

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION TO APPROACHES AND METHODS

APPROACHES

Why a book on approaches to behavior and classroom management? Why not a book on just behavior and classroom management, giving straight talk on how to get the job done with a set of methods—those specific strategies or techniques needed to keep children and adolescents on task, developing positively, and contributing to classrooms and schools so that classrooms and schools become good communities? The reason is simple. Whenever we ask what it means to “get the job done” or what it means to “develop positively” or what it means to “become a good community,” we are confronted with a variety of answers revealing a variety of meanings and values and assumptions about what children and adolescents really need. In other words, whenever we get beyond the surface slogans and get to how slogans and terms are being used, we find behavior and classroom management inevitably is about approaches and not just methods.

Approaches, then, have to do with meanings, values, and assumptions, as well as with methods. Because meanings, values, and assumptions are difficult to detect, let alone understand, approaches remain somewhat hidden, which is probably the main reason books on behavior and classroom management do not generally feature approaches. However, even when approaches are featured, it often remains unclear why it is important to understand approaches. The impression given is that understanding methods is all that really matters. This is regrettable because approaches are what generate methods in the first place. How else can we explain why experienced teachers often respond to problem behavior so quickly and effectively and in novel ways? Consider the following example to understand what we mean:

CHAPTER OVERVIEW

Approaches

Defining Approaches

Categorizing Approaches

Baumrind's Styles of Control

Methods

Types of Methods

How Methods Relate to Approaches

Choosing Methods

When Jimmy jumped up during class meeting and started to dance, the observer visiting this second-grade classroom thought for sure the teacher would follow with a stern reprimand. But instead of a reprimand, the teacher turned to the rest of the children and said matter-of-factly, “Jimmy likes to dance.” Jimmy stopped, looked pleased, and then sat down. Later, when the observer asked this teacher why she said what she said to Jimmy, she replied she had no idea. (Scarlett, 1998, p. 26)

The method used in this example is that of **reframing**. Reframing happens when a teacher redefines a problem behavior (e.g., disrupting meeting time) by giving the behavior a different and positive interpretation or “spin” (e.g., “Jimmy likes to dance”). We will have more to say about reframing in later chapters, especially in Chapter 8, where it becomes a featured method in classroom (interpersonal) **systems approaches**.

Here, the main point is that what appeared to the outsider to be a method was, for this teacher, simply a natural response, one that flowed naturally (and unconsciously) from her emphasis on building positive relationships with children and accommodating their developmental stage. Put another way, what she said to Jimmy was more an expression of her approach than it was the result of her having chosen a particular method. Therefore, to understand where the method came from, we have to understand this teacher's approach.

Understanding approaches is also necessary to ensure flexibility. When teachers teach as if they have no particular approach or with an all-encompassing, eclectic approach, they become rigid and dogmatic in situations calling for flexibility and creativity. Why, after all, should one change one's approach if there is only one right approach to take or if one's approach is all-encompassing and eclectic?

We see just how restricting this attitude can be when some teachers stick to one approach, to the detriment of those students from quite different backgrounds and cultures with different value systems and different assumptions about what

children and adolescents need. We become truly eclectic not when we try to have one approach that fits all, but when we know when and how to switch to another approach when a child or group demands it—as was the case in the following example of a student teacher having to switch approaches and methods.¹

When Tried and True Approaches and Methods Fail

One student teacher had an excellent reputation as a graduate teaching assistant in the university's laboratory school. There, she excelled in applying a constructivist approach to behavior and classroom management and using a nonauthoritarian approach and getting children to discuss and negotiate their conflicts. However, when she took a part-time job in a large, urban after-school program, her nonauthoritarian approach and guidance methods completely failed. The children ignored her and continued to misbehave. Eventually, she learned how to adapt by adopting a more authoritarian, but still caring, approach and by using methods designed to provide more direction and give her more control.

Defining Approaches

When speaking about their own approach to behavior and classroom management, wise educators everywhere are apt to speak about the need for building relationships, teaching students how to behave properly, **supporting development**, being organized, and **accommodating diversity**. That is, **relationship building, learning, development, organization**, and accommodating diversity are apt to be core concepts in almost any developed, effective approach to behavior and classroom management.

Meanings Given to Core Concepts

However, the meanings of relationship building, learning, development, organization, and accommodating diversity are apt to differ from one approach to another. For example, approaches that concentrate on having children behave in a certain way (raise hands at meeting time, follow the rule about no talking during study hall, etc.) are likely to use the term *development* to refer to the acquisition of “good” or appropriate behaviors. In contrast, approaches derived from a constructivist tradition, one that emphasizes finding ways to actively involve students in problem solving, are likely to use the term *development* to refer to mental processes and the acquisition of mental tools needed for a child to eventually become a responsible, caring adult. Adopting one meaning of development

rather than another will, then, partially determine one's approach to behavior and classroom management.

Values and Value Hierarchies

Approaches are also defined by their **values** and **value hierarchies**, especially the values and value hierarchies expressed in what we say we want individuals (ourselves included) to become and whether we want individuals to stand out for their personal achievements, for their capacity to care for others, for their creativity, or whatever. In addition, they are defined by those values that express what we want *communities* to become, whether we want communities to emphasize productivity, caring, democratic ideals, or whatever. Of course, we want everything good for both individuals and communities, but in our actions and efforts we often place some values higher than others, and in so doing, we express something about the nature of our approach to behavior and classroom management.

Put another way, we need to look at the values and value hierarchies that help define an approach in the first place and that set the standards for evaluating what are or are not effective methods. For example, later on, in Chapter 9, we will find that some cultures place much more value on children and adolescents fitting in and getting along with the group, while other cultures place more value on children and adolescents standing out and achieving individually. These and other value differences influence how educators from different cultures manage behavior and classrooms.

Assumptions About Effective Behavior and Classroom Management

We also need to look at the assumptions about what is needed to manage behavior and classrooms effectively. That is, assumptions also define approaches. Some educators assume that strong discipline and limit setting are most effective. Others assume that positive reinforcement is essential. Still others assume that creating an engaging curriculum works best. There are, then, different assumptions about what is most needed to support effective behavior and classroom management.

In sum, because approaches are, to some extent, defined by the meanings given to core concepts, by values and value hierarchies, and by assumptions, approaches are hidden, compared to methods (see Figure 1.1). The hidden nature of approaches helps explain why approaches and methods are often conflated. However, despite their being hidden, approaches are essential to effective behavior and classroom management and to our understanding of effective behavior and classroom management.

Review

Approaches are defined by

- (1) meanings given to core concepts,
- (2) values and value hierarchies, and
- (3) assumptions about what makes for effective behavior and classroom management.

PREVIEW

In the coming pages, you will be reading in detail about how approaches are categorized. As a preview, approaches are categorized by

- (1) how much control a teacher has over students,
- (2) which components are emphasized,
- (3) theories of change, and
- (4) culture.

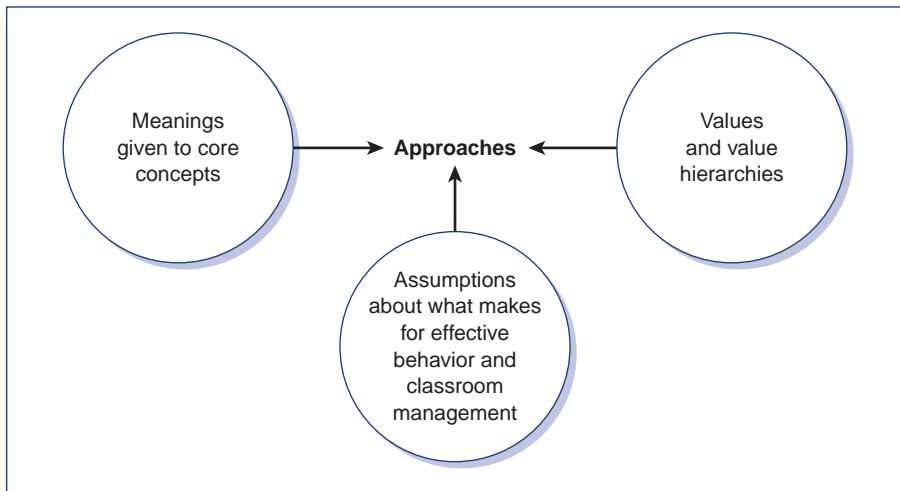


FIGURE 1.1 Approaches

Categorizing Approaches

Category 1: How Much and What Type of Control a Teacher Has Over Students

To better understand approaches, we can categorize them into logical groupings or types. Perhaps the most common way has been to type approaches according to how much direct control or power a teacher has over students. Diana Baumrind's (1970) **types of authority**, *authoritarian*, *authoritative*, and *permissive*, originally adopted to describe parenting styles, are widely used to type teaching approaches.

BAUMRIND'S STYLES OF CONTROL

Source: Diana Baumrind.



Diana Baumrind

Authoritarian: The authoritarian teacher attempts to shape, control, and evaluate the behavior and attitudes of students in accordance with a set standard of conduct. The authoritarian teacher values respect for authority, respect for work, and respect for the preservation of order and traditional structure. In so valuing, the authoritarian teacher demands obedience and does not encourage verbal give and take.

Authoritative: Similar to the authoritarian teacher, the authoritative teacher also tries to control students and is firm when necessary, but the control is more through positive encouragement of students' autonomous and independent strivings and through actively listening to students and explaining the reasoning behind rules and demands. The authoritative teacher is, then, demanding but at the same time responsive to students.

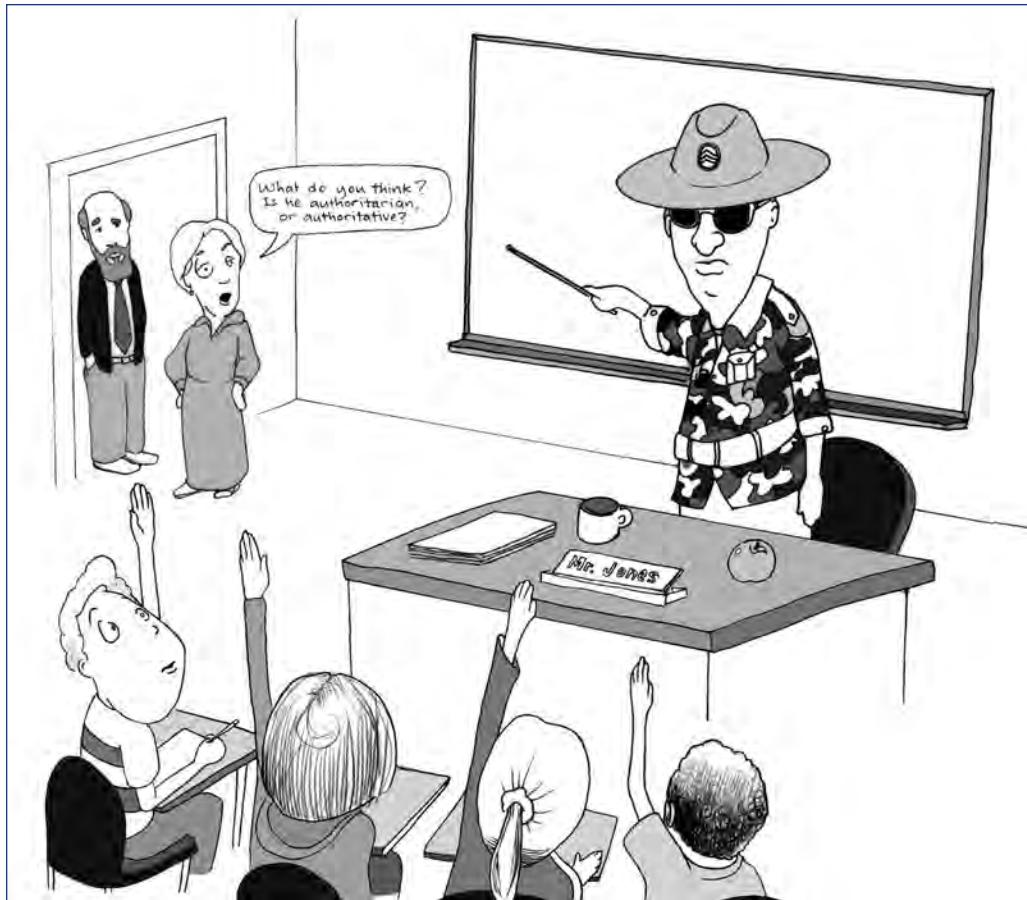
Permissive: The permissive teacher generally does not try to directly control students or make high demands on students, but he or she does try to cultivate warm relationships.

In her studies of parenting styles, Baumrind (1970) found that authoritative parenting, which includes nurturance, communication, firm control, and maturity demands, best predicts children's well-being—at least in most Western cultures. Her findings are echoed by the research of other Western investigators (Barber, 2002).

Baumrind's (1970) categories are now widely used to describe and evaluate teacher-student relationships (Bear, 2004), so much so that many leading educators claim that authoritative teaching is the most effective. For example, Lilian Katz, a leader in early childhood education, has advised teachers to adopt an authoritative style of teaching—making it clear that what she means by authoritative is identical to what Baumrind meant (Katz, 1995).

Katz is not the only Western educator to favor authoritative teaching. For example, one study found that the strongest predictor of adolescents' academic achievement in math was an authoritative teaching style (Gregory & Weinstein, 2004). In another study, Hughes (2002) found that by extrapolating findings on Baumrind's (1970) parent-child relations to the classroom, teachers were able to develop better relationships with children so that children became less vulnerable to negative peer influence. Regardless of the study, the essential point derived from the Baumrind studies has been that educators need to be demanding but, at the same time, responsive to children.

Similar to Baumrind's ways of organizing styles, Wolfgang (2001) and Glickman and Tamashiro (1980) have organized teaching types along a control



A teacher's style of control can be either authoritarian, authoritative, or permissive.

continuum, with *relationship-listening* types, such as Gordon's (1974) "Teacher Effectiveness Training," at the least controlling end; *rules-consequences* types, such as the Canters' (Canter & Canter, 1976) "Assertive Discipline," at the most controlling end; and *confronting-contracting* types, such as Glasser's (1992) approach, in the middle (see Figure 1.2).

Using these categories to describe types of teacher control, several studies have demonstrated that teachers' type of control can be significantly influenced by training, gender, and context. In particular, being trained in alternative certification programs, being male, and teaching in a rural school all predict more direct, authoritarian control (Martin, Shoho, & Yin, 2003; Martin & Yin, 1997, 1999).

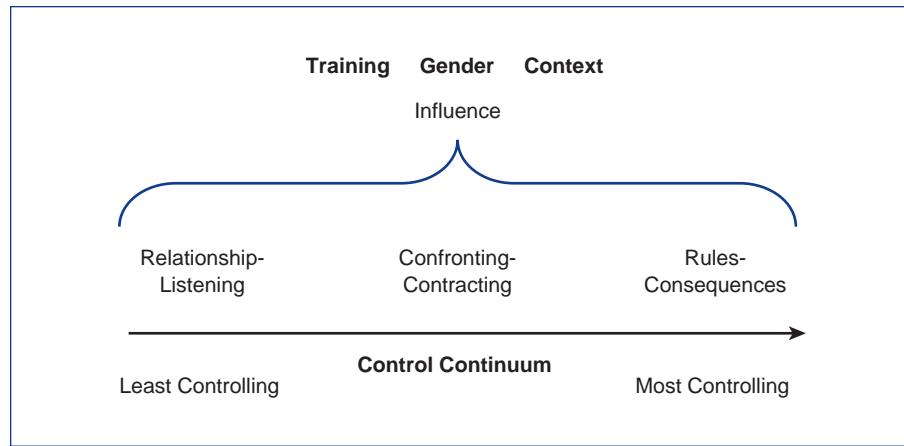


FIGURE 1.2 Control Continuum

Finally, with respect to types and degree of control, there are those who focus on a teacher's authority as being a construction rather than something inherent in the teaching role. As Pace and Hemmings (2006, p. 2) have emphasized, authority has different meanings depending on who you are talking to, so authority comes in multiple forms and types, each form or type deriving from (1) teachers' legitimacy, (2) students' consent, and (3) a moral order consisting of shared values and norms.

This *social constructivist* approach to authority has its roots in the groundbreaking work of sociologist Max Weber (1925/1964). Weber gave us three types of authority: traditional authority, charismatic authority, and legal-rational authority. *Traditional authority* is based on status; students grant a teacher authority based upon his or her status as a teacher. *Charismatic authority* is based on the exceptional qualities of an individual; students grant a teacher authority based upon his or her character, virtues, and ability to inspire. *Legal-rational authority* is based upon rules, regulations, and policy, which define an individual's "rights"; students grant a teacher authority based upon a school's bureaucracy, which has given the teacher certain rights that entail consequences should students not follow his or her lead.

As we shall see, students differ from one another according to which of these three types they best respond to. From this perspective, then, problems with authority are likely to be not so much problems in the teacher or in the students but in the match between teacher and students.

Category 2: Which Components Are Emphasized

Another way to organize approaches is to organize them according to which core concepts are emphasized or featured. We have already mentioned the five core concepts we take to be the basic components of any developed approach to behavior and classroom management: relationship building (which includes both dyadic relationships and communities), learning (**teaching for learning**), development (supporting long-term development), organization (attending to how the classroom or school is organized), and accommodating diversity (both cultural diversity and diversity based upon ability and learning differences; see Table 1.1). We chose these five because, together, they capture most of what the literature on behavior and classroom management is talking about. While virtually every educator endorses all five concepts, educators differ with regard to which components are emphasized.

Some educators emphasize relationship building. This is especially evident in traditional **counseling approaches** (Brendtro, 1969; Cutts & Moseley, 1941; Glasser, 1969; Gordon, 1974; Redl & Wineman, 1965) and in more recent approaches focusing on transforming classrooms into **just and caring** communities

PREVIEW

Relationship building will be discussed in more detail in Part II of this book.

TABLE 1.1 Categories of Approaches

Category of Approach (According to Emphasis)	General Examples of Approach	Specific Examples of Methods Following Naturally From an Approach
Relationship Building	Gordon's Teacher Effectiveness Training	"Active listening" to develop positive relationships
Teaching for Learning	Systematic behavioral-learning approaches	Modeling and then reinforcing civil behavior at meetings
Supporting Development	Kolberg's Approach for Stimulating Thinking About Justice and Caring	Holding a class discussion to have everyone figure out how to reduce teasing
Organization	Ecological approaches stemming from Kounin's pioneering work	Reorganizing desks and the classroom schedule to have better work groups and to better coordinate special education teams
Accommodating Diversity	Organic approaches rooted in the medical model	Providing medication to help children with serious attention problems

Review

The central components of behavior and classroom management are

- (1) relationship building,
- (2) teaching for learning,
- (3) teaching to support development,
- (4) organization, and
- (5) accommodating diversity.

(Gathercoal, 1998; Kohn, 1996; Noddings, 2002; Watson & Battistich, 2006). The implicit assumption here is that positive relationships make children and adolescents want to participate and behave well.

Other educators emphasize learning. Included here are approaches that focus on ways to teach and reinforce alternative behaviors (i.e., alternatives to disruptive behavior) as well as approaches that teach and reinforce skills (e.g., the skill of participating positively in group discussions), the major premise being that children and adolescents often need to learn how to behave (Maag, 2004; Trieschman, Whittaker, & Brendtro, 1969; Walker, Shea, & Bauer, 2004).

Approaches that feature development are those that concentrate on supporting the long-term development of *inner resources* or *tools for thinking*—such as the capacity to symbolize (e.g., use words) and think deeply about issues pertaining to living in communities (Butchart, 1998a)—and on supporting major **developmental tasks** such as the task of “putting morality on the inside” by internalizing or “owning” rules (Kohlberg & Lickona, 1990). Developmental approaches also emphasize matching methods to level of maturity and supporting constructivist methods for behavior and classroom management (DeVries & Kohlberg, 1990). The major premise underlying approaches emphasizing development is that development is the ultimate “cure” for behavior problems (Scarlett, 1998).

Finally, approaches that feature organization are illustrated in classrooms where the focus is on such matters as seating arrangements, class routines, and ways of monitoring individuals and groups, as well as on the “built” environment (Moore, 1987; Weinstein & David, 1987). Organizational approaches are also especially attentive to the various ways of organizing students into different kinds of groups for different purposes (e.g., small groups for cooperative learning, large groups for discussing classroom rules) as well as organizing educators into different groups for different purposes (e.g., groups to teach in inclusive classrooms, groups to service a child with disabilities).

PREVIEW

Learning and development in relation to behavior and classroom management will be discussed in more detail in Part III of the book.

Organization in relation to behavior and classroom management will be discussed in more detail in Part IV of the book.

Organization can also refer to the interpersonal systems in classrooms and schools that define teacher and student roles and patterns of interaction. Focus on systems leads to viewing problem behavior as a reflection of dysfunctional systems (Minuchin, 1974; Molnar & Lindquist, 1989; Sarason, 1982).

Category 3: Theories of Change

Still another way to categorize approaches is in terms of **theories of change**. In this book, we will discuss six theoretical traditions in particular: **behavioral-learning**, **psychodynamic**, **cognitive-constructivist**, **ecological**, **interpersonal (family) systems**, and **organic (biological) approaches**. We focus on these six because they have figured centrally in discussions of behavior and classroom management.

Because many educators have found discussions of theories to be largely irrelevant (no doubt a result of the way theories have been presented), we will here emphasize how each theory encourages an inquiry process. That is, we will emphasize how each helps educators pose and answer meaningful questions about a student, a group of students, or some classroom or school **system**. In so doing, we hope to show the truth in an oft-quoted statement by Kurt Lewin, the great Gestalt psychologist and forerunner of today's systems theorists, "There is nothing so practical as a good theory."

For example, using a behavioral-learning theory, an educator can inquire about what stimuli and reinforcements might explain why a child continues to misbehave. Using a cognitive-constructivist theory, an educator can inquire about whether a child's level of moral development helps explain the child's uncooperative behavior. The key to using a theory as a means to inquire is to observe closely in order to obtain the information needed to answer the question posed by the theory.

Category 4: Culture

A fourth way to categorize approaches is in terms of culture. **Culture** is a concept that is difficult to define but indispensable for understanding differences in the ways groups socialize their offspring and organize themselves into functioning communities. Strictly speaking, cultural approaches are different mixes of other ways mentioned for categorizing approaches. However, there are details in any cultural approach that are often missed when one describes using categories derived elsewhere—and the details matter. For example, many cultural approaches labeled authoritarian are, on close inspection, quite different from the approaches referred to when using Baumrind's categories, as we will discuss in Chapters 3 and 9.

Review

Approaches can be categorized according to

- (1) how much and what kind of control a teacher has over students,
- (2) which core components are emphasized,
- (3) theories of change, and
- (4) culture.

There are, then, a variety of ways to categorize or type approaches: by **styles of control**, by core concepts featured, by theories of change, and by culture. However one categorizes, what remains constant is the fact that approaches differ from methods. We need to make this clear by going on to discuss methods.

REFLECT

Now that you have read this discussion on approaches and before you read about methods, take a moment to reflect upon your own “natural approach.” Think about the meanings, values, and assumptions that you bring into your work with children and adolescents. Doing so will enable you to choose from the wide array of methods of management available as well as enable you to realize your strengths and weaknesses.

METHODS

There are four points to be made about methods. First, any single method (e.g., time-out, having an adolescent provide a detailed story about what led up to a misbehavior) can fit comfortably within almost any approach, so wise educators make a point to collect a storehouse of methods—no need to rule out using a method because it fails to fit within an approach. Put another way, it is wrong to say “My approach is to use time-outs” or “I switched from a developmental to a behaviorist approach when I began to use time-outs.”

Second, the meaning of any method depends on the educator’s approach. For example, time-out may have one meaning within a behaviorist approach (as a way to stop misbehavior from being reinforced) but quite another meaning within a psychodynamic approach (as a way a child can regain composure and, when ready, reenter the group), and the differences in meaning matter.

Third, while a method can fit comfortably within almost any approach, approaches are defined, in part, by which methods are *featured*. One way to spot how an approach features certain methods is to organize methods into main types and ask which type is featured. Here, we organize methods into three main types.

Types of Methods

Type 1: Control Methods

One type functions primarily to gain direct and immediate control over children and adolescents. We will, then, refer to methods of this type as **control methods**. For children, control methods include invoking a classroom rule (e.g., “No running in the halls!”), using time-outs, providing rewards for good behavior, and implementing physical restraints. For adolescents, control methods include in-school suspensions and making the adolescent do extra work. Control methods may bring to mind only behaviorist approaches, but they figure in every approach because there are times when children and adolescents need to be directly controlled by teachers.

Type 2: Guidance Methods

Another type functions primarily to guide children and adolescents in order to support more mature behavior and long-term development. We will, then, refer to methods of this type as **guidance methods**. They include helping children and adolescents to think of alternative ways to negotiate conflict (e.g., “Can you think of something you might have done instead of grabbing John’s marker?” “Can you think of some other way of being funny than by being funny at someone else’s expense?”), holding class discussions about ways to improve the class, and directly suggesting trying out some more mature way of resolving a problem.

Type 3: Prevention Methods

A third type functions primarily to prevent problem behavior. We will, then, refer to methods of this type as **prevention methods**. Prevention methods for children include providing advance warnings that transitions are coming up (e.g., “Five minutes until clean up.”), ensuring that every child has the materials needed to carry out some project, and being careful not to ask young children to sit still for longer than they are able. For adolescents, prevention methods include making the curriculum interesting and making students feel

known and respected. One of the major findings from research on behavior and classroom management is that, regardless of approach, good teachers differ from others not so much by how they react to problem behavior as by how they prevent problem behavior (Kounin, 1970).

Table 1.2 lists the different types of methods, with a few examples.

TABLE 1.2 Categories of Methods

Type of Method	General Examples of Method	Specific Examples of Method
Control Methods	Directives (desists), rewards, time-outs	"No running in the halls!" (classroom rules)
Guidance Methods	Stimulating discussion, suggesting alternatives, negotiating conflict	"Can you think of something you might have done instead of grabbing John's marker?" (negotiating conflict)
Prevention Methods	Routines for transitions, organized lesson plans, organized schedules	"Five minutes until clean up." (warning of transitions)

Review

Methods are defined by

- (1) actions that can be observed,
- (2) their immediate goals of solving problems related to behavior and classroom management, and
- (3) their meaning and purpose derived from approaches.

How Methods Relate to Approaches

One final point about methods and how methods relate to approaches: Professionals often differ from amateurs by their being *mindful* that their methods derive from their approaches. Being mindful, they can have more control over choosing the right methods because they can keep in mind the big picture (their values and goals as well as their theory and assumptions about change)

while attending to details of the moment. They also can be in a better position to change approaches if the situation calls for change.

However, being mindful about one's approach does not mean introspecting and taking a long time to choose a method or alternative approach at those times when immediate action is needed. The cartoon below illustrates what we mean.



As with most skilled tasks, teaching requires quick thinking and action and not just being reflective.

Choosing Methods

Choosing methods takes more than being mindful of one's approach. There are other considerations as well, such as who is the child or group and what are the circumstances. This is a different way of talking about choosing methods. The usual talk implies that there is one method for every problem behavior. We hear this in questions such as “What should one do about hitting?” and “What should one do about swearing?”

However, choosing methods is almost never about **matching methods** to behaviors. Rather, it is about matching methods to children or adolescents and to circumstances. Furthermore, choosing methods is not about choosing the single, right method so much as it is about choosing a variety of methods for attacking problems at different **points of entry**. Finally, choosing methods is about **managing dilemmas**. We need, then, to make clear what we mean by matching methods to children or adolescents and to circumstances, by points of entry, and by managing dilemmas.

Matching Methods to Children or Adolescents and to Circumstances

To understand what is meant by matching methods to children or adolescents and to circumstances, consider the following example of children in different classrooms refusing to clean up.

In the first classroom, the teacher had announced suddenly, “Time to clean up!” A child in the block corner looked startled and then refused to clean up. In the second classroom, the teacher announced, “Five minutes to clean up,” and a child in the block corner looked anxiously at the fort he had built and then refused to clean up. In a third classroom, the teacher also gave a five minute warning, and a child in the block corner gave the teacher a devilish grin and then refused to clean up. (Scarlett, 1998, p. 21)

In each of these three classrooms, we see children refusing to clean up and come to circle time.

What if the teachers in each classroom matched the same method to each instance of refusing, such as providing a negative consequence or trying to help the child problem solve? Doing so may have helped one child, maybe two, but not all three because the meaning of refusing to clean up differed from one child to the next.

The first child was startled and needed a transition time, so giving him a five-minute transition time might have been the method of choice. The second child was concerned about his fort getting taken apart, so helping him save his fort by adding a “save” sign might have been what was called for. The third child was looking forward to a struggle with his teacher, so skillfully ignoring him may have been just the right method. Each of these methods is matched, then, not to the problem behavior, refusing to clean up, but to the circumstances and what refusing to clean up meant to the child.

Forrest Gathercoal (1998) gives an example of the same principle applied to adolescents: Two boys had defaced the walls of a school building. One boy willingly stayed after school to clean the wall he had defaced because he understood and agreed with the logic of the consequence. The other boy objected to

this proposed consequence, saying it was the janitor's job, not his. By objecting, he indicated he had an underlying problem with authority in general and so required more time and counseling to understand his problem and to begin to see teachers in a more positive light.

As these examples indicate, matching methods also has to do with matching methods to children's or adolescents' level of maturity. As a linguistic method, saying "You need to boss your body" when young children are "out of control" works well with preschoolers but would likely invite pandemonium if used with young adolescents.

Points of Entry

Choosing the right method also depends on how complex and serious a problem is. If the problem is simple and not serious, a single method aimed at controlling



Most problems can be addressed using multiple methods applied to multiple points of entry.

a child or group might suffice, such as when a teacher remains silent until a group of fourth graders quiets down so the teacher can speak and be heard. However, if the problem is complex and serious, educators must think in terms of multiple methods applied simultaneously. Furthermore, multiple methods often need to be applied at different points of entry, as the following cartoon indicates.

Points of entry refer, then, to the different ways we can attack problems; some ways are directed at making short-term improvements, and other ways are directed toward the long term. For example, if an eighth grader is disrupting the class by continually playing the role of class clown, he may win laughs from his classmates, but he may not win their respect, and his antics probably undermine his relationships with teachers and diminish his academic potential. In this situation, a teacher may have to choose methods to respond directly to the misbehavior—to improve the short term—but other methods are likely to be needed as well, with each directed at different points of entry, such as at improving the boy’s relationships with classmates as well as helping motivate the boy to focus on academics.

Points of entry also refer to how we can simultaneously employ methods designed to prevent problems, guide children or adolescents, and control problem behaviors when they occur, which brings us to the last point about choosing methods: managing dilemmas.

Managing Dilemmas

One of the many subtle characteristics distinguishing master teachers from those who are not so masterful is that master teachers always feel caught in dilemmas. Others may think that there are simple and clear-cut solutions to almost any problem, but master teachers know that the best they can do is to manage dilemmas, two in particular.

The first dilemma is between meeting short-term needs for order and safety and long-term needs for positive development. What is good for meeting short-term needs for order and safety is not always good for long-term positive development (and vice versa). For example, it may calm a particularly disruptive child to send the child to time-out after the child misbehaves, but continually doing so may have harmful long-term effects, perhaps by limiting the child’s opportunities to learn alternative ways of behaving or perhaps by creating a bad-child image in the classroom community, or maybe both.

The second dilemma is between meeting the needs of the individual and meeting the needs of the group. What is good for the individual is not always good for the group (and vice versa). The previous example illustrates this dilemma as well because sending a child to time-out often restores order in the group and classroom, but it does not necessarily serve the needs of the individual child being sent to time-out. Another common dilemma occurs when a particular

child receives continuous and special attention so that the child stays on task, but as a result, the group suffers.

In managing these two dilemmas, most educators intuitively follow what Fritz Redl (1966) called “the law of antiseptis.” This is the guideline stating that whatever one does to address one side of a dilemma cannot be harmful (must be antiseptic) with respect to the other side. An additional aim of this book is to show how educators can follow Redl’s guideline to effectively manage these dilemmas.

Review

What to consider when choosing a method to manage misbehavior:

- (1) The student(s) and circumstances
- (2) The most relevant points of entry
- (3) The management of dilemmas

Summary

In summary, approaches to behavior and classroom management are central in this book, so the focus is on explaining the differences between approaches and methods and between approaches themselves. Approaches may be distinguished by what they feature, especially by whether they feature relationship building, learning, development, organization, or accommodating diversity.

The hope here is that by understanding approaches and methods for behavior and classroom management, the reader will be in a better position to understand how best to help children and adolescents thrive in classrooms as well as thrive in the future. Here, too, we hope that regardless of approach, all will show care; not depend heavily on rewards and punishments; accommodate diversity having to do with age, culture, and ability; and while maintaining discipline, promote positive long-term development (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006).

The subject of behavior and classroom management is especially significant today. Before the advent of public schooling in America, education meant something quite different from schooling (Cremin, 1965, 1976). To become educated meant acquiring skills and knowledge learned on the farm, in apprenticeships, in religious communities, from reading newspapers, and from engaging in discussions around potbellied stoves. In previous eras, then, there was no great need to give much thought to classroom management because so many children and adolescents were educated outside schools.

Today, however, the opposite is the case. Today, the burden on schools is not only to teach children and adolescents academic skills and subjects but also to promote positive

social and emotional development and, in many cases, to address serious problems in the larger society, particularly the problems of racial and cultural prejudice, poverty, and unfair treatment of those with disabilities. As a result, the strain on schools, classrooms, and teachers is great; in some cases, it is so great that teachers find it difficult to function. To meet the many demands being placed on schools and teachers, it is imperative that we develop and implement good approaches to behavior and classroom management.

Web-Based Student Study Site

The companion Web site for *Approaches to Behavior and Classroom Management* can be found at www.sagepub.com/scarlettstudy.

Visit the Web-based student study site to enhance your understanding of the chapter content. The study materials include practice tests, flashcards, suggested readings, and Web resources.

Key Concepts

Accommodating diversity	Interpersonal (family) systems	Psychodynamic
Approaches	Just and caring	Reframing
Behavioral-learning	Learning	Relationship building
Cognitive-constructivist	Managing dilemmas	Styles of control
Control methods	Matching methods	Supporting development
Counseling approaches	Methods	System
Culture	Organic (biological) approaches	Systems approaches
Development	Organization	Teaching for learning
Developmental tasks	Points of entry	Theories of change
Ecological	Prevention methods	Types of authority
Guidance methods		Values
		Value hierarchies

Discussion Questions

1. If you did not do so at the end of the discussion on ways to categorize approaches, take a moment to reflect upon your own “natural approach.” Think about the meanings, values, and assumptions that you bring to your work with children and adolescents. How does your natural approach affect how you are responsible for keeping children and adolescents safe, civil, and on task? Where does your natural approach fit within the various categories discussed in this chapter, particularly categories referring to style of control, core concepts featured, and methods featured?
2. Think of a time you used a control method, a guidance method, and a prevention method. In using these three methods, were you matching them to the child/adolescent/group and circumstances, or were you simply using the methods you use with any child/adolescent/group and circumstance?
3. Think of a time when you were faced with having to manage the behavior of a particularly challenging child/adolescent or group. Did you manage by using a variety of “points of entry” or one point of entry only? Were there additional points of entry that you might well have used?
4. Think of a time when you consciously or semiconsciously felt caught in a dilemma when having to manage a child/adolescent or group of children/adolescents. Was the dilemma between managing for the short term versus the long term, between managing to benefit an individual versus a group, or between managing for what was best for a child/adolescent versus for you or other adults? How did you manage this dilemma? If you weren’t aware at the time of there being a dilemma, looking back, can you see any dilemmas that you unwittingly managed well or that you failed to manage well?

1. This example is taken from the first author’s experience as a supervisor of student teachers.