behaviors reinforce the belief that males are capable and expected to perform. Interrupting a female student before her answer is formulated communicates that she is not capable (Hwang, 1993).

The time teachers can dedicate to students is limited, so some teachers may feel that it is useless to waste extensive time with lowachieving students. Some teachers wait less time for low-achieving students to answer questions, then quickly ask a high-expectation student to "help out." This interrupts the performance of the low-expectation students *and* communicates that the teacher believes the higher achiever is more capable.

Studies show that teachers allow low achievers less wait time than high achievers (Tauber, 1997). If a high achiever hesitates, the tendency may be to assume that the student is formulating a worthwhile response. When a low achiever hesitates, the pause may

suggest that the student does not know the answer. In this case, the teacher may not wait for the response. The desire to call on a low achiever at all may come more from a belief that says good teaching *should* include participation from everyone rather than from a belief that the student *should* be allowed the time and prompting to respond.

REFERENCES: Brophy; Brophy and Good; Flanders; Hall and Sandler; Nuthall; Rowe. Update: Hwang, Tauber.

TEACHER OBJECTIVE:

To give low achievers as much time as other students to respond to a task or question.

STUDENT AWARENESS:

"I have time to think."

Positive is coded when the teacher allows the student enough time (minimum of five seconds) to think the question over before the teacher terminates the response opportunity or attempts to assist the student.

► If the teacher allows five seconds or more, a positive is coded whether or not the student answers.

EXAMPLES OF:

C DES

Primary Grade Level: The teacher allows the target student at least five seconds to respond.

Intermediate Grade Level: The teacher does not interrupt "thinking" time of the target student until at least five seconds have elapsed.

Secondary Grade Level: The teacher does not try to help the target student during the first five seconds of a response opportunity.

O Negative is coded when the teacher allows the student less than five seconds to respond.

- ► Either the teacher gives the answer or goes on to another student or makes a comment indicating that the student's time is up.
- ► If the student terminates the response opportunity by answering immediately or stating that he cannot answer, nothing is coded.

EXAMPLES OF:

CODES

Primary Grade Level: The teacher ends a response opportunity in less than five seconds.

Intermediate Grade Level: The teacher calls on another student after giving the target student less than five seconds to respond.

Secondary Grade Level: The teacher asks a second question of the target student less than five seconds after posing the original question.

Reasons for Praise

Praise is a powerful tool for changing and improving student behaviors. Praise helps build student-teacher relationships. Praise models social skills and recognizes students' efforts at the same time. "Catching students being good" increases the odds that the desired behavior will occur again. Specific and immediate feedback about the learning performance gives students knowledge of their results and increases the chances for them to repeat the success in the future. A minimum ratio of 4:1 for praise versus corrective action is recommended.

Some teachers rarely praise low achievers' success, while others praise everything they do, even responses that are incorrect (Good et al, 1987). Praise should focus on students' task-related behavior and should imply that they have succeeded because they have the necessary skills and abilities to succeed and have applied the effort. Praise is more likely to be effective when it is specific, not global, and when it focuses on the accomplishment rather than on the teacher or student (Brophy, 1986).

Students should be praised when they:

- ► Have made genuine progress or accomplishments.
- May not realize or appreciate their accomplishment.
- ► Respond well to praise (Brophy, 1986).

A planned and intentional four-step process for praising includes:

- ▶ Describing the behavior or accomplishment that is being praised.
- Giving the student reasons the behavior or accomplishment is being praised.

- ► Requesting acknowledgment from the student indicating that he or she understands why he or she is being praised.
- ► Providing a positive consequence for the behavior or accomplishment.

This four-step process allows students to understand what they are doing right, the reasons behind continuing the behavior, to accept responsibility, and to see the benefits of continuing the behavior or achievement.

Praise should:

- ► Immediately follow the accomplishment.
- ► Be specific to the accomplishment.
- ▶ Be informative or appreciative.
- ► Be varied and credible.
- ► Be natural rather than theatrical.
- ► Be private most of the time.
- ► Be individualized.
- ► Be attributed to effort and ability.

A teacher looking over students' shoulders may just smile and nod or say, "Good." The actions or words are sufficient; the teacher does not need to explain. However, over the course of a longer and more complex piece of student work such as a story, picture or report, the teacher needs to be specific about the parts of the product that deserve praise or that could be improved. **REFERENCES:** Brophy; Flanders; Good and Brophy; Good, Slavings, Harel and Emerson; Powell. Update: Connolly and others; Glazer.

TEACHER OBJECTIVE:

Specifically, to tell low achievers as frequently as other students why their classwork is acceptable or praiseworthy.

STUDENT AWARENESS:

"My teacher is going to tell me why he likes what I accomplish in this class."

Positive is coded when the teacher gives a reason for praising a student's learning performance.

- ► The teacher specifies what is praiseworthy about the student's school work. Rather than making a general comment like "Terrific" or "Great," the teacher might say: "The way you blended blue and green in the sky shows your knowledge and understanding of color groups," or "Ahmed read that paragraph so expressively that I could almost feel the pain myself," or "You were very objective in your explanation of both sides of that campaign issue."
- ► A positive is also coded if the teacher delegates extended praise to another student. For example, the teacher might ask Gabriela what she likes about Tim's report.

EXAMPLES OF:

C DES

Primary Grade Level: "This is great! I would like to display it for the others to see, since you have worked so hard on it."

Intermediate Grade Level: "Excellent work! Your perfect score shows you paid attention to the directions."

Secondary Grade Level: "Your paper shows exceptional organization. The ideas follow a logical sequence and end with a clear conclusion."

UNIT 3 ${f B}$ Feedback

O Negative is coded when the teacher is sarcastic or gives insincere praise.

► Nothing is coded even if in the judgment of the observer there was an opportunity to give reasons for praise and the teacher failed to do so.

EXAMPLES OF:

CODES

Primary Grade Level: "Nice going, Blabbermouth!"

Intermediate Grade Level: "Great shot, Butterfingers!"

Secondary Grade Level: "Oh, *that's* clever, Jacob; now try putting your *brain* in gear."

Personal Interest Statements and Compliments

Recognition of a student's behaviors that are extraneous to the instructional tasks reflects a teacher's personal interest in the child. Occasions for compliments or personal-interest statements are more likely to occur at times when students are not directly involved in class work. In Unit 2, Strand B, praise of the learning performance focuses directly on class-related objectives. Students need both types of reinforcement. The challenge for the teacher may be to remember to use these techniques as frequently with low achievers as with all other students.

Educators need to understand and relate to students as social beings as well as academic learners. To ignore social needs is to deny students the needed support and encouragement from teachers that makes subject-matter achievement possible. Achievement is an important criterion for evaluating schools, but it is not the only significant factor (McCaslin and Good, 1996).

Lesson plans that encourage students to make connections between the material presented (literature, history, etc.) and their lives enhance learning. Connections are made through sharing personal experiences, followed by teacher questioning. A teacher might ask, "How many of you can relate a similar experience?" or "Has anyone else felt like Jose before?" These connections not only allow students to know themselves better, but give teachers information about students' lives. Teachers can use this information later to compliment students and to make personal-interest comments.

Education is about healing and wholeness. It is about empowerment, liberation, transcendence, and renewing the vitality of life. It is about finding and claiming ourselves and our place in the world (Palmer, p. 19).

Despite extensive reforms in school and teaching practices, immigrant students are frequently excluded from reforms because, due to a lack of funds, teachers do not have adequate training and experience to understand and meet their needs. Teachers should utilize a student-centered strategy that focuses on the interests, culture and needs of each student. When teachers interact with others, they can examine their biases and assumptions. They also learn more about their students' cultures and experiences. This creates opportunities for teachers to discover how to meet immigrant students' needs (Lucas, 1997).

Taking time to listen to a student share a personal experience requires flexibility and patience. At a Harvard Graduate School of Education Risk and Prevention Program, the most important factor preventing students from failing or leaving school was identified as *one interested adult*. Unfortunately, many students do not receive that special interest (Ackerman, 1997).

Socioeconomically disadvantaged students are more likely to require more warmth and support in addition to good teaching. Unfortunately, they frequently receive less. Lower-income students felt like teachers disliked them personally and favored higher-income students. Higher-income students assumed that teachers liked them (Brant-linger, 1994). Tauber (1997) admits that he personally took advantage of this fact with his own children. At the beginning of each school year, he made sure that his children

were well dressed, groomed and carried new notebooks. These visual cues signaled a higher socioeconomic class. He knew that this increased the likelihood that they would receive more attention. He writes:

Whether it is a student's social class, race, ethnicity or some combination of these factors that triggers teachers' expectations, the potential for real damage exists. It is important that teachers are aware of the preconceived stereotypes that they may bring into their classrooms." (p.89).

REFERENCES: Brophy; Good; Lewis; Perkins; Rist; Wegginton. Update: Ackerman; Brantlinger; Lucas; McCaslin and Good; Palmer; Tauber.

TEACHER OBJECTIVE:

To give personal compliments to low achievers as frequently as to other students; to express personal interest in the outside activities of low achievers as frequently as to other students.

STUDENT AWARENESS:

"I am more than just a student to my teacher; my teacher even compliments me."

UNIT 3 C Personal Regard

Positive is coded when the teacher asks questions, compliments, or makes statements relating to the student's personal interests or experiences.

- ► For example, "Soo Ling has been to Michigan" or "Alice, you are so interested in cars. Perhaps you would like to react to this story."
- ► A positive is coded if the teacher asks a question that elicits information about the student's experiences (e.g., "How old are your twin brothers?" or "Antonio, what do you enjoy most about collecting stamps?").
- ▶ Note that the teacher must express personal interest in or knowledge of the specific student. Simply assigning the entire class to write about how they spent the holiday does not express interest in the individual student and will not be coded. However, such an assignment may be used to create a situation in which the teacher can interact with specific students about their interests.
- ▶ A positive is coded when the teacher compliments the student for something extraneous to the instructional task (e.g., "How nice you look today" or "I saw the basketball game. You were terrific" or "Congratulations on being elected to student government office").

EXAMPLES OF:

C DES

Primary Grade Level:

"Cantrise, you have a new puppy at your house; how often do you feed it?" (personal interest)

Intermediate Grade Level: "Juan, you recently visited Mexico City; what are some of the means of transportation you used there?"

Secondary Grade Level: "When you're fishing, Leewah, how do you accommodate for differences in water temperature and water depth?"

Negative is coded when the teacher negatively curtails or belittles the student's attempt to tell about a personal interest or activity.

- ➤ Teachers sometimes stop a student from relating a personal experience by saying, "That doesn't have anything to do with our lesson," or "We don't have time for that now." If the teacher suggests another time for the student to share her personal experience, nothing is coded.
- ► A negative is coded if the teacher belittles the student's personal experience or interest (e.g., "I'm sure everybody here has been to a zoo" or "Nobody's interested in hearing about that").
- ► A negative is coded when the teacher puts down the child for a behavior or characteristic extraneous to the assigned learning task (e.g., "Don't you ever comb your hair?" or "Be careful—that look will freeze on your face" or "You're not too graceful, are you?" or "Did you eat your breakfast on your math paper?").

► A negative should not be coded because a teacher misses a chance for a compliment; the teacher may have a reason unknown to the observer for not commenting.

EXAMPLES OF:

CODES

Primary Grade Level:

"Maria, don't bother me with your stories." (lack of personal interest)

"You're a mess, Langston." (uncomplimentary)

Intermediate Grade Level:

"Who cares, Maying?" (lack of personal interest)

"Don't you ever clean out your back pack? It looks like a rat's nest." (*uncomplimentary*)

Secondary Grade Level:

"Your brother passed the bar exam?" (uncomplimentary)

"I'm too busy to talk, right now." (lack of personal interest)

Delving, Rephrasing, Giving Clues

Low achievers are asked fewer questions than are high achievers. When they are questioned, low achievers are frequently asked the easiest questions and are often *let off the hook* if they look hesitant or bewildered. Teachers are less apt to provide clues or to delve for the answers with low achievers because the teacher suspects that delving will be fruitless or fears that probing will embarrass the student. Consequently, the teacher's questioning strategy may be less encouraging or less helpful for low achievers.

However, while some questions lend themselves to simplification through rephrasing or by dividing into similar parts, others do not. Continued attempts to elicit an improved response may amount to pointless *pumping* of the student (Brophy, 1986). It is important that the teacher recognize the student's best mode of learning—be it visual, auditory, kinesthetic, or some combination of these—and ask questions that give the student the optimum chance for success.

Teachers signal expectations both with words and non verbally. A teacher who asks a question with his arms folded may communicate a negative expectation. Students are likely to feel intimidated and may not respond. Responses increase when teachers choose words that encourage responses. For instance, "Someone please tell me the connection between these two facts," communicates an invitation rather than a command. It also implies a belief that students have the answer. This is compared to "This is probably too hard, but I'll ask you anyway...tell me the

connection between x and y." When students feel frightened that they can't perform, it prohibits responses (Tauber, 1997).

In *The Courage to Teach* (1998), Parker Palmer reminds us that questioning is a skill that we need to develop in students as well as teachers. When teachers model skills that encourage students to give voice to their thoughts and ideas, students learn how they can question others:

"When we learn to ask good questions, we discover that yet another competence is needed: the ability to turn a question-and-answer session between the teacher and individual students into a complex communal dialogue that bounces all around the room. My students will learn much more when I turn their eyes from always looking at me and help them look at one another." (p.134)

REFERENCES: Baker and Snow; Brophy; Good and Brophy; Hall and Sandler; Riessman. Update: Palmer; Sadker and Sadker; Tauber.



To help all students to respond to questions by providing them additional information.

STUDENT AWARENESS:

"My teacher is making a special effort in helping me to answer."

Positive is coded when the teacher provides any additional information verbally or nonverbally to help the student respond to a question.

- ► The student may have answered the question incompletely, incorrectly, or may not have responded at all.
- ► The teacher may rephrase the question, provide a clue, provide additional information, explain a word in the question, ask a different but related question, and so on.
- ► Just repeating the original question would not be coded as delving.
- ▶ Do not overdelve. Your purpose is to ensure that the student has what help he needs to respond; it is not to wring a response from the student.
- ▶ Delving is coded only once for each recitation turn the child has. That is, if the student does not respond or responds inadequately, all delving done by the teacher to obtain or improve that response is coded as a single instance.
- ► Delving will be coded even though it does not produce the desired response from the student.

EXAMPLES OF:

C DES

Primary Grade Level:

Teacher: "Name three green vegetables."

Student: (no response)

Teacher: "What about the ones shaped

like small marbles?" or "The name of one starts with the letter

after O."

Intermediate Grade Level: "So you think the president should be re-elected, Alicia; expand on that, please."

Secondary Grade Level: "You agree with Ken that *Apocalypse Now* was a shocking war film? Why, Janell?"

Negative is coded when the teacher terminates the response opportunity of a student who has not responded or whose answer was inadequate without rephrasing the question, providing additional information, or delving in some way.

- ► A response is not considered inadequate unless the teacher so indicates to the student by commenting or by asking the same question of another student.
- ➤ Sometimes delving is inappropriate. Remember that the observer's codings are to let you know whether you usually delve with some children but consistently fail to delve with others.

EXAMPLES OF:

CODES

Primary Grade Level:

Teacher: "Name three green vegetables,

Hisako."

Hisako: (no response)

Teacher: "Candice, can you name three

green vegetables?"

Intermediate Grade Level:

Teacher: "Why do you think the president

should be re-elected, Alicia?"

Alicia: "I just think he ought to be

reelected."

Teacher: "Why do you think the president

should be re-elected, Vera?"

Secondary Grade Level:

Teacher: "Why do you think Apocalypse

Now was a shocking war film,

Janell?"

Janell: "I just thought it was."

Teacher: "Well, Christy, why were you

shocked by the film?"

Listening

Students spend a great deal of their class time listening. Researcher Ned Flanders (1961) formulated the Rule of Two-Thirds, which states that someone in the classroom is talking two-thirds of the time and it is usually the teacher. Flanders found that teachers of high-achieving students talked about 55 percent of the time. Teachers of low-achieving students monopolized 80 percent of the talking. This suggests that low achievers spend considerably more time listening than being heard.

When students are not heard, and teachers monopolize classroom talk, knowledge rests entirely with the teacher. Student voices can be developed by negotiating curriculum, different writing processes such as journaling and expository writing, and building on different cultural identities. Teachers are challenged to encourage students to voice their viewpoints both within and without the classroom (Kordalewski, 2000).

Research has found that teachers make eye contact more often with males than with females, nodding and gesturing more often with males and using a voice tone that indicated more interest when listening (Hall and Sandler, 1982).

n *The Courage to Teach* (1998), Parker Palmer discusses the importance of listening *before* a student has spoken. He refers to Nelle Mortan who speaks of the need to "hear

people to speech" and offers the following explanation for the importance of listening:

"Behind students' fearful silence, they want to discover their voices, speak their voices, and have their voices heard. A good teacher listens to those voices even before they are spoken. What does it mean to listen to a voice before it is spoken? It means making space for the other, being aware of the other, paying attention to the other, and honoring the other. It means not rushing to fill our students' silences with fearful speech of our own and not trying to coerce them into saying the things that we want to hear. It means entering empathetically into the student's world so that he or she perceives you as someone who has the promise of being able to hear another person's truth." (p. 46)

REFERENCES: Flanders; Gordon; Hall and Sandler; Holt; Jackson; Rist; Rogers. Update: Enger et al; Geiss and Mayer; Graves and Loaiza; Kordalewski; Palmer.

TEACHER OBJECTIVE:

To listen attentively to my low achievers as well as to my other students.

STUDENT AWARENESS:

"My teacher is really interested in what I have to say."

POSITIVE is coded when the teacher maintains eye contact with the student or indicates to the student that the response was heard (e.g., the teacher writes the response on the board while his back is turned toward the student).

- ➤ The teacher's facial expression indicates patience and interest. The teacher may or may not comment in a way that verifies that the student was heard.
- ► A positive is coded for each interchange if it is evident that the teacher listened, even though the student's response is as brief as one word. The student may be responding to a question, reading aloud, talking privately to the teacher, or in some way verbally communicating with her.
- ► If the teacher makes it evident that he heard a called-out answer, a positive is coded.
- ► A positive is not coded if the teacher responds to student talk that was not addressed to him or to the teacher and group. For example, nothing would be coded for "Carmen and Ana, I can hear you talking," or "I heard that smart remark, young man."

UNIT 4 ${f B}$ Feedback

- ▶ If the teacher's attention is unavoidably distracted, she may ask the student to pause or in some way indicate that she realizes the student is being interrupted. The teacher might say "Excuse me" or simply place her hand on the student's arm to maintain contact with the first student while handling the intervening matter.
- ► In this case, the observer should code a positive when the teacher begins to listen to the student.
- ► Nothing is coded for the interruption, since the teacher handled it courteously.
- ► Listening can only be coded when the student makes a response. Therefore, if the teacher waits in a readiness pose, but the student says nothing, nothing is coded. The teacher is practicing "latency," which was coded only during Unit 3.
- Reacting to a student's nonverbal response will not be coded.

EXAMPLES OF:

C DES

Primary Grade Level: The teacher responds to Jesse's answer by saying, "I'll write that down," and turns to the whiteboard to record the answer.

Intermediate Grade Level: "You described the actions of the character in the story quite vividly. What do you think the character will do next?"

Secondary Grade Level: The teacher stops correcting papers when Georgia asks a question.

Negative is coded when the teacher is inattentive to a student whose verbal communication has been invited or permitted.

- ➤ The teacher appears to be disinterested or preoccupied. She probably does not maintain eye contact.
- ➤ The teacher may give the appearance of listening, but a negative should be coded if the teacher's reaction reveals he did not hear what was said.
- ► If the observer is uncertain whether or not the teacher was listening, nothing should be coded. The student is probably uncertain also.

EXAMPLES OF:

CODES

Primary Grade Level: The teacher takes roll while Chu tells her about his sick bird.

Intermediate Grade Level: The teacher looks at the wall clock while Greg explains his car design.

Secondary Grade Level: The teacher looks exasperated as Cherise describes her plans to be a pilot.

Touching

Touching is a form of communication. A hand placed on an arm, on the shoulder or around the shoulders may communicate a feeling of warmth, support, caring or interest. A hand placed on a student's arm may communicate that a teacher needs to interrupt a conversation. A pat on a student's shoulder may express approval of seatwork.

Our increasingly litigious society makes physical interaction risky. Touching students is often avoided for fear of misinterpretation. Legitimate cases of abuse have made this a controversial subject. The benefits of touch have been all but lost in our suspicious world. Educators are prone to "just say no" to touch and ignore the potential rewards to students.

The value of Hug Therapy was confirmed in a study of Head Start Centers in Pennsylvania. Hug therapy suggests that touch is not only nice, but also necessary. Research suggests that stimulation by touch is necessary for our physical and emotional well-being. Appropriate touch is necessary for children's healthy development (Johnson, 1997).

Carla Crump (1996) studied the impact of 12 teacher behaviors that involve developing closeness with students. These behaviors reduce physical and psychological distance between people. They are called "immediacy" behaviors. The behaviors that include non verbal cues are friendliness, smiling eye contact and socially appropriate touch. Verbal behaviors include learning names, use of humor, the use of "we" and "our" and using personal examples. Other behaviors include

dynamic delivery, physical appearance, vocal variation, time spent outside of class, and physical distance.

To endorse the benefits of touch, it is important to distinguish between appropriate and inappropriate touch. In a study on how students felt about the appropriateness of touch between students and teachers, both males and females viewed the support-touch as the most appropriate. The arm region around the elbow was the area for the placement of touch used in the study. The intent of the touch was broken into four categories: 1) support, 2) compliance, 3) attention-getting, and 4) affection. Males found the attentiongetting and compliance touches less appropriate than did females. Both males and females found the affection touch as least appropriate (Sanderson and Jorgensen, 1997).

Students perceive some touches as negative. Students can feel the difference between supportive, controlling or punitive touches. Even subtle, punishing touches that communicate disapproval should be avoided (Frymier and Mongeau, 1996).

In light of the controversy surrounding physical touch, perhaps teachers can focus on touching the *heart and lives* of students.

In *The Courage To Teach*, Parker Palmer (1998) suggests that this is accomplished by connecting. Good teachers are able to weave connections among themselves, their students, and subjects.

"The courage to teach is the courage to keep one's heart open to the moments when the heart is asked to hold more than it is able to so that teacher and students and subject can be woven into the fabric of community that learning and living require." (p. 11)

REFERENCES: Ashton-Warner; Dollar; Galloway; Holt; Rist. Update: Crump; Frymier and Mongeau; Johnson; Palmer; Sanderson and Jorgensen.

TEACHER OBJECTIVE:

To touch low achievers in a friendly manner as frequently as I touch high achievers.

STUDENT AWARENESS:

"My teacher likes me."

Positive is coded when the teacher touches the student in a friendly manner.

- ► The touch may be as brief as a pat on the shoulder.
- ► A positive will *not* be coded if the teacher touches the student with an object such as a book or a pencil.

EXAMPLES OF:

C DES

Primary Grade Level: The teacher holds Nadia's hand while talking to her.

Intermediate Grade Level: The teacher places a hand on Armand's shoulder to get his attention.

Secondary Grade Level: The coach pats Joel on the back as he crosses the finish line.

O Negative is coded when the teacher rejects the student's attempt to touch the teacher or uses touch as punishment.

- ► The teacher avoids physical contact initiated by the student or reacts by jerking away to an accidental touch.
- ➤ A negative is coded if the teacher slaps, pushes, grabs or otherwise touches the student in a manner that expresses anger or distaste, or if the teacher uses a ruler or other object to slap the student.

EXAMPLES OF:

CODES

Primary Grade Level: The teacher pushes Micah out of line.

Intermediate Grade Level: The teacher pulls his arm back when Amy reaches for his sleeve.

Secondary Grade Level: The shop teacher grabs Mario's shirtfront and lifts him off the floor.

Higher-Level Questioning

In order for students to become productive citizens who can function successfully in a democratic society, they must learn to think and to make meaning from the information presented to them at school. Teachers are striving to provide all students with a thinking, meaning-centered curriculum; that is, having thinking pervade the curriculum beginning in kindergarten and not be regarded as a discrete skill. Higher-level questioning strategies provide opportunities for students to think.

Questions can be categorized in many ways. The *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* developed by Bloom (1956) is still well known. A simplified outline follows:

1.0 Knowledge

- 1.1 Knowledge of Specifics
- 1.2 Knowledge of Ways and Means of Dealing With Specifics
- 1.3 Knowledge of the Universals and Abstractions in a Field

2.0 Intellectual Abilities and Skills

- 2.1 Comprehension
- 2.2 Application
- 2.3 Synthesis
- 2.4 Evaluation (Armstrong, 1994)

Knowledge questions ask students to remember or recall information. Intellectual Abilities and Skills questions require higher-level thinking. They ask the student to interpret, apply, process, create, extend and analyze information. These questions may require students to express opinions, to evaluate an opinion, to draw correlations between bits of information, or to organize information.

Lower-level questions are often used to set the stage for higher-level questions. Higherlevel questions generally do not have a "right" answer. Open-ended questions are intended to solicit opinions and thoughts without judgment. For instance, when a question is asked, the responses may be noted with an "Uh-huh" or a nod from the teacher. When answers weave their way to a conclusion, a teacher may note it with a comment like, "Yes, that's good work." A good question is one of an educator's most important tools. Questions cause thinking. They can produce more learning than can telling (Garmston, 2000).

Classroom instruction can be aided by training *students* to generate questions. Questions can be used in a student's own reflective journaling as well as with interactions with peers. Higher-level thinking is enhanced by the addition of both teacher and student questioning skills (Ciardiello, 1998).

Asking and answering questions contribute to creativity. The importance of certain behavior traits on creativity were rated by 143 researchers. Questioning skills, together with motivational and problem finding behaviors,

were rated among the top three contributors to creative achievement (Runco et. al, 1998).

Unfortunately, research still supports the fact that low-achieving students are consistently asked lower-level questions. Students who are viewed as more capable receive the bulk of teacher questions. This practice denies students equal access to curriculum. It places a ceiling on their learning. Highexpectation students are called on more often, asked more difficult questions, and cued more often in order to encourage the right answer (Rosenthal, 1973; Loftus, 1992). Tauber (1997) admits that he even catches himself saving recall-type questions for lower-expectation students. These students receive little or no recognition for correct answers to questions. If questions are answered incorrectly, little prompting is given to improve the quality of the response.

Tauber also suggests that saving higherlevel questions for high-expectation students rewards the teacher by creating a co-teaching situation with the exchange of questions between students and teacher. Student participation helps the teacher teach the lesson.

In *The Self-Fulfilling Prophecy*, Tauber writes, "Does my differential treatment suggest that I am a terrible teacher? The answer is 'no' if, once I recognize my differential treatment, I take corrective measures." (Tauber, p.22)

REFERENCES: Amidon and Simon; Bloom; Brophy; Good and Brophy; Good and Dembo; Hall and Sandler; Hilliard; Rubovits and Maehr; Vandell. Update: Armstrong; Ciardiello; Garmston; Loftus; Rosenthal; Runco et al; Tauber.

TEACHER OBJECTIVE:

To challenge the thinking abilities of my low achievers as often as I do my other students by requiring them to do more than simply recall information.

STUDENT AWARENESS:

"My teacher really expects me to think."

Positive is coded when the teacher asks the student a question that requires him to do something more than merely remember the answer from reading, previous teacher instruction, or another source.

- ► Positives will be coded for questions that ask the student to do such thinking as the following:
 - give an opinion
 - assess facts
 - evaluate information or ideas
 - discover connections between facts
 - explain phenomena
 - apply previously learned information to a new situation
 - organize information
 - hypothesize why or how something occurred
 - interpret information
 - explain nonliteral information (symbolism, irony)

- summarize communications
- draw implications
- predict trends or effects
- recognize unstated assumptions
- distinguish facts from hypotheses
- recognize inconsistencies
- put elements together to form a whole
- explain logically how to do something
- generalize

The list is far from exhaustive.

► A positive is coded even though the student answers inadequately or does not answer at all. (Obviously, latency and delving will be important teaching skills in this kind of questioning.)

EXAMPLES OF:

C DES

Primary Grade Level: "Alan, if you got lost or separated from your family at Disneyland (or a park), what would you do?"

Intermediate Grade Level: "Aggie, what could we do here at school to conserve energy?"

Secondary Grade Level: "Yasuko, how would you change the screenplay of the science fiction film *The Black Hole* to reflect current scientific theories?"

O Negative is coded when the teacher implies or states that questions are either easy or difficult.

► What we are attempting to avoid here is the possibility that "easy" questions will be unconsciously directed more frequently to perceived low achievers.

EXAMPLES OF:

CODES

Primary Grade Level: "Here's an easy one for you, Ping: Which of these four animals would not make a good house pet?"

Intermediate Grade Level: "Watch out for this one; it's really tough, Wayne. Predict what would happen if Earth's polar ice caps melted completely."

Secondary Grade Level: "You probably won't get this one right, Shevon. But which statement is true, and why?

- 1. The statement below is false.
- 2. The statement above is true."

The following leads also received negative codes:

- "You should be able to breeze through this one..."
- "Be careful with this one; I'm giving you the hardest problem."
- "Okay, try *this* simple problem. . . . "

Model Questions and Key Words to Use in Developing Questions*

I. Knowledge (eliciting factual answers, testing recall and recognition)

Who Where Which one Describe

What How Define What is the one best

Why How much Match Choose When What does it mean Select Omit

II. Comprehension (translating, interpreting, and extrapolating)

Classify State in your own words Which are facts, opinions What does this mean **Judge** Is this the same as Infer Select the best definition Give an example Condense this paragraph Show What would happen if State in one word Indicate Explain what is happening What part doesn't fit Tell Explain what is meant What restrictions would you add **Translate** Read the graph, table What exceptions are there Outline This represents Which is more probable Summarize Is it valid that

Which statements support the What are they saying Select

What seems to be Match main idea Explain What seems likely Sing this song

Represent Show in a graph, table

Demonstrate

III. Application (to situations that are new, unfamiliar, or have a new slant for students)

Predict what would happen if Explain

Identify the results of Choose the best statements that apply Tell what would happen Select Judge the effects Tell how, when, where, why

What would result Tell how much change there would be

IV. Analysis (breaking down into parts, forms)

Distinguish What is the function of What's the theme, main idea, Identify What's fact, opinion subordinate idea

What assumptions What inconsistencies, fallacies are What statement is relevant.

What motive is there extraneous to, related to, there

What conclusions not applicable What literary form is used What does the author believe, assume Make a distinction What persuasive technique What is the premise State the point of view of What is the relationship between

What ideas apply, do not apply What ideas justify the conclusion that Implicit in the statement is the idea of The least essential statements are

V. Synthesis (combining elements into a pattern not clearly there before)

Write (according to the following limitations) How would you test Make up Create Propose an alternative Compose

Tell Solve the following Formulate a theory Make Plan How else would you

Dο Design State a rule Dance Develop

Choose

VI. Evaluation (according to some set of criteria, and state reasons for your evaluations)

Appraise What fallacies, consistencies, inconsistencies appear

Judge Which is more important, moral, better, logical, valid, appropriate, inappropriate

Criticize Find the errors

Defend Compare

^{*}Based on Bloom's Taxonomy, Developed and Expanded by John Maynard, Pomona, California.

Accepting Feelings

Receptive responses by a teacher are not judgmental but show that he or she recognizes the feelings underlying a particular behavior and acknowledges them. For example, a student hands in a grimy assignment, explaining that it fell into a puddle on the way to school. One teacher response might be, "That's okay, I'm sure it wasn't your fault." Another response might be, "That's terrible! Why are you handing in an assignment that looks like this?" Although one response is more positive than the other, neither acknowledges the student's feelings. A receptive response might be, "I can see that you're embarrassed about this. What would you like to do now?" Here, the student's feelings are recognized and the student is encouraged to seek a solution to the problem (Curwin, 1980).

Research provided by Flanders (1965); Anderson, Johnson, and Lange (1969); and Adams and Biddle (1969) has indicated that there is little classroom time spent on feelings and interpersonal relationships. Some classrooms resemble "an emotional desert." Nevertheless, researchers find that educators believe that acceptance of feelings is an important teacher behavior. If students are inhibited from expressing feelings and teachers do not model handling their own feelings, students may not learn how to cope with feelings honestly.

IQ tests do not predict successful performance across a consistent spectrum of activities. Intrapersonal and interpersonal are among the intelligences he identifies. Interpersonal intelligence is the capacity to discern and respond appropriately to moods, temperaments, motivations and desires of other people. Intrapersonal intelligence is the key to self-knowledge, to accessing one's own feelings, to the ability to discriminate among

them and draw upon them to guide behavior (Armstrong, 1994).

Psychology has begun to recognize the essential role of feeling in thinking. Emotional and relational abilities are crucial in life. People with greater certainty about their feelings are better pilots of the lives. Emotional intelligence adds the qualities that make us fully human (Goleman, 1994).

In their book, *The Heartmath Solution* (1999), Childre and Martin build on the discovery that the heart has its own independent nervous system. Their work cultivates heart intelligence, discovering ways of tapping into the heart intelligence. For example, positive emotions such as happiness, compassion and care change the nervous system and actually cause changes in body chemistry. Feelings of care boost the immune system, while feelings of anger suppress it. Care is a powerful motivator; it inspires and reassures us. Their findings suggest that by accessing these emotions, participants will be able to activate

positive feelings, reduce stress and manage emotions. Heartmath research concludes that both intelligence and intuition are heightened when we learn to listen more deeply to our own emotions and feelings.

Empathy is defined as compassion—the ability to understand and accept another's feelings. If teachers can look beyond the surface of the emotion and relate to the situation, they are being empathetic. In his book, *Emotional Intelligence*, Daniel Gole-

man (1994) states, "For all rapport, the root of caring, stems from emotional attunement, from the capacity for empathy." (p. 96)

REFERENCES: Adams and Biddle; Anderson, Johnson and Lange; Aspy; Curwin; Davidson and Lang; Flanders; Ginott; Good and Brophy; Jackson; Kraft; Palomares; U.S. Commission on Civil Rights. Update: Armstrong; Childre and Martin; Gardner; Goleman.

UNIT 5 B Feedback

TEACHER OBJECTIVE:

To convey to all students that their feelings are understood and accepted in a nonjudgmental manner.

STUDENT AWARENESS:

"My teacher knows how I feel, and I like that."

Positive is coded when the teacher recognizes and accepts a student's feelings in a nonevaluative manner.

- ► The teacher's intent is to accept or clarify feelings expressed by the student (e.g., "I understand how you feel" or "The thunder and lightning is exciting" or "You're angry because Felipé lost your pen").
- ► In classrooms, students sometimes express anger toward each other. Minor tiffs can be accelerated into larger problems if the teacher responds by rebuking the students involved. The solution-oriented teacher will accept the feelings of both sides and provide an avenue for solving the problem. For example, a teacher might say, "Leroy, I understand that you are angry because Warren broke your model. And Warren, I think you feel angry because Leroy said that you did it on purpose. Would it be a good idea for you to help Leroy repair the model?" In this instance, the teacher first expressed acceptance of their feelings, then suggested a solution.
- ► The teacher behavior should be coded positive when an empathetic or accepting

- attitude is demonstrated toward the feelings of the student, whether the student's feeling is positive or negative.
- ➤ Code nonverbal acceptance of feelings. In some instances, the teacher may be able to demonstrate acceptance of feeling nonverbally. For example, the teacher might put his arm around the shoulders of a student or simply nod his head with a sympathetic look. In some classroom situations, such actions may be more appropriate than the verbalizing of acceptance.
- ► Some additional examples of acceptance of feelings:
 - A student stubs her toe upon entering the room and looks like she is in pain.
 The teacher might say, "Ouch! I'll bet that hurt!" (A negative would be coded if the teacher said, "Pick up your feet, Sasha.")
 - A student slams down her pencil in disgust when she discovers she has done her math incorrectly. The teacher might say, "Isn't that disappointing? You added

all those problems when you were supposed to multiply." It would not really help to chide, "You should have read the directions." Instead of harping on the problem, suggest a solution: "See if you can multiply every even-numbered problem correctly in the time remaining."

- An avid reader groans, "But I already read this story." To say, "That's just too bad. You shouldn't have been reading ahead," is inconsistent with encouraging students to enjoy reading. The teacher might better say, "You don't think it will be interesting to read the story again? Perhaps you would like to write down some good discussion questions on the story while the rest of us read it."
- A student is looking with evident satisfaction at a picture he has drawn. The teacher recognizes his feelings by saying, "You're pleased with the way your picture turned out."

Your response to the student's feelings will often be very brief. Remember, you are merely showing the student that you know how he feels. Avoid making judgments about these feelings.

You will notice that the teacher did *not* attempt to elicit the student's feelings in any of the above examples. We *do not* expect you to attempt to create special situations so that positive codings in strand B will occur. It would be more valuable to try to be especially alert to the feelings students are verbally or nonverbally expressing. Most of us miss many of the feeling signals sent out by others.

EXAMPLES OF:

C DES

Primary Grade Level: "I can see you're pretty upset about losing your new sweater, Jennifer."

Intermediate Grade Level: "You're looking forward to an exciting holiday tomorrow, aren't you, Luís?"

Secondary Grade Level: "The test results really disappoint you, don't they, Sonia?"

UNIT 5 ${f B}$ Feedback

O Negative is coded when the teacher discourages or disparages a student's feelings.

- "Only babies cry." "There's no need to mention our personal feelings." "It won't do any good to pout about losing." Comments such as these disparage a student's feelings and should receive a negative code.
- ➤ A teacher statement such as "What are you so worried about?" could be coded either positive or negative depending on whether the tone, facial expression, body stance, and so on indicate that the statement is sympathetic or critical.
- A negative is coded if the teacher nonverbally expresses rejection of the student's feelings.
- ➤ You will not be given a negative coding for failure to respond to feelings, only for actually rejecting or ridiculing feelings.

EXAMPLES OF:

CODES

Primary Grade Level: "Don't look so scared, Linda, it's only a movie."

Intermediate Grade Level: "Big boys don't cry, Raul."

Secondary Grade Level: The teacher looks disgusted as a target student cheers when the class session is over.

Desisting

Desisting is used to mean "a teacher's doing something to stop a student's misbehavior" (Kounin, 1977). Somewhere, perhaps, there is a perfectly managed classroom in which desisting is never needed. Most teachers, however, find desisting necessary on occasion in order for learning to take place and to assure their students' safety.

Some students' interactions with the teacher seem to be almost exclusively desists. During one hour of observation in a classroom, Rist (1972) noted that the teacher communicated with the low-achieving group only twice. Both times the communication was, "Sit down!" At other times desists seem to be directed toward a particular student even though that student may not be alone in the misbehavior. For example, while students in one classroom were doing homework, a group of four boys, pretending to sharpen their pencils, stood talking by the window. One of the four was Brock, a student identified by the teacher as a child for whom she held low academic expectations. When the teacher noticed that the boys were not working, she called out, "Brock, take your seat." All four boys sat down.

The manner of a desist may also vary depending on the student involved. For example, if a well-dressed child helps herself to one of the new books that the teacher said will be distributed later, the teacher may say something like, "Anna, you must not have heard me say that those books will be passed out later. Please put the book back." But if an-

other child, whose frequent digressions frustrate the teacher, takes a book, the teacher's response may be, "Sam, you heard me say that those books will be passed out later. Don't you ever listen? Put the book back right now!"

Desisting should be impartial. When applied equitably, it shows that a teacher expects appropriate behavior from all students. Students actually feel safer in an environment where everyone is consistently held accountable for appropriate behavior. In these environments, the opportunity for learning increases. Student achievement decreases when negative personal behavior increases or when a child is victimized or thinks that conditions are unsafe (Coleman, 1999).

Vandell (1989) notes that even though boys are disciplined more (i.e., subjected to more desists), girls are ignored—which, in effect, makes the boys more important, even though the context is negative. Sadker and Sadker (1985b) observe that boys are eight times more likely to call out in class and to demand the teacher's attention. When boys call out, teachers tend to accept their answers rather

than offer desists. When girls call out, they receive desists in the form of the teacher's remedial suggestion that they raise their hands.

In terms of desisting, Scott (1997) suggests that, in the classroom context, teachers must reach beyond the three R's and include a fourth—relationships, understanding their own cultural biases as they serve as a model for students. Scott suggests that conflicts between children can be positive if they result in greater understanding on the part of all participants. Conflicts need to be facilitated by a teacher in an environment where mutual respect is part of the code of conduct. Sprague (1999) and his colleagues suggest

that it is beneficial to offer prevention strategies to children at risk for violence, strategies that include supporting families, developing and implementing school-based prevention approaches, supporting schools, improving academic and social competence, and achieving goals through true collaborative arrangements.

REFERENCES: Dollar; Good and Brophy; Hart; Hoehn; Kounin; Rist; Sadker and Sadker; U.S. Commission on Civil Rights; Vandell. Update: Ackerman; Coleman; Connolly et al; Cortez; Delpit; Garrity; Gut; Scott et al; Sprague.

TEACHER OBJECTIVE:

To be cool and calm when I stop the misbehavior of my low achievers, just as I do with my high achievers.

STUDENT AWARENESS:

"The teacher is upset with what I'm doing, but not with me as a person."

UNIT 5 C Personal Regard

Positive is coded when the teacher asks a student to desist from a behavior in a calm, courteous manner that does not put the student down and does not imply that misbehavior was expected of her.

- ▶ A positive is coded if the teacher uses a desist technique other than verbally correcting the student in a matter-of-fact, courteous manner. Such techniques include nonverbal desists (shushing with a finger to the lips or shaking the head), distracting the student, or changing the student's activity. An agreed-upon penalty may be imposed.
- ▶ If the misbehavior has resulted in a situation that angers the teacher, that anger can be expressed, but the anger should be directed toward the situation. "It makes me furious to see paint spilled on the floor." "I am angry because you came so close to injuring each other." The teacher may describe what he feels and clarify his expectations, but he avoids venting hostility toward the student or attacking the student's character.

EXAMPLES OF:

C DES

Primary Grade Level: "Please sit down again, Chad; recess doesn't start for another five minutes."

Intermediate Grade Level: "Hassan, I suggest that you go to the learning center to finish your work now."

Secondary Grade Level: "You know the school policy about bringing alcohol to a school activity, Yolanda; now you must accept the consequences of your actions."

O Negative is coded when the teacher insults the student or vents anger and hostility on the student in dealing with misbehavior.

- ► A negative is coded if the teacher tries to correct the situation by putting down the student or calling him names: "Talk about sloppy!" "Pest!" "Who do you think you are?" "That's just what I would expect from you."
- ▶ Desists cannot be coded in terms of the student's response. We all know students who react with nonchalance to the insults of teachers. They shrug and say, "Who cares?" They are immune to insults. Telling such a student that you do care is not enough if your classroom interaction with him belies that caring. Other students may be crushed by the mildest, politest desist.
- ► If a desist is falsely, sneeringly courteous, or is courteous but accompanied by shoving, slapping, or the like, the desist will be coded negatively. Many educators suggest that touching be avoided during desisting so that touching will retain a completely positive connotation.

▶ If the teacher ignores misbehavior, neither a positive nor a negative should be coded. Misbehavior should usually be dealt with immediately and firmly, but there may be circumstances unknown to the observer that cause the teacher to ignore or delay dealing with the problem.

EXAMPLES OF:

CODES

Primary Grade Level: "Shut up, Loudmouth!"

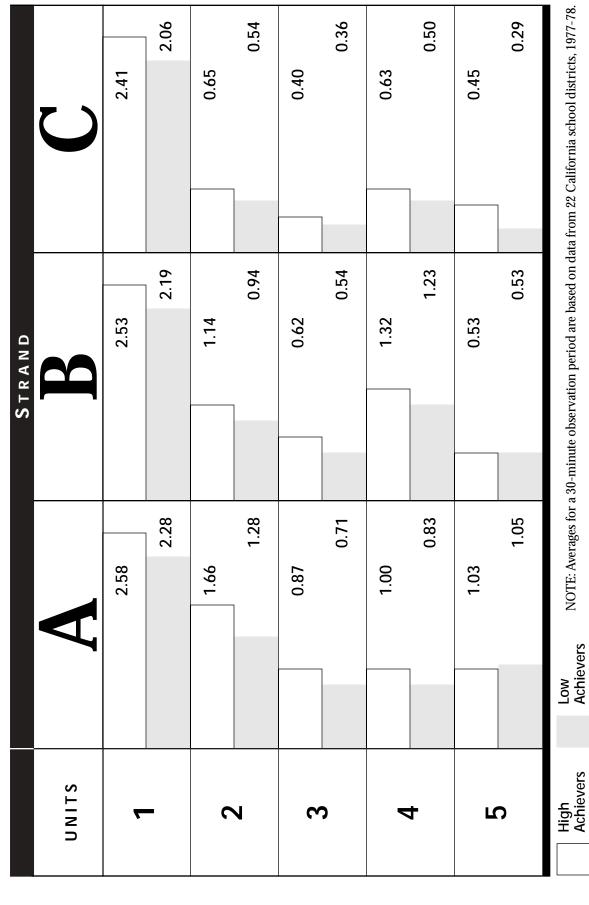
Intermediate Grade Level: (The teacher shoves the target student.) "Would you *please* get moving!"

Secondary Grade Level: "Get out of my classroom, Idiot!"

TESA Interaction Model

		STRAND	
UNITS	Response Opportunities	Feedback	Personal Regard
_	Equitable Distribution	Affirm/Correct	Proximity
7	Individual Help	Praise	Courtesy
8	Latency	Reasons for Praise	Personal Interest and Compliments
4	Delving	Listening	Touching
2	Higher-Level Questioning	Accepting Feelings	Desist

FREQUENCY OF POSITIVE INTERACTIONS WITH TARGET STUDENTS



Bibliography

Each bibliographic entry is cross-referenced to strands in the Interaction Model (Section D) for which the entry has a particular relevance. (For example, 5B designates Unit 5, Strand B.) Those entries not accompanied by a strand number are suggested additional resources.

3C, 5C Ackerman, Thomas, ed. 1997. *Educating Throw Away Children: What We Can Do to Help Children at Risk*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

The idea of connecting on a personal level with students at risk in order to increase participation, interest and learning is a theme prevalent in this collection written by educators. The following articles are among those included in its contents: *Rekindling the Spirits of Throw-Away Children; Creating High Academic Expectations From a Caring Commitment; What You Expect Is What You Get*, and *Engaging the Disengaged*. This book is the sixth edition of New Directions for School Leadership sponsored by The International Network of Principals' Centers at the Harvard Graduate School.

1C, 5B Adams, Raymond S., and Bruce J. Biddle. 1970. *Realities of Teaching: Explorations with Video Tape.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Adams and Biddle found that physical placement in the classroom affected the extent of pupil participation. "Pupils up and down the center line of the classroom are the ones who are most likely to join in the discussion, and the ones the teacher is most likely to talk to. Others away from the center line are much less likely to speak or be spoken to."

Alber, Shiela; Heward, William and Hipler, Brooke J. 1999. "Teaching Middle School Students With Learning Disabilities to Recruit Positive Teacher Attention." *Exceptional Children* 65: 253-70.

Four middle-school children were taught to recruit teacher attention while they worked on assignments. The students were taught to show their work to teachers two or three times per session for feedback. The training increased teacher praise, feedback and the accuracy of student work.

5A, 5B Amidon, Edmund, and Anita Simon. 1965. "Teacher-Pupil Interaction." *Review of Educational Research* 35 (April):130-39.

A 1964 study by Hilda Taba is reported in which 20 elementary teachers were trained to raise the level of thought processes used by their pupils. Taba found that some children of low IQ performed on the same high level of abstraction and with the same frequency of participation as did some children of high IQ when their teachers used appropriate strategies.

Anderson, James G., William H. Johnson, and Robert Lange. 1969. *Mexican-American Students in a Metropolitan Context: Factors Affecting the Social-Emotional Climate of the Classroom*. New Mexico State University, Research Center, University Park, New Mexico. Publication can be obtained through U.S. Dept. HEW, OE, Educational Resources Information Center, Washington, D.C. (ED 030521).

This study explores some social mechanisms within classrooms that mediate the educational effects of separate schools for Mexican-American students in a metropolitan context. The findings of the study indicate that two factors profoundly affect teacher-student relationships. One is the professional training of the teacher. Those with strong academic preparation preferred to concentrate more on course content using extended lecture with few interruptions to ask questions or to entertain student comments. They were more skeptical about the school's attempts to deal with the problems of disadvantaged and non-English-speaking students. The other factor is related to the makeup of the school's student body. Teachers in schools that enrolled mainly children from low-income, first-generation, Spanish-speaking homes show the most empathy for their students and strongly support special programs aimed at overcoming their educational handicaps.

5A, 5B Armstrong, Thomas. 1994. *Multiple Intelligences in the Classroom.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

A practical introduction to the theory of multiple intelligences (MI). Armstrong translates Howard Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences into practical, accessible ideas for teachers. The intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences deal with the ability to accept feelings of self and others. Armstrong suggests that MI theory provides a model through which we can activate neglected intelligences and balance use of all of them.

1C, 2C Arnold, Vanessa Dean, and Terry D. Roach. 1989. "Teaching: A Non-Verbal Communication 4C. 5C Event." *Business Education Forum* 44 (October): 18-20.

A report on nonverbal behaviors in the classroom. Since in the usual classroom environment communication is the central element in teaching, this study is relevant. Ways of analyzing nonverbal messages are presented.

- 4C Ashton-Warner, Sylvia. 1972. *Spearpoint: "Teacher" in America.* New York: Vintage Books.
- Aspy, D. N. 1965. "A Study of Three Facilitative Conditions and Their Relationship to the Achievement of Third Grade Students." Doctoral dissertation, University of Kentucky.

Reported in Rogers (1969), listed below. The following appears on page 119:

A study conducted in six third grade classes. Utilizing tape recordings of teacher interactions with students over a full two weeks, it was concluded that in three classes where the teachers showed the highest degree of genuineness, praising, and empathic understanding resulted in a significantly greater gain in reading and achievement than those students in the three classes with a lesser degree of these qualities.

4A Baker, Katherine D., and Richard E. Snow. 1972. *Teacher Differences as Reflected in Student Aptitude Achievement Relationships.* Stanford: Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching.

Student teachers received training in probing and reinforcement. As they became more skillful, the relationship between the students' aptitude test scores and achievement in the class was weakened. Baker and Snow concluded that greater use of reinforcement and probing skills by a teacher reduces the effect of prior aptitude on student achievement during a specific lesson.

1A, 1C Bartley, Sandy; Sutton, Robin; et al. 1999. *Cultural Perspectives at Goshen Middle School: Examination of Internal and External Factors That Affect Hispanic Student Achievement*. ERIC Document No. ED430771.

The results of a four-week study at Goshen Middle School examined factors affecting Hispanic student achievement. Data collected suggest that teacher proximity resulted in an improvement in grades and accuracy of homework. Students improved when allowed to sit together, a strategy to offset student responses that were not always positive.

2A Belcher, Gay and Macari, Nancy. 2000. Enhancing Student Motivation as Evidenced by Improved Academic Growth and Increased Work Completion. Master's Action Research Project, Saint Xavier University.

ERIC Document No. ED 439782.

This program is evaluated for enhancing student motivation using improved academic growth and increased work completion as evidence. Analysis of probable cause of poor performance indicated that lack of motivation stemmed from a perception of non acceptance and poor self-esteem. Solution strategies included the creation of a homework monitoring system. Assignment sheets and program incentives were implemented to help monitor and reward students. Post-intervention data indicated a reduction in incomplete assignments.

3B, 4C Blanchard, Kenneth, and Spencer Johnson. 1982. *The One Minute Manager.* New York: William Morrow.

The One Minute Praising works well when you: (1) praise people immediately; (2) tell people specifically what they did right; (3) tell people how good you feel about what they did right; (4) encourage them to do more of the same; and (5) shake hands or touch people in a way that makes it clear that you support their success.

5A Bloom, Benjamin S. 1984. "The Search for Methods of Group Instruction as Effective as One-to-One Tutoring." *Educational Leadership* 41 (May): 4-17.

U.S. textbooks emphasize specific content to be remembered and give students little opportunity to discover underlying concepts and principles. Both teacher-made and standardized tests are largely tests of remembered information. Even after the sale of over one million copies of the *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives—Cognitive Domain* (Bloom et al. 1956) and over a quarter of a century of using this domain in preservice and inservice teacher training, still over 95 percent of test questions that U.S. students are now expected to answer deal with little more than information.

- 5A Bloom, Benjamin S., ed. 1956. *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*. 2 vols. New York: Longmans, Green and Co.
- 2A Bond, Austin. 2000. Student Mentoring: Promoting High Achievement and Low Attrition in Education and Training. National Centre for Vocational Education Research, Leabrook, Australia. ERIC Document No. ED433426.

Educational providers can develop mentoring and similar strategies to enhance student learning. Bond reviews various mentoring models, such as online mentoring, and benefits. There is a link between mentoring, which focuses on individual assistance, and positive student outcomes.

- 4C Borton, Terry. 1970. *Read, Touch, and Teach: Student Concerns and Process Education.* New York: McGraw-Hill.
- 1A Brandt, Ron. 1982. "On School Improvement: A Conversation with Ronald Edmonds." *Educational Leadership* 40 (December): 12-15.

Edmonds found that teachers in ineffective schools prefer to question the children they predict are most likely to know the answers. Children who sit in those classes decide the teacher doesn't expect them to know as much; as a result, they are least likely to do their homework, master lessons, and so on.

3C Brantlinger, Ellen. 1994. Contribution on social class embeddedness of middle school students' thinking about teachers. *Theory Into Practice*. 33(3), 191-198.

Do students of differing socioeconomic levels notice teachers' differential expectations and the differential behaviors that follow? Social class turned out to be a potent force in the adolescents' thinking regarding teachers' expectations. Lower income students felt that teachers disliked them personally and favored students from higher-income families. Higher-income students, on the other hand, took it for granted that teachers liked them. Reported in Good, (2000) pp. 97-98 listed above.

Brattesani, Karen A., Rhona S. Weinstein, and Hermine H. Marshall. 1984. "Student Perceptions of Differential Teacher Treatment as Moderators of Teacher Expectation Effects." *Journal of Educational Psychology* 76 (April): 236-47.

Students acquire information about their abilities by observing the differential treatment accorded high and low achievers. They then revise their own achievement expectations and perform according to the expectations perceived.

Brophy, Jere E. 1981. "On Praising Effectively." *Elementary School Journal* 81 (May): 269-78.

Reviews research on teachers' praise in the classroom and proposes specific guidelines for helping teachers praise effectively. Time, concentrated attention, and individualization of remarks according to the student and the situation are considered crucial factors in praising effectively.

. 1982. "Classroom Management and Learning." *American Education* 18(2):20-23.

Survey results show that planning and constant vigilance are the price of effective teaching. Effective classroom management involves awareness, good organizational skills, preparation, letting students know what is expected of them and following through, and the ability to diagnose student problems.

_____. 1983. "Research on the Self-Fulfilling Prophecy and Teacher Expectations." *Journal of Educational Psychology* 75 (5): 631-61.

Literature and research studies concerning self-fulfilling prophecy effects are reviewed in this document. Works concerning the Pygmalion Controversy, the existence of self-fulfilling prophecy effects of teacher expectations, and the strength and reality of these effects are cited. The document's sections discuss the effects of teacher expectations and: (1) the appropriateness of differential teacher expectations and teacher-student interaction patterns; (2) the mediation of self-fulfilling prophecies in the classroom; (3) the role of individual differences in teachers; (4) the role of individual differences in students; (5) conceptualizing self-fulfilling prophecy effects in the classroom; (6) implications for research; and (7) implications for

3B

teaching and for teacher education. It is concluded that a minority of teachers have major expectation effects on their students' achievement but that such effects are minimal for most teachers because their expectations are generally accurate and open to corrective feedback.

1A, 5A 4A, 2B _____. 1986. Research Linking Teacher Behavior to Student Achievement: Potential Implications for Instruction of Chapter I Students. In Designs for Compensatory Education: Conference Proceedings and Papers, Washington, D.C., June 17-18.

3C, 1B 3A, 3B

This paper reviews research on school effects and teacher effects on student achievement. In general, academic learning is influenced by the amount of time that students spend engaged in appropriate academic activities. Students learn more efficiently when their teachers instruct them actively by structuring new information and helping them relate it to what they already know, and then monitoring their performance and providing corrective feedback through recitation, drill, practice, and application activities. Schools that foster progress in academic achievement tend to be those that place high priority on achieving and adopt high but realistic expectations, coordinated instructional efforts, and periodic assessments of progress. Elements that lead to success in the traditional whole-class instruction approach are discussed at length. Adaptations of those elements for grade level, subject matter, and student socioeconomic status/ability/affect are pointed out. Research on the following topics is also discussed: (1) conceptual change teaching; (2) teaching cognitive strategies; (3) mastery learning; (4) individualized/adaptive instruction; (5) computerized instruction; and (6) effective instruction in special education and resource room situations. An extensive list of references is included.

4C, 3A Brophy, Jere E., and. Good, Thomas L. 1969. *Teacher-Child Dyadic Interaction: A Manual for Coding Classroom Behavior.* Report Series no. 27 (December). Austin: University of Texas.

Brophy and Good use the term *latency* for the length of time that a teacher waits when a child does not immediately begin to give an answer to a question. "Long latencies would suggest a confidence in the child and a willingness to wait for him to respond." The response opportunity may be sustained by waiting or may be terminated by the teacher asking another child or supplying the answer.

Burnett, Paul C. 1999. *The Impact of Teachers' Praise on Students' Self-Talk and Self-Concepts.*Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (Montreal, Quebec, Canada, April 19-23, 1999). ERIC Document No. ED431768.

This study investigated the mediating effect of self-talk between positive and negative statements made by teachers and students' academic self-concepts. Participants were 269 students in grades 3-7. Data analysis indicated that positive self-talk did mediate between the perceived frequency of teachers' praise and students' reading self-concept. Negative self-talk predicted math self-concept. Positive statements made by teachers were more influential than negative statements.

5A Cecil, Nancy Lee. 1988. "Black Dialect and Academic Success. A Study of Teacher Expectations." Reading Improvement 25:34-38.

Compares teacher expectations for black children who speak black dialect with black children who speak standard English. Concludes that teachers expect significantly greater overall academic achievement, reading success, and intelligence from children who speak standard English.

Chia, R.C.; Allred, L.J.; Grossnickle, W.F.; Lee, G. W. 1998. "Effects of Attractiveness and Gender on the Perception of Achievement-Related Variables." *Journal of Social Psychology* 138 (4), (August): 471-77.

ERIC Document No. EJ594060.

The effects of physical attractiveness and gender on perceptions of academic success, intelligence, initiative and attributions of ability and effort are examined in relation to academic success. The authors find that being perceived as physically attractive created positive impressions of achievement-related traits for men, but negative impressions for women.

5B Childre, Doc and Martin, Howard. 1999. *The Heartmath Solution*. San Francisco: Harper Collins.

Recent scientific research proves that the heart has its own intelligence and recognizes the power of emotions on our health and lives. These authors have developed techniques to harness that intelligence and use it to offset negative emotion and positively impact health and potential.

5A Ciardiello, Angelo V. 1998. "Did You Ask a Good Question Today? Alternative Cognitive and Metacognitive Strategies." *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy* 123 (3): 210-19.

Classroom instruction can be enhanced through training students to question. Ciardiello contends that students should be given questioning instruction.

2B Clark, Carl A., and Herbert J. Walberg. 1966. "The Effects of Increased Reading Achievement on School Attitudes of Potential Dropouts." Paper presented at the American Psychological Association, New York, September 2.

Clark and Walberg report a number of studies involving the use of praise and other rewards with low-achieving students. Deliberate use of praise as a reinforcement was shown to increase academic achievement. One interesting finding was that the teachers who used praise in this manner subsequently expressed more favorable attitudes toward the students with whom they had used this form of reinforcement.

Clarken, Rodney. 1995. *Toward Bias-Free Teaching: Gender Equity in the Classroom.* Paper presented at the United Nations Non-Governmental Forum on Women (China, August 31-September 8). ERIC Document No. ED394955.

Inequities toward women in education are discussed with suggested remedies. Practical suggestions, based on expectations theory and the Teacher Expectations and Student Achievement Test (TESA) program, offer teachers ways to improve achievement in classrooms. Clarken suggests that women are represented less in literature and curriculum, which affects response opportunities.

5C Coleman, Beverly. 1999. *School Violence and Student Achievement in Reading and Mathematics Among Eighth Graders*. Dissertation. University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. ERIC Document No. ED430064.

Data from a 1988 educational study is analyzed, and relationships between school violence and student achievement are identified. Student behaviors associated with the violence were identified. These included victimization, personal behavior and students' perception of violence. The study also indicates that students' perception of violence results in a drop in academic achievement.

2B Colvin, Richard. 2000. "Losing Faith in Self-Esteem." *School Administrator* 57 (2), (February): 28-29, 31-33. ERIC Document No. EJ599100.

This article concludes that there is no stable relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement. Colvin concludes that self-esteem comes from achievement and supports efforts to improve student achievement rather than "feel good" activities.

3B, 5C Connolly, Theresa and others. 1996. *The Well-Managed Classroom: Promoting Student Success Through Social Skill Instruction.* Book created at Father Flanagan's Boys' Home, Boys Town, NE. ERIC Document No. ED390572.

The Boys Town Education Model for classroom management is described in the 15 chapters of this book. Tools and techniques focusing on social skills instruction are offered. The focus is on creating a positive, supportive and structured classroom environment. Specific information on the delivery of praise to increase the occurrence of appropriate behavior is included in one chapter. Other topics include building relationships, problem-solving and a model for helping students manage their own behavior.

1B Cooper, Erica and Allen, Mike. *A Meta-Analytic Examination of Student Race on Classroom Interaction*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Communication Association, Chicago, IL. November 19-23. 1997. ERIC Document No. ED412589.

Fifteen studies are summarized indicating that African American and Latino students receive more negative feedback from teachers in the classroom than do Euro-American students. Results indicate this as a potential source of differential treatment in the classroom that may affect student achievement.

1B, 2B Cooper, Harris M., and David Y. Tom. 1984. "Teacher Expectation Research: A Review with Implications for Classroom Instruction." *Elementary School Journal* 85 (September):77-89.

Describes recent research about the influence of teacher expectations on student achievement. Different types of teacher expectations and expectation effects are defined, and evidence for the existence of these effects is examined. Research on how teacher expectations are communicated to students is summarized, and the implications of this research for teachers are discussed.

- 1A, 5A Cooper, Pamela J. 1987. *In or Out of the Pumpkin Shell? Sex Role Differentiation in Classroom* 4A, 2B *Interaction.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Speech Communication Association,
- 3C, 1B Boston, November 5-8.

3A, 3B

A review of research on sex role differentiation by classroom interaction reveals that women are marginalized from education by its content and by the classroom interactional processes. Sex-role stereotyping exists in curriculum materials at all educational levels, with textbooks more likely to portray boys in active roles and girls in passive roles. More stories are about boys or are illustrated with boys' pictures than with girls' pictures. Little space is given to the achievements of women, and sexist language is common. In addition to curriculum materials, students are exposed to sex role-stereotyped materials and advice in guidance counseling offices. In the classroom, teachers communicate sex role expectations in various ways, including use of sexist language, calling on male students more often than on female students, and asking male students questions requiring critical thinking or personal evaluation, while asking female students questions requiring factual answers. Criticism of female students focuses on their lack of knowledge or skill, whereas criticism of male students focuses on disruptive behaviors. Overall, male students dominate talk and space. In these ways, sexism in the educational environment affects the self-concepts of students, their curriculum choices, and their occupational

choices. However, several communication researchers suggest strategies for change, such as (1) paying attention to classroom interaction patterns; (2) using terminology that includes both males and females in the group; (3) responding to male and female students in the same way; and (4) intervening in communication patterns that shut out females. (A student-faculty communication checklist, teachers' self-evaluation questionnaire, student perception questionnaire, and 33 footnotes are appended.)

5C Cortez, Albert and Mortecel, Maria Robledo. 1999. *Disciplinary Alternative Education Programs in Texas—What Is known: What Is Needed.* A Policy Brief. ERIC Document No. ED434963.

In 1995 the Texas legislature established a policy that each school district must have an "alternative educational setting for behavioral management." This brief examines the ways that this idea has been implemented Texas. Findings show that, for the most part, these are "dumping grounds" for behavior problem students. Cortez and Mortecel recommend that parents be involved to a higher degree, and that better information be gathered about the effectiveness of these programs.

2C Cothran, Donetta J. and Ennis, Catherine D. 2000. "Building Bridges to Student Engagement: Communicating Respect and Care for Students in Urban High Schools." *Journal of Research and Development in Education* 33: 106-17.

The reasons that high school teachers and students perceived higher student engagement are explored in this article. Data suggests that students believe that teachers who are engaging tend to care and communicate in courteous and positive ways.

4C Crump, Charla A. 1996. Teacher Immediacy: *What Students Consider to be Effective Teacher Behaviors*. Research Report. ERIC Document No. ED390099.

This study investigated the impact of teacher's use of immediacy behaviors, including touch. Of the twelve behaviors reported, touch was considered the least effective.

5B Curwin, Rick. 1980. "Are Your Students Addicted to Praise?" *Instructor* 90(3):61-62.

The author asserts that students can get "hooked" on praise to the point that they limit their creativity and manipulate others in search of it. He notes that teachers too may use praise manipulatively. He suggests ways for kicking this habit, primarily through more objective reinforcement messages. Three educators respond.

2C, 5B Davidson, Helen H., and Gerhard Lang. 1960. "Children's Perceptions of Their Teachers' Feelings Toward Them Related to Self-Perception, School Achievement, and Behavior." *Journal of Experimental Education* 29 (December): 107-18.

The Davidson and Lang study relates to the entire Strand C, Personal Regard. A Checklist of Trait Names was developed to measure how children felt about themselves, how the children thought the teacher perceived them and how the teacher saw the children. The checklist was completed by 204 junior high students and their teachers.

Davidson and Lang found that the more favorably children viewed themselves the more favorably they expected to be viewed by the teacher. Favorability of teacher rating on the checklist was independently related both to pupil achievement and social class, but more highly to the former. Davidson and Lang concluded, "It is . . . likely that a lower class child, especially if he is not doing well in school, will have a negative perception of his teacher's feelings toward him. His poor school achievement will aggravate the negative attitude of his teachers toward him, which in turn will affect his self-confidence, and so on."

Dawson, Margaret M. 1987. "Beyond Ability Grouping: A Review of the Effectiveness of Ability Grouping and Its Alternatives." *School Psychology Review* 16:348-69.

This paper discusses negative consequences for students placed in low ability classes and presents some alternative grouping and instructional practices which have been proven effective in heterogeneous classrooms.

de Groat, Albert F., and George G. Thompson. 1949. "A Study of the Distribution of Teacher Approval and Disapproval among Sixth-Grade Pupils." *Journal of Experimental Education* 18 (September): 57-75.

The de Groat and Thompson study found that sixth-grade children could identify class-mates for whom the teacher felt approval or disapproval by using "guess who" scales. Teacher disapproval items included: "often scolded for whispering"; "scolded for not paying attention to what's going on in the room"; "often scolded for handing in untidy papers"; "often scolded for talking without raising his hand"; "often pointed out by the teacher as one who is wasting too much time"; "often pointed out by the teacher as one who is not doing his best work"; "Teacher often speaks to him because he does not have things ready when it's time to begin work." De Groat and Thompson found that children who were considered by their classmates to be experiencing a high degree of disapproval and little approval were less intelligent, less well-adjusted, less able students. Children who experienced the most teacher approval held better opinions of themselves, were more outgoing, and had more confidence in their ability to adjust to social situations.

Delpit, Lisa. 1995. *Other People's Children: Cultural Conflict in the Classroom.* New York: New Press.

Academic problems for children of color may stem from a power structure that supports the assertion that those who are privileged are the only reality, while those perceived as less powerful are considered deficient. The book examines the combination of power and *otherness* that must be addressed to achieve effective multicultural education.

- 2C Dillon, J. T. 1971. *Personal Teaching: Efforts to Combine Personal Love and Professional Teaching in the Classroom.* Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co.
- 4C, 5C Dollar, Barry. 1972. *Humanizing Classroom Discipline: A Behavioral Approach*. New York: Harper and Row.

A how-to book on positive reinforcement in handling discipline problems.

2B, 3B Dornbusch, S., G. Massey, and M. Scott. 1975. "Racism without Racists: Institutional Racism in Urban Schools." Publications Office, Stanford Center for R and D in Teaching, Stanford University.

This study found that praise rather than punishment is a great concept, but not if it results in students thinking they are doing satisfactory work when they aren't. In a study of 770 students in eight San Francisco high schools, it was found that teachers who expressed praise, warmth, and friendliness without challenging academic standards gave students completely unrealistic images of their effort and achievement. The researchers concluded that this approach was debilitating to students in that the students were not made aware of how badly educated they were. In the case where it occurs with ethnic minority students, the researchers believe this approach may well perpetuate institutional racism.

Dusek, Jerome B., and Gail Joseph. 1983. "The Bases of Teacher Expectancies: A Meta-Analysis." *Journal of Educational Psychology* 75(3):327-46.

A meta-analysis of 77 studies on teacher expectancies led to the following conclusions: student attractiveness, conduct, cumulative folder information, race, and social class were related to teacher expectancies.

- Dweck, Carol S. 1999. "Caution—Praise Can Be Dangerous." *American Educator* 23: 4-9. Research is reviewed on the effects of praise on students.
- 4B Enger, Tracy; Russell, Nancy; Setzer, Jill; Walkanoff, Jeanette. (1998) *Methods of Improving Active Listening Skills With Relation to Following Directions.* Master's Action Research Project, Saint Xavier University and IRI/Skylight. ERIC Document No. ED420887.

A program developed for improving listening skills is discussed. Review of the literature shows that listening strategies are not being taught in schools and environmental factors interfere with students' abilities to receive information. The results indicate that students need to hear information more than once and need to increase their listening skills.

1A Finn, Jeremy D. 1972. "Expectations and the Educational Environment." *Review of Educational Research* 42 (Summer): 387-410.

Teachers were asked to evaluate essays written by fifth-grade students. False information about the ability of the students was given to the teachers. Teachers from urban schools invariably rated higher the essays of children whom they had been told were bright.

3B, 4B Flanders, Ned A. 1961. "Analyzing Teacher Behavior." *Educational Leadership* 19 (December): 173-80.

Based on his interaction analysis studies, Flanders strongly recommends that teachers tell why in giving praise. He feels that this has a much stronger impact on the child than praise unrelated to a criterion.

3A ______.1964. "Interaction Models of Critical Teaching Behaviors." In *An Analysis and Projection of Research in Teacher Education*, edited by F. R. Cyphert and E. Spaights, 197-218. Columbus: College of Education, Ohio State University.

If all questions asked by teachers can be answered immediately, no latencies will occur. Flanders's studies using his observation method suggested that most teacher questions require little more than simple recall on the part of the student. "The majority of the questions asked by a teacher, who has been lecturing, are sufficiently narrow that they can be answered by a student in less than three seconds."

1B, 2B Frechtling, J. 1984. A Review of Programs and Strategies Used in Other American School Systems for Improving Student Achievement. Rockville, Md.: Montgomery County Public Schools, Department of Educational Accountability. ERIC Document Reproduction Services no. ED 255584.

To support a comprehensive look at the problem of increasing minority student achievement in the Montgomery County schools (Maryland), this report reviewed the literature to identify factors affecting minority achievement and three types of intervention programs. Based on the findings, Section III recommends further analysis of variables shown to enhance low-achieving students' performance: class size reduction to 15 or less; student team learning and teacher training programs such as Teacher Expectations and Student Achievement (TESA); and mastery learning programs.

4C Frymier, Ann and Mongeau, Paul. 1999. *Communicating With Touch in the Teacher/Student Relationship.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Eastern Communication Association. Baltimore, MD, April 10-13. ERIC Document No. ED427378.

Descriptions of touch between teachers and students were reported and the resultant meanings were given to the relationship and then examined. Findings suggest that touch plays an important role in developing close relationships between students and teachers.

4C Galloway, Charles M. 1968. "Nonverbal Communication in Teaching." In *Teaching: Vantage Points for Study*, edited by Ronald T. Hyman. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott.

In discussing his schedule for observing classroom nonverbal behavior, Galloway points out that the overwhelming interest in the analysis of classroom interaction has been verbal behavior. He suggests that teachers need to become cognizant of the consequences of their nonverbal messages to students. Because of the paucity of research in this area, we have little knowledge about whether teachers can modify the attitudes and meanings which they communicate nonverbally.

3A Gambrell, Linda B. 1980. "Think-Time: Implications for Reading Instruction." *Reading Teacher* 34 (November): 143-46.

Based on efforts at the University of Maryland Reading Clinic to increase the amount of wait time, Gambrell suggests several steps for teachers to consider: (1) Teacher preparation. Silently count up to five seconds after asking a question to help establish a routine to use wait time; (2) Student preparation. Tell students that wait time will be extended; and (3) Begin slowly.

1B Gardner, Hilary. 1998. *The Role of Error Correction in Working With Emergent Readers.* ERIC Document No. ED430207.

Studies are reviewed that address questions concerning when it is appropriate for a teacher to give oral or written corrective feedback of reader's efforts, when students should begin to take a personal role in noting their errors, and how corrective feedback is most efficiently handled. Gardner concludes that correction should focus primarily on errors that disrupt meaning. It is important not to provide constant correction to the point where the student begins to undermine his/her view of self. This results in fear of one's own judgment and an over reliance on feedback from others.

5B Gardner, Howard. 1993. *Multiple Intelligences*. New York: Basic Books.

Howard Gardner has broken down intelligence into seven categories. He describes his research and theory in addition to its implications for education and curriculum. Gardner supports individualized education, and understanding strengths and developing students' weaker areas to allow them to realize their full potential. Understanding intelligence provides a framework that allows teachers to analyze students' capabilities. He emphasizes that we all have the ability to develop all categories of intelligence; it is their interconnectedness that makes us most fully human.

5A Garmston, Robert J. 2000. "Glad You Asked." *Journal of Staff Development* 21(1):73-75.

Garmston contends that questions that cause thinking produce more learning than telling. This paper describes how to develop good questioning skills.

5C Garrity, Carla; and Others. 1997. "Bully Proofing Your School: Creating a Positive Climate." *Intervention in School and Clinic* 32 (4): 235-43.

This article identifies components of school programs that prevent emotional or physical "bullying." It stresses a need for a systems approach where power is in the hands of a "caring majority," and training of all school staff.

4B Geiss, Patricia A. and Mayer, Rose. 1999. *Improving Listening Skills*. Master's Action Research Project, Saint Xavier University and IRI/Skylight. ERIC Document No. ED426613.

A program for improving listening skills is discussed. Intervention delivered to first and second-year Spanish students in a middle school and a high school resulted in improved understanding of content and listening skills. Interventions included creation of a listening environment; instruction, including modeling active listening skills; minimizing teacher-dominated talk; using cooperative groups; and discussing attitudes about listening.

5B Ginott, Haim G. 1972. *Teacher and Child: A Book for Parents and Teachers*. New York: Macmillan.

Ginott presents a series of classroom vignettes which illustrate how teachers can use the reflection of a student's feelings to cope effectively with many different kinds of situations.

3B Glazer, Steven, ed. 1999. *The Heart of Learning: Spirituality in Education.* New York: Putnam.

This collection of articles focuses on "inner work" as part the educational process. The articles are written by contemporary scholars and thinkers. "The Heart of Learning shows us how education can serve as the core of a lifelong journey to wholeness, rather than merely an accumulation of facts, figures or skills." (p.3) Connecting to students on a personal level is key to this process. Authentic praise is a technique teachers can use and perfect to facilitate this connection. Contributing authors include Bell Hooks, Jeremy Hayward, Parker Palmer and His Holiness the Dalai Lama.

Goleman, Daniel. 1994. *Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ*. New York: Bantam Books.

Goleman discusses recent research and scientific insights into emotions. His goal is to give understanding of the realm of feeling. His vision is that education will one day routinely include development of self-awareness, self-control and empathy and the arts of listening, cooperation and resolving conflicts.

2B Gonzalez-Mena, Janet. 1995. "Praise: When Does It Motivate? When Is It a Mistake?" *Our Children* 21(Nov-Dec): 30-31.

The author suggests that praise is better than punishment as a motivator for children, but both are manipulative and can backfire. She suggests encouraging rather than praising. Her definition of encouragement involves honest, caring concern with no strings attached, rather than rewards attached to achievement.

3C Good, Thomas L., ed. 2000. American Education: Yesterday, Today and Tomorrow: Ninety-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. University of Chicago Press. Chicago, IL.

The evolution of educational beliefs is discussed along with curriculum content and class-room practices in the areas of reading, mathematics, social studies, measurement, the work of teachers, and conceptions of motivation.

5B

Good, Thomas L. 1970. "Which Pupils Do Teachers Call On?" Elementary School Journal 1A 70:190-98. Good suggests reasons why teachers call on low achievers less often. 2B, 1C . 1981. "Teacher Expectations and Student Perceptions: A Decade of Research." 2C, 3C Educational Leadership 38(5):415-21. Data on teacher expectation research have revealed that some teachers treat high- and lowachieving students differently and that teachers' expectations appear to be associated with student achievement. _. 1984. "Research on Teacher Expectations." In "Making Our Schools More Effective: Proceedings of Three State Conferences," June. 1A __. 1987. "Two Decades of Research on Teacher Expectations: Finding and Future Directions." Journal of Teacher Education (July-Aug.). The types of teacher expectation effects found in the classroom are discussed, with emphasis on research involving teachers' expectations for and interactions with students believed to be of high or low potential. A model for use in understanding the dynamics of expectation communication to students is presented. 2A Good, Thomas L., and Jere E. Brophy. 1969. Teachers' Communication of Differential Expectations for Children's Classroom Performance. Report Series no. 25. Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, University of Texas at Austin. Some aspects of our program replicate Good and Brophy's experiments in which they observed teachers' dyadic interactions with elementary students whom the teacher perceived as low achievers. The teachers were unaware of the specific behaviors being observed and recorded. Good and Brophy were particularly concerned with response opportunities. They found that low achievers were less apt to initiate contact with the teacher than other children, and were less apt to receive individual feedback regarding their seat work. 1A. 2B . 1971a. "Analyzing Classroom Interaction: A More Powerful Alternative." *Educational* 4A Technology 11:36-41. 1B, 2B _____. 1971b. "The Self-Fulfilling Prophecy." *Today's Education* (April): 52-53.

In their study of teacher interaction with children for whom high and low expectations were held, Good and Brophy found striking differences in teachers' reactions to children's responses. Teachers failed to react in any way to a child's response to a question in 3 percent of the interactions with high expectancy children; this occurred in 18 percent of the interactions with low expectancy children.

Good and Brophy also found that, "Even though the highs gave many more right answers and fewer wrong ones than the lows, they were twice as likely to receive praise for a correct response and only one-third as likely to receive criticism for an incorrect response."

1B _. 1972. "Behavioral Expression of Teacher Attitudes." Journal of Educational Psychology 63(6): 617-24.

> Good and Brophy replicated a study by Silberman of the differential behavior of teachers toward children for whom they felt attachment (If you could keep one student another year for the sheer joy of it, whom would you pick?), concern (If you could devote all your attention to a

child who concerns you a great deal, whom would you pick?), indifference (If a parent were to drop in unannounced for a conference, which child would you be least prepared to talk about?), and rejection (If your class were to be reduced by a few children, which would you have removed?).

Attachment students generally conformed to institutional norms and knew the right answers. These students received more praise than others, but less process feedback, probably because teachers did not feel they needed it. Concern students received the most process feedback and the teachers were most apt to stay with these children when they had difficulty reading or answering a question. Indifference students tended to avoid the teacher, and the teacher initiated fewer contacts with them. When contacts did occur, the teachers provided high rates of process feedback. The rejection students were less apt to be given individual help or to be called on, and more apt to be criticized. Teachers often failed to respond at all to their answers or to give them any feedback after their reading turns.

2C, 3B

_____. 1973. *Looking in Classrooms*. New York: Harper and Row.

5A, 5B 5C

In this teacher training textbook, Good and Brophy discuss question-asking behavior at length. Observation schedules for coding question-asking behavior are provided.

The authors emphasize prevention as the key to classroom management and make practical, easily applied suggestions. They suggest that children behave as they think the teacher expects. Teacher credibility is damaged when what she says does not conform with what she seems to expect.

- 1A, 2A _____. 1974. *Teacher-Student Relationships*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
 - _____. 1986. "Teacher Behavior and Student Achievement." In *Handbook of Research on Teaching*, edited by Merlin C. Wittrock. 3d ed. New York: Macmillan.
 - _____. 1991. Looking in Classrooms. 5th ed. New York: Harper Collins.
- 5A Good, Thomas L., and Myron H. Dembo. 1973. "Teacher Expectations: Self-Report Data." *School Review* 81:247-53.
- 3B Good, Thomas L., R. Slavings, K. Harel, and H. Emerson. 1987. "Student Passivity: A Study of Question-Asking in K-12 Classrooms." *Sociology of Education* 60:181-99.

Examines the socialization of student question-asking behavior. Documents students' self-initiated questions in an attempt to determine whether high- and low-potential students learn different questioning skills. Findings generally support the authors' passivity model, which claims that students learn to become passive in classrooms because of differential teacher feedback.

- 4B, 5B Gordon, Thomas. 1974. T.E.T.: Teacher Effectiveness Training. New York: Peter H. Wyden.
- 4B Graves, Jennifer and Loaiza, Karyn. 2000. *Improving Student Active Listening Skills Across the Curriculum*. Master's Action Research Project, Saint Xavier University and IRI/Skylight. ERIC Document No. ED433575.

Strategies designed to improve active listening in students are reported. First- and third-grade students in low- to middle-income communities received instruction in active listening strategies. Strategies were built into the curriculum in addition to instruction regarding its

importance. Post-intervention data revealed an increase in understanding and use of active listening skills. Appendices include lesson plans and worksheets in addition to survey information.

3B Grayson, Dolores A., and Mary D. Martin. 1984. "Gender Expectations and Student Achievement: A Teacher Training Program Addressing Gender Disparity in the Classroom." Paper presented at the 68th Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, April 23-27.

5C Gut, Dianne M. 2000. "We Are Social Beings: Learning How to Learn Cooperatively." *Teaching Exceptional Children* 32 (5): 46-53.

The effectiveness of a social skills intervention program on 16 middle-school students with learning problems is discussed. Cooperative learning, role-play and art therapy techniques were used to improve students' social skills.

2B, 2C Hadley, S. Trevor. 1954. "A School Mark—Fact or Fantasy?" *Educational Administration and Supervision* 40 (May): 305-12.

Teachers were asked to assign rank positions to their students representing the degree of liking or acceptance they felt toward each student. Hadley used the California Achievement Test as the criterion for the true achievement of the child. This was compared to the end-of-the-year marks given by the teachers. Hadley found that the most-liked students received higher marks than their accomplishments (as measured by the CAT) justified. Of the 158 most liked, 50 percent got higher marks than their "measured attainment," while only 16 percent were marked lower. Of the 118 least liked, 50 percent were marked lower than "measured attainment" and only 19 percent marked higher. Hadley concluded that "teacher acceptance of the pupil and actual attainment are components, almost equally, in school marks assigned by the teachers."

1A, 1C
 4B, 2C
 5B, 2C
 6B, 2C
 7B, 2C
 8B, 2C
 8B, 2C
 9B, 2C

5A

The subtle or overt ways in which women and men students are often treated differently are discussed, and actions that can be taken to create a learning climate that fosters the intellectual growth of all students are identified. Policy and general recommendations are offered, along with recommendations for the following parties: presidents, deans, department chairs, student affairs personnel, faculty, women students and special groups of women students, and professional associations and organizations. Recommendations regarding curriculum, promotion of institutional research, faculty development programs, and classroom climate issues are also presented.

1-5C Hannah, Mary Elizabeth, and Susan Pliner. 1983. "Teacher Attitudes Toward Handicapped Children: A Review and Synthesis." *School Psychology Review* 12 (Winter): 12-25.

School psychologists have become increasingly involved with handicapped children who have been mainstreamed into regular education classes. This review summarizes research findings related to the cognitive, affective, and behavioral components of teacher attitudes toward these children with exceptional educational needs and the relationship between certain teacher characteristics and attitudes.

5C Hart, Joe W. 1965. "Socially Mobile Teachers and Classroom Atmosphere." *The Journal of Educational Research* 59 (December): 166-68.

Hart used the observation scheme developed by H. H. Anderson and his colleagues to examine differences in the classrooms of mobile and nonmobile teachers. Anderson's observation schedule was designed to identify socially integrative and socially dominative classroom climates. Dominative teacher behavior was defined as that behavior which restricts the actions of the child. Hart found that it made no difference whether or not the teachers were upwardly mobile; both groups of teachers gave more integrative contacts to students from high occupational backgrounds. However, upwardly mobile teachers tended to behave in a comparatively more dominative manner toward students from low occupational backgrounds than the non-mobile teachers.

2C, 5A Hilliard, A., III. 1989. "Teacher and Cultural Styles in a Pluralistic Society." *NEA Today* 4A, 2B 7(6): 65-69.

It is important for teachers to be sensitive to and respectful of their students' cultural learning styles without stereotyping. Matching teaching styles to learning styles is necessary; a student's learning style is neither an excuse for poor teaching nor an index of low capacity.

2B Hodges, Linda and Wolf, Carolyn. 1998. *Promoting Self-Esteem in a Caring Positive Classroom*. Master's Action Research Project, Saint Xavier University and IRI/Skylight. ERIC Document No. ED411070.

A project is described that is designed to increase student self-esteem through a caring and positive classroom environment incorporating cooperative learning and the use of praise and rewards. Interventions occurred between student and teacher, positive interaction among peers, and a positive classroom environment. Post-intervention data indicated an increase in self-esteem, greater student engagement, and increased achievement.

Hoehn, A. J. 1954. "A Study of Social Status Differentiation in the Classroom Behavior of Nineteen Third-Grade Teachers." *Journal of Social Psychology* 39:269-92.

Hoehn failed to substantiate a hypothesized relationship between the quantity of teacher contact and the student's social class status. Low-achieving students received more conflictive and dominative contacts, while high-achieving students received more promotive and supportive contacts.

1B, 4B Holt, John C. 1970a. *How Children Fail*. Introduction by Allan Fromme. New York: Dell.

Holt states: "When you tell a child that he has done a problem wrong, you often hear a sigh of relief. He says, 'I knew it would be wrong.' He would rather be wrong, and know it, than not know whether he was wrong or not."

Holt suggests that communication barriers between teachers and students in ghetto or barrio schools can be resolved if the teacher treats the students' ideas with respect. "This is what respect means.... It means treating them as if their ideas made some difference, and when we treat people this way, whatever their age, color or background, we find that communication barriers disappear and learning takes place. This is, of course, what ought to be happening everywhere in our schools—at Yale as much as in Harlem—and so seldom happens anywhere."

4C _____. 1970b. *The Underachieving School*. New York: Dell.

1A

1A Horn, Ernest. 1914. *Distribution of Opportunity for Participation among the Various Pupils in Classroom Recitations*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University.

Horn asked the teachers in 229 classrooms to rank their children in quartiles by ability. He then examined the distribution of response opportunities among these ability groups. The highest quartile did about 40 percent more reciting than the lowest quartile. This disparity increased with grade level so that in high school, the highest quartile does almost twice as much reciting as the lowest.

1C, 2C Hunt, Walter C. 1987. Teaching and Learning in the Affective Domain: A Review of the Literature.
 3C, 4C Olympia: Washington Office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction. PPIC Document Reproduction Series no. ED 288871.

This document presents a review of the research on the affective domain as it relates to learning and teaching in the classroom. The synthesis concludes that it is clearly evident that affective factors are an important dimension of the teaching-learning process and that the ways in which teachers respond to students and classroom situations relate to cognitive outcomes such as achievement and behavior. Appendix C provides a description of a successful teacher training program called TESA (Teacher Expectations and Student Achievement) designed to produce teacher behaviors that result in improvements both in student achievement and student attitudes. A list of 136 references is also included.

2B Hurlock, Elizabeth B. 1925. "An Evaluation of Certain Incentives Used in Schoolwork." *Journal of Educational Psychology* 16 (March): 145-49.

Hurlock divided 108 fourth-graders into four groups—praised, reproved, ignored, and control groups—of equivalent performance on an arithmetic test. The children were tested for four successive days. After each test, the praised group was verbally commended for its performance and the reproved group was criticized while the ignored group observed this, but were given no feedback about their own performance.

The praised children were the only group that showed gains in excess of those due to practice (as measured by the control group). Both boys and girls increased in the praised group, but girls increased slightly more. After the first administration to the reproved group, the boys did slightly better than following praise and the girls slightly worse. With continued use, reproof lost its effectiveness. The ignored children showed less improvement the longer they were ignored. The groups were further divided into thirds by ability. The low-ability students were the most responsive of the three groups to praise while the highs were the most responsive to reproof.

3A Hwang, U.L. 1993. "Wait-Time as a Variable in Sex-Related Differences During Computation and Problem-solving Instruction of Third and Sixth Grades." Dissertation from ProQuest File No. 9314568.

Reported in Tauber (1997), listed below. The following appears on page 44:

"Wait-time," the amount of time teachers allow before providing the correct answer or calling on another student, and "incidence of teacher-call," how often students are called upon to answer, were two of the variables researched by Gore (1981). Hwang (1993) found that elementary teachers provided significantly more wait-time for male than for female students.

4B, 5B Jackson, Philip W. 1968. *Life in Classrooms*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Jackson reports a study of students' feelings about school and the extent to which teachers were able to predict feelings of individual students. Teachers were significantly more accurate in predicting the feelings of children with high IQs than children with low IQs.

4C Johnson, Sally. 1998. "Hug Therapy." *Children and Families* 16 (2): 8-9, ll.

Hug Therapy and the value of appropriate touch to healthy development are discussed in this article.

Jones, M. Gail. 1989. "Gender Issues in Teacher Education." *Journal of Teacher Education* 40 (January-February): 33-38.

Findings from a study, based on observation of dyadic teacher-student interaction in high school science classes, indicate that teachers of all levels of experience tend to interact more with male students than with female students, and both newly prepared and experienced teachers lack the skills needed to alter their gender-biased behaviors.

4C Keating, Kathleen. 1983. *The Hug Therapy Book*. Minneapolis: Comp Care Publications.

Touch is not only nice, it's needed. Scientific research supports the theory that stimulation by touch is absolutely necessary for our physical as well as our emotional well-being. Therapeutic touch, recognized as an essential tool for healing, is now part of nurses' training in several large medical centers. Touch is used to help relieve pain, depression, and anxiety, to bolster patients' will to live, and to help premature babies—who have been deprived of touch in their incubators—grow and thrive.

- 1A Kelly, A. 1986. "Gender Differences in Teacher-Pupil Interactions: A Meta-Analytic Review." Ms.
- 1A Koehler, Virginia Richardson. 1988. *"Teachers' Beliefs about At-Risk Students."* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, April.

This study, part of a larger ethnographic study of elementary students categorized as at-risk, attempts to determine whether the labeling of students affects teachers' expectations of, and behavior toward, at-risk students. Teachers' limited awareness of the problems of the social constructivist nature of their labeling can result in programs that deal with students' individual problems but fail to implement structural changes in classrooms and schools.

4B Kordalewski, John. 2000. *Incorporating Student Voice Into Teaching Practice*. An ERIC Information Analysis Project, ERIC Clearinghouse on Teaching and Teacher Education, Washington, DC. ERIC Document No. ED440049.

Different ways that students are heard in the classroom are explored. Students need to be listened to, but they must first find a reason to express themselves. Creating specific teaching methods that allow students to express themselves include negotiation, using a writing process approach that encourages interaction, honoring students' cultures and using them in curriculum, and building on what students know. Teachers are also encouraged to create situations that allow students to express their opinions, passions and desires outside of the classroom.

Kounin, Jacob S. 1970. *Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston. Reprint. Huntington, N.Y.: R. E. Krieger Publishing Co., 1977.

5B Kraft, Arthur H. 1975. *The Living Classroom: Putting Humanistic Education into Practice*. New York: Harper and Row.

Kraft explains the technique of listening for students' feelings to enhance their self-concept and help them resolve conflict constructively.

2C Krall, Charlotte M. and Jalongo, Mary. 1998. "Creating a Caring Community in Classrooms: Advice From an Intervention Specialist." *Childhood Education* 75: 83-89.

Specific methods are presented describing how teachers can create safe, just, inviting and caring classrooms that promote academic achievement. The article focuses on practices that teachers can use to be more courteous and caring and to model these actions for students. A self-monitoring checklist is included.

2B Lanzetta, J. T., and T. E. Hannah. 1969. "Reinforcing Behavior of 'Naive' Trainers." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 11:245-52.

An experiment shows that naive trainers tend to allow factors such as task difficulty and competence of the trainee to affect the kind of reinforcement administered.

2C Lasley, Thomas J., and William W. Wayson. 1982. "Characteristics of Schools with Good Discipline." *Educational Leadership* 40 (December): 28-31.

Teachers must give respect if they want to receive it; they must expect success to help students achieve it; and they must foster student leadership if they want students to learn decision-making skills.

2B Lesniak, Robert J., Ernest E. Lohman, and George A. Churukian. 1972. "Verbal Behavior Differences Between Inner-City and Suburban Elementary Teachers: A Pilot Study." *Urban Education* 7 (April): 41-48.

Flanders's interaction analysis system was used to compare the verbal behavior of 45 suburban school teachers and 45 inner-city school teachers. Among the significant differences found were the following. Inner-city teachers gave more directions and criticized their students more. They asked fewer questions, and they accepted or clarified students' ideas less. The authors point out that other studies using the Flanders system have shown that the "direct" teacher behaviors which the inner-city teachers used more often are related negatively to pupil achievement. Questions raised by the authors were, "Did the teacher utilize direct verbal behavior influence patterns before coming to the inner city, or did conditions in the inner city mandate that direct influence patterns be utilized for survival? Are the expectations of working in a 'difficult school' with 'difficult children' responsible for the more direct style of verbal behavior?"

Lewis, Anne C. 1990. "Getting Unstuck: Curriculum as a Tool of Reform." *Phi Delta Kappan* 71 (March).

Concern about curriculum has produced its own subgenre of national reform reports covering the core subjects (science, mathematics, social studies, and language arts). Common themes include curriculum integration, emphasis on thinking skills, more rigorous content for all students, influence from outside groups, and acknowledgment of standardized testing limitations.

2C Lippitt, Ronald, and Associates. n.d. *An Inter-Center Program for Studies in Children, Youth, and Family Life of the Survey Research Center and the Research Center for Group Dynamics*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan.

Lippitt and Gold conducted research on the socio-emotional structure in 39 elementary classrooms. They found that socio-emotional problems were created and maintained through a circular process contributed to by the individual child, the teacher, and classmates. They then examined the classroom group as a source of difficulty for the child with emotional and learning problems. They found that the child is very quickly labeled as less capable, and that this label does not change even if additional information refutes the evaluation. They also found that the child received little sympathetic feedback and that the group lacked standards concerning the support and acceptance of "different" children. Lippitt and Gold concluded that the teachers in their study failed to adequately model behavior patterns toward low status children which could be imitated by the pupils.

1A, 5A Locke, Don C. "Teaching Culturally Different Students: Growing Pine Trees or Bonsai Trees." *Contemporary Education* 59:130-33.

This article reviews educational inequalities based on cultural heritage and proposes a model for teachers to become more effective in teaching culturally diverse students.

- 5A Loftus, P. 1992. "Pygmalion Effect." Canadian Banker 99 (5): 34-37.
- Martin, Barbara N. and Newcomer, Saundra. 1999. *Gender Equity in Rural Secondary Classrooms.* Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the Center for the Study of Small/Rural Schools (March, 25-27). ERIC Document No. ED430921.

The practices of secondary teachers relating to gender equity in classroom situations are discussed in this study. The study concluded that males interacted more with teachers and received more opportunities for participation in the classroom, as well as more instructional materials.

2B Martin, David L. 1977. "Your Praise Can Smother Learning." *Learning* 5 (February):9-13.

Too much praise from a teacher will often lead a child to expect easy rewards and therefore avoid more innovative or complex reasoning.

3C McCaslin, Mary and Good, Thomas. 1996. *Listening in Classrooms*. New York: Harper Collins.

McCaslin and Good have argued that educators need to understand and respond to students as social beings as well as academic learners. Indeed, they contend that to ignore social needs of students is to undermine efforts to provide the needed support and encouragement from teachers that make subject-matter achievement possible. As we noted earlier, there are no agreed-upon conventions for measuring students' success in schooling; however, it is apparent that Americans have diverse expectations and that although student achievement is an important one, it is not the only lens that citizens use for gauging the success of schools and youth. Reported in Good (2000) p. 45, listed above.

1A, 5A McCombs, Regina Cecilia, and Judith Gay. 1988. "Effects of Race, Class, and IQ Information on Judgments of Parochial Grade School Teachers." *Journal of Social Psychology* 128(5):647-52.

Reports on a study that examines how teachers' expectations of students' performance relates to race and social class when the targets of evaluation are Hispanic and white.

Meehan, Merrill L. 1983. Evaluation of the Teacher Expectations and Student Achievement Demonstration Project in Ohio County Schools, West Virginia. Charleston: Appalachia Educational Laboratory.

2A Mendoza, Sonia M., Thomas L. Good, and Jere E. Brophy. 1972. "Who Talks in Junior High School Classrooms?" Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, Report Series no. 68. Austin: University of Texas.

The Brophy-Good dyadic observation system was used to study interaction in four seventh-grade classrooms. The student sample was 60 percent Mexican American and 39 percent black. The children who were perceived as low achievers initiated the fewest work contacts with the teacher. The middle group (neither perceived as high or low) both initiated the most work contacts with the teacher and received the most teacher-initiated contacts. In all, the middle group received twice as much work contact with the teacher.

Merrett, Frank. 1996. "How Important Is the Praise Element in the Pause, Prompt and Praise Tutoring Procedures for Older Low-Progress Readers?" *Educational Psychology* 16 (June): 193-206.

Merrett examines the effectiveness of each of the elements of pause, prompt and praise techniques. Praise was found to be the most significant factor to improvement.

1A, 2A Murphy, Joseph F., Marsha Weil, Philip Hallinger, and Alexis Mitman. 1982. "Academic Press:
 2C, 4C Translating High Expectations into School Policies and Classroom Practices." *Educational Leadership* 40 (December): 22-26.

The authors suggest that one way for teachers to establish "academic press" in their class-room is to interact with all students in a similar manner. Teachers do not call on some students and leave out others. They prompt all students to correct or improve responses. Praise is given when it is deserved.

2A, 5B Nurss, Joanne R. 1987. "Readiness for Kindergarten." *ERIC Digest*. Urbana, IL: ERIC Clearinghouse on Elementary and Early Childhood Education. ERIC Document Reproduction Service no. ED 291515.

A consideration of readiness for kindergarten must take into account the program and the teacher's expectations of the child. This digest examines kindergarten teachers' expectations for children's social, behavioral, sensory-motor, cognitive, and language abilities upon entrance to kindergarten.

Nuthall, G. A. 1970. "A Review of Some Selected Recent Studies of Classroom Interaction and Teaching Behavior." In *Classroom Observation*. AERA Monograph Series on Curriculum Evaluation. Chicago: Rand McNally.

Among the studies reviewed is N. F. Furst's attempt to relate pupil achievement to measures taken from Flanders and Bellack's systems of classroom observation. Furst compared the interaction in classrooms identified as high-achieving with low-achieving classrooms. Not only did the high-achieving classes receive more positive feedback, but the pupils also experienced more extended participation. In low-achieving classrooms, response opportunities were more frequently terminated than extended.

Owens, Jo and Cooney, Tamar. 1999. Strategies for Ensuring Gender Equity in the Classroom. Master's Action Research Project, Saint Xavier University, IL and IRI/Skylight. ERIC Document No. ED426944.

A program promoting gender equity in classroom participation is described in this report. Possible causes for the differential treatment of boys and girls, according to the literature, include development of gender roles in which females tend to have lower self-esteem, fewer teacher contacts and higher anxiety levels than males. Behavioral checklists revealed that boys were receiving more teacher attention, made more statements, and exhibited more disruptive behavior than did girls.

1C Palmer, Parker. 1983. *To Know as We Are Known*. San Francisco: Harper and Row.

Parker Palmer explores a holistic approach to education that involves both the mind and the heart. His book is both a philosophical discussion and a translation into practical ways to teach and to learn. For instance, Palmer discusses how teachers can create spaces for learning that engage students on a deeper level. He suggests arranging desks in a circle to invite closer student/teacher proximity and encourage interaction.

2C, 3C, 4A _____. 1998. *The Courage to Teach*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass. 4B, 4C _____. Parker Palmer explores the heart of a teacher and proposes.

Parker Palmer explores the heart of a teacher and proposes that teachers bring identity and integrity to teaching. He discusses the need to shift from the current fear-based society to a society where love and caring are at the core. He encourages teachers to teach from the heart of hope, which involves confronting our own fears and prejudices.

Palomares, Uvaldo. 1974. *Magic Circle: An Overview of the Human Development Program.*La Mesa, Calif.: Human Development Training Institute.

The format for the program is the circle session, or Magic Circle, in which the teacher (or leader) and a small group of students in the class (generally 7 to 12) sit in a circle in such a way that everyone can see everyone else. The circle session is a carefully articulated communications system which encourages individual expression. The students and their teacher share their thoughts and feelings, and discuss their behavior daily through verbal group interaction, which is never coercive or confrontive, in activities related to emotional and social development. Throughout the 20-30 minute session, an atmosphere of acceptance prevails. Students are encouraged to share their feelings genuinely and to learn to listen and give attention to each other.

1A Peck, Scott. 1978. *The Road Less Traveled: A New Psychology of Love, Traditional Values and Spiritual Growth.* New York: Simon and Schuster.

The nature of loving relationships is discussed by Dr. Peck. Attending to people requires that we set aside our preoccupations and shift our consciousness to that person. Applying this principle to students suggests that teachers can affect students' growth and achievement by paying attention to them and their responses.

2B, 3C Perkins, Hugh V. 1965. "Classroom Behavior and Underachievement." *American Educational Research Journal* 2 (January): 1-12.

Perkins's study was based on the following propositions: (1) an individual responds to a situation in accordance with the way he perceives it; (2) areas, events, and activities having special significance for an individual are those that facilitate or threaten his maintenance and enhancement of self; and (3) behaviors that are reinforced tend to be repeated. Perkins used adaptations

of observation schedules by Flanders, Kowatrakul, and Sears to determine whether the class-room behavior of underachieving pupils differs from that of achievers. One of his findings was that low academic achievement was related to withdrawal on the part of the student and criticism on the part of the teacher.

3B Powell, Evan R. 1972. "Classroom Climate, Pupil Intelligence, and Mechanical Skill Learning." Classroom Interaction Newsletter 8 (December): 18-20.

When teachers deliberately praised, low-ability students did as well as highs in tasks involving mechanical skills. The control group did less well.

1C, 5B Rampaul, Winston E. 1984. "The Relationship between Academic Achievement, Self-Concept, Creativity, and Teacher Expectations among Native Children in a Northern Manitoba School." *Alberta Journal of Educational Research* 30 (September): 213-25.

A study of 41 Native students in grades three and four found significant positive correlations among self-concept, academic achievement, and teacher expectations, and low positive relationships between creativity and academic achievement.

Redfield, Doris L., and Elaine Waldman Rousseau. 1981. "A Meta-Analysis of Experimental Research on Teacher Questioning Behavior." *Review of Educational Research* 51 (Summer): 237-45.

Redfield and Rousseau found that teachers who ask more higher-order questions have students who achieve considerably more. The overall effect is such that a typical student exposed to a lesson without higher-order questions may be expected to perform at the 50th percentile on a test related to that lesson. In contrast, if that same student had been exposed to a lesson where many intelligent higher-order questions were asked, the student would be performing at about the 75th percentile on the same test.

- 1B, 1C Research for Better Schools. 1987. *Teacher Expectations Action Packet: Research Strategies and Programs for Special Populations.* Philadelphia.
- 2B, 4A Riessman, Frank. 1963. "Teaching the Culturally Deprived." *NEA Journal* (April): 21-22.

Riessman suggests that it is more difficult for the disadvantaged child to volunteer. Therefore, the teacher should make a special effort to involve the child. The author regards praise as a crucial strategy in teaching the group of children he called "culturally deprived" or "disadvantaged." "Teachers should praise the disadvantaged child for every inch of progress because of his fear of failure which is a roadblock to his learning."

- 1A, 1C Rist, Ray C. 1970. "Student Social Class and Teacher Expectations: The Self-Fulfilling Prophecy 2C, 3C in Ghetto Education." *Harvard Educational Review* 40 (August): 411-51.

 4B, 5C Rist observed the same group of children in kindergarten first, and second grade in an
 - Rist observed the same group of children in kindergarten, first, and second grade in an attempt to discover how teacher expectancies are formed. He concludes that teacher evaluation commenced immediately upon the child's enrollment in kindergarten and that the teacher behaved differentially in terms of that evaluation. "Within a few days, only a certain group of children were continually being called on to lead the class in the Pledge of Allegiance, read the weather calendar, 'show and tell,' etc." Throughout the three years, the same group of children enjoyed the preponderance of classroom verbal interaction with the teachers.

Rist also reports that the three teachers in his study communicated with and listened to the children for whom they held high expectations almost to the exclusion of the students for whom they held low expectations. However, Rist discovered, in visiting the children's homes, that the low-expectancy children were learning from listening to the teacher and the high-expectancy pupils and by discussing what they learned among themselves and at home. Yet the teacher thought the low-expectancy children "had no idea of what was going on in the classroom." Rist concludes that the teacher inhibited the children from verbalizing what they had learned and so assumed they had learned nothing.

The children for whom the teachers held high expectations frequently belittled the low-expectation students. The direction of belittlement was never reversed. Rist's description of the classroom interaction leaves little doubt as to the courtesy behavior modeled by the teacher toward the low-expectancy students.

1C, 2B _____. 1972. "Social Distance and Social Inequality in a Ghetto Kindergarten Classroom: An Examination of the 'Cultural Gap' Hypothesis." *Urban Education* 7 (October): 241-61.

Rist observed one kindergarten class over an entire year. Early in the year, the children were placed in three groups. The group comprising students for whom the teacher held high expectations received less than a third of the number of rebukes directed toward children for whom the teacher held low expectations. The teacher's expectations appeared to be based on socioeconomic considerations rather than evidence of learning ability.

- 4B Rogers, Carl R. 1969. *Freedom to Learn: A View of What Education Might Become.* Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co.
- 1B, 2B Rosenshine, Barak. 1971. Teaching Behaviors and Student Achievement. London: National
 Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales.

Rosenshine reviews research based on classroom observations relating specific teaching behaviors to the academic achievement of children. Ten of the studies reviewed distinguished between mild criticism (indicating that a child's answer is incorrect) and stronger criticism. He finds no evidence in the 10 studies that a teacher should avoid telling a child that he is wrong. However, teachers who use stronger criticism frequently have classes with low achievement rates in most subject areas.

5A Rosenthal, R. 1973. "The Mediation of Pygmalion Effects: A Four-Factor Theory." *Papua New Guinea Journal of Education* 9(1):1-12.

High-expectation students are called on more often, asked more difficult questions, given more time to respond and prompted or cued in order to correct their partially correct answers. Output is where teachers encourage greater responsiveness, through their verbal and nonverbal behaviors, from those students from whom they expect more. These behaviors provide high-expectation students with greater opportunities to question, to seek clarification and to ask for further explanation. (Loftus, 1992; Rosenthal, 1973.) Reported in Tauber (1997), p. 22. Listed below.

3A Rowe, Mary Budd. 1969. "Science, Silence and Sanctions." *Science and Children* 6:11-13.

Rowe reports that teachers waited significantly less time, if a student did not know the answer, for their less capable students than for their more capable students. Therefore, if the less able were not to lose their response opportunity, they had to respond much more quickly than high-achieving students.

3A ______. 1974. "Wait-Time and Rewards as Instructional Variables, Their Influence on Language, Logic, and Fate Control: Part One—Wait-Time." *Journal of Research in Science Teaching* 11:81-94.

Rowe found the mean wait time to be one second after the teacher asked a question and the student responded. If the student did not respond in one second, the teacher either repeated or rephrased the question, asked another question, or called on another student.

After teachers had been trained to increase their wait time to three to five seconds, Rowe's analysis of over 900 tapes of these teachers produced the following conclusions: (1) increased length of student responses; (2) increased number of unsolicited appropriate responses; (3) decreased number of failures to respond; (4) increased student confidence in responding; (5) increased speculative thinking; (6) decreased teacher-centered teaching, increased student-student interaction; (7) more student-provided evidence preceding or following inference statements; (8) increased number of student questions; (9) increased contributions of slow students; and (10) increased variety of student structuring, soliciting, and reacting moves.

3A _____. 1986. "Wait Time: Slowing Down May Be a Way of Speeding Up." *Journal of Teacher Education* 37(1):43-50.

The literature on wait time is reviewed and effects on students described. Different training procedures used to increase wait time are compared. The appropriateness of extending the wait time for students with special needs is also discussed.

1A, 5A Rubovits, Pamela C., and Martin L. Maehr. 1973. "Pygmalion Black and White." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 25(2):210-18.

As a follow-up to work by Rosenthal and others, the present study observed teacher behavior following the manipulation of an expectancy regarding student potential. As in a previous study by these authors, teachers gave preferential treatment to "gifted" students. Additionally, it was found that this pattern of treatment depended to some extent on the race of students. In general, black students were treated less positively than whites, with blacks labeled "gifted" apparently subjected to more discrimination than those labeled "non-gifted." Moreover, the organismic variable of dogmatism was found to play an important role in moderating teacher behavior in response to black students and white students. Highly dogmatic teachers, while encouraging whites, tended to ignore blacks.

5A Runco, Mark A., Nemiro, Jill, Walberg, Herbert J. 1998. "Personal Explicit Theories of Creativity." *Journal of Creative Behavior* 32(1):1-17.

In this study, 143 creativity researchers rated the importance of various traits on creative achievement. Questioning skills and traits were rated as highly important.

- 2B, 1B Sadker, David, and Myra Sadker. 1985a. "Is the O.K. Classroom O.K.?" *Phi Delta Kappan* 66 (January): 358-61.
- 5C, 1A _____. 1985b. "Sexism in the Classroom." *Vocational Education Journal* 60 (October): 30-32.
- 1B, 2A 1C, 2C
- 5C, 1B _____. 1986. "Sexism in the Classroom: From Grade School to Graduate School." *Phi Delta Kappan* 67 (March): 512-15.

4A Sadker, Myra and David. 1994. Failing at Fairness: How America's Schools Cheat Girls. New York: Simon and Schuster.

Reported in Tauber, p. 137. (1997). Listed below.

Two decades of classroom observations from across the United States and at every grade level, including college, are described. They expose the micro-inequities that occur daily and link this imbalance in attention to the girls' loss of achievement and self-esteem. Consider the following conclusions from their work:

- ► At every level of schooling, girls receive less teacher attention and less useful teacher feedback. The gap is greatest at the college level.
- ► Girls talk significantly less than boys do in class. They are eight times less likely than boys to call out comments.
- ► The contributions of women in history and science are lacking in most curricula; most textbooks depict a male-dominated world.

Salt Lake School District. 1982-83. "Evaluation of the TESA Program," 1-7.

4C Sanderson, Cami M. and Jorgensen, Jerry D. 1997. *To Touch or Not to Touch: An Examination of Tactile Communication Between College Student and Professor.* ERIC Document No. ED408648.

The types of touch between college students and professors were examined for their appropriateness. Categories included support, compliance, attention-getting and affection. Differences in perceptions of males versus females were reported. Both males and females reported affection touch as least appropriate.

5C Scott, Charles C.; Gargan, Anne M.; and Zakierski, Marlene M. 1997. *Managing Diversity-Based Conflicts Among Children. Fastback 414.* Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation. ERIC Document No. ED408407.

Assistance is provided in this book for handling complex conflicts in diverse classrooms at the elementary and middle-school level. Based on the Children's Creative Response to Conflict Program (Prutzman, 1977) and The Peace Maintenance System (Quigley and Zakierski, 1997), this approach is intended to give students and teachers a model to create an environment of mutual respect.

- Silberman, Charles E. 1969. "The Schools and the Fight Against Prejudice." In *Prejudice U.S.A.*, edited by Charles Y. Glock and Ellen Siegelman, 136-49. New York: Frederick A. Praeger.
- 2C _____. 1970. Crisis in the Classroom: The Remaking of American Education. New York: Random House.
- Soar, Robert S. 1968. "Optimum Teacher-Pupil Interaction for Pupil Growth." *Educational Leadership* 26 (December): 275-80.

Soar's studies showed that the frequency of verbal hostility or reproof from the teacher was negatively related to pupil achievement. Of perhaps more interest is finding that a lack of teacher control, extreme permissiveness, was also negatively correlated. Soar concludes that an intermediate level of control was the most beneficial to pupil learning, that pupil growth was maximized when the teacher provided minimum structure.

Sprague, Jeffrey R. and Hill, Walker. 1999. "The Path to School Failure, Delinquency and Violence: Causal Factors and Some Potential Solutions." *Intervention in School and Clinic* 35 (2): 67-73.

Issues surrounding school failure and violence are addressed. Prevention strategies for atrisk children are described. These include improving academic and social competence, supporting families, implementing in-school intervention programs and collaboration.

3A, 3C Tauber, Robert T. 1997. *Self-Fulfilling Prophecy: A Practical Guide to Its Use in Education*. West-port, Conn: Praeger.

The latest research is presented on self-filling prophecy (SFP). Tauber asserts that whether or not teachers are aware of it, SFP is at work in the classroom. It affects students either to their benefit or their detriment. The goal of this book is to make teachers aware of SFP and how it can be used effectively in education.

1A, 5A Timpson, William M., and Christine Jones. 1989. "The Naive Expert and the Gifted Child." *Gifted Child Today* 12 (January-February): 22-23.

Mentorship programs are described which involve gifted students and subject experts (known as naive experts) with no prior knowledge about students' personalities or preconceptions about their abilities. The students are challenged by the experts' high expectations and respond to the experts' enthusiasm for sharing their knowledge and experiences.

1A, 5A Tom, David Y. H. 1984. "Influences of Student Background and Teacher Authoritarianism on Teacher Expectations." *Journal of Educational Psychology* 76 (April): 259-65.

This study compared teacher expectations for academic performance and future occupational status of white and Asian elementary school children. The effects of sex, social class, and the level of teacher authoritarianism were also examined. Six fictional student record cards were the basis for predictions by the teachers.

3A, 4A Tomic, Welko. 1989. "Teaching Behavior and Student Learning Outcomes in Dutch Mathematics Classrooms." *Journal of Educational Research* 82 (July-August): 339-47.

This study describes the means of identifying teaching behaviors that have cognitive and affective learning effects on students who are taking a course in mathematics. The results showed that effective teaching behaviors in the cognitive and affective domains are: (1) high-level questions put to a large group of students; (2) probing, followed by a correct student response; (3) teacher waiting after asking a question.

2A Torrance, E. Paul. 1966. "Fostering Creative Behavior." In *The Inner-City Classroom: Teacher Behaviors*, edited by Robert D. Strom, 57-74. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co.

Findings of the 1964 Torrance and Gupta study are reported. Of the seventh-graders identified as potential dropouts, 43 percent indicated that they were afraid to ask questions in class. This statistic becomes especially meaningful when compared with the finding that 17 percent of a sample of fourth-graders indicated that they were afraid to ask questions. The implications for the importance of individual helping are obvious.

Tractenberg, D. 1974. "Student Tasks in Text Material: What Cognitive Skills Do They Tap?" Peabody Journal of Education 52:54-57.

Tractenberg analyzed over 61,000 questions in the workbooks, tests, and teachers' manuals accompanying nine world history textbooks. Over 95 percent of those questions were lower-order.

Travers, Nan L. and Sheckley, Barry G. *Changes in Students' Self-Regulation Based on Different Teaching Methodologies.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association for Institutional Research, Cincinnati, OH. May 21-24, 2000. ERIC Document No. ED445631.

The following question is addressed in the study: "What instructional techniques are most effective in helping students learn how to self-regulate their learning?" The author emphasizes the critical role that teachers play in developing students who self-regulate their learning. Providing corrective feedback is one of the five key instructional practices identified. Affirming and guiding beliefs, promoting dialogue, connecting to abstract concepts, and linking to new experiences are the other four affirming practices (which contribute to self-regulated learning) identified by the authors.

Tye, Barbara Benham. 1984. "Unfamiliar Waters: Let's Stop Talking and Jump In." *Educational Leadership* 41 (March): 27-31.

This information was based on Barbara Tye's findings of 13 American high schools as part of Goodlad's work, "A Study of Schooling."

U.S. Commission on Civil Rights. 1973. Teachers and Students: Differences in Teacher Interaction with Mexican American and Anglo Students. Report no. 5: Mexican American Education Study. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

This report is based on classroom observations. Mexican American students experienced more interaction with the teacher than Anglos in only two areas—giving directions and criticizing. In all positive categories, the Anglos experienced more interaction. Every teacher of Mexican American students should read this report.

Vandell, Kathy. 1989. Equitable Treatment of Girls and Boys in the Classroom. Washington D.C.:
 American Association of University Women.

Sex discrimination in education has been prohibited by federal legislation since Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 was signed into law. Title IX and other federal legislation have increased women's access to education, yet sex differences in educational preparation and occupational choice persist. This issues brief discusses various theories about the causes of sex differences in academic performance, reviews recent research on sex differences in classroom interaction, and suggests ways to change stubborn patterns of sex discrimination. A resource list is provided.

Vare, Jonathan W. and Miller, Kathryn S. 2000. "Integrating Caring Across the Curriculum." *ERS Spectrum* 18: 27-35.

The importance of caring in the school environment is discussed in this report. Students need to receive care and learn *how* to care from teacher modeling.

Wallens, Norman. 1963. *Relationships Between Teacher Characteristics and Student Behavior.*Part 3. Project Report no. 2628 to U.S. Office of Education. Salt Lake City: University of Utah.

Wallens showed that frequency of teacher questioning was positively related to the amount of student learning in vocabulary, reading, and mathematics.

- Watson, Dan, L. Rangel, and A. Bright. 1989. "Improving Education for At-Risk Students." CASCD Journal (Fall).
- Wegginton, Eliot. 1989. "A Core Set of Practices." In "Fox Fire Grows Up," *Harvard Educational Review*.
- Weiner, Bernard, and Andy Kukla. 1970. "An Attributional Analysis of Achievement Motivation." Journal of Personality and Social Psychology 15:1-20.
- 1A, 5B Widmeyer, W. Neil, and John W. Loy. 1988. "When You're Hot, You're Hot! Warm-Cold Effects in First Impressions of Persons and Teaching Effectiveness." *Journal of Educational Psychology* 80 (March): 118-21.

The warm-cold manipulation's effect on first impressions of persons and teaching ability was studied using 240 university students. The lecturer was perceived as more effective and less unpleasant when students were told in advance that he was a warm person.

Wilson-Saddler, Danielle. 1997. "Using Effective Praise to Produce Positive Results in the Classroom." *Teaching and Change* 4,4: 338-57.

An elementary teacher evaluates her use and delivery of praise in this article. She discovered that *quality* rather than *quantity* makes the difference. The author suggests using praise carefully and making it specific and credible to have the greatest effect on student performance.

Yee, Albert H. 1969. "Social Interaction in Classrooms: Implications for the Education of Disadvantaged Pupils." *Urban Education* 4 (October): 203-19.

Yee studied the interpersonal relations of intermediate-grade students and teachers in 112 classrooms. The classes were differentiated as predominantly middle class and predominantly lower class. He concluded that the pupils' social class determined great and consistent differences in teacher attitudes. The middle-class children had warm, trustful, and sympathetic interaction with their teachers. The teachers of lower-class children were cold, blaming, and punitive.

Yeung, Alexander Seeshing. 1999. *Students' Perceived Support from Teachers: Impacts on Academic Achievement, Interest in Schoolwork, Attendance and Self-Esteem.* Paper presented at the International Conference on Teacher Education (Hong Kong, February 22-24, 1999). ERIC Document No. ED429097.

This paper reports the results of junior high school students who responded to survey questions relating to self-esteem and interest in schoolwork, their personal expectancy of completing high school and perceived support of teachers, parents and peers. Each of the four factors of personal, teacher, parent and peer had noteworthy positive impacts on self-esteem interest in schoolwork and GPA. Most important over all was the teacher factor, showing the importance of teacher support. The report suggests that teacher-educators should equip teachers in training and inservice to provide students with favorable feedback on academic expectancy.

Zigler, Edward, and Paul Kanzer. 1962. "The Effectiveness of Two Classes of Verbal Reinforcers on the Performance of Middle-Class and Lower-Class Children." *Journal of Personality* 30 (June): 157-63.

Zigler and Kanzer found that with middle-class children statements relating to the correctness of the child's performance were more effective than praise. However, lower-class children performed a simple task better when praised than when they were only told that their performance was correct.

Bibliographic annotations are from the ERIC database.