



Western Michigan University
ScholarWorks at WMU

Dissertations

Graduate College

6-1991

A Classroom Meeting Model for Teacher Use in Classroom Management

Gerald L. LeCureux
Western Michigan University

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarworks.wmich.edu/dissertations>



Part of the Educational Assessment, Evaluation, and Research Commons

Recommended Citation

LeCureux, Gerald L., "A Classroom Meeting Model for Teacher Use in Classroom Management" (1991).
Dissertations. 2000.

<https://scholarworks.wmich.edu/dissertations/2000>

This Dissertation-Open Access is brought to you for free and open access by the Graduate College at ScholarWorks at WMU. It has been accepted for inclusion in Dissertations by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks at WMU. For more information, please contact wmu-scholarworks@wmich.edu.



A CLASSROOM MEETING MODEL FOR TEACHER USE
IN CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

by

Gerald L. LeCureux

A Dissertation
Submitted to the
Faculty of The Graduate College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the
Degree of Doctor of Education
Department of Educational Leadership

Western Michigan University
Kalamazoo, Michigan
June 1991

INFORMATION TO USERS

This manuscript has been reproduced from the microfilm master. UMI films the text directly from the original or copy submitted. Thus, some thesis and dissertation copies are in typewriter face, while others may be from any type of computer printer.

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleedthrough, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send UMI a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

Oversize materials (e.g., maps, drawings, charts) are reproduced by sectioning the original, beginning at the upper left-hand corner and continuing from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps. Each original is also photographed in one exposure and is included in reduced form at the back of the book.

Photographs included in the original manuscript have been reproduced xerographically in this copy. Higher quality 6" x 9" black and white photographic prints are available for any photographs or illustrations appearing in this copy for an additional charge. Contact UMI directly to order.

U·M·I

University Microfilms International
A Bell & Howell Information Company
300 North Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346 USA
313/761-4700 800-521-0600

Order Number 9131138

**A classroom meeting model for teacher use in classroom
management**

LeCureux, Gerald Lee, Ed.D.

Western Michigan University, 1991

Copyright ©1991 by LeCureux, Gerald Lee. All rights reserved.

U·M·I
300 N. Zeeb Rd.
Ann Arbor, MI 48106

Copyright by
Gerald L. LeCureux
1991

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I wish to thank the following people who helped with the completion of my dissertation:

Dr. Edgar Kelley, who finally got me on the right track and for whom I wish a speedy recovery from his unexpected illness;

Dr. Kenneth Dickie, who sacrificed his time to become my committee chairperson upon the unexpected illness of Dr. Kelley;

Dr. Robert Brashear, committee member;

Dr. Charles Warfield, committee member;

Dr. William Glasser, whose theory inspired me;

Dr. Gregory Knoblock, who helped me with statistics;

Ms. Lee Pakko, typist;

My wife, Gloria, and daughters, Beth and Tricia, who patiently put up with my pursuance of this degree.

Gerald L. LeCureux

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	ii
LIST OF TABLES	vii
LIST OF FIGURES	viii
CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
The Problem	1
Development of the Classroom Meeting Model	4
The Classroom Meeting Model	4
Validity of the Model	6
Organizational Plan	7
Field Test	7
Procedure	8
Collection of Data	8
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	10
Belief 1: Classroom Procedures Help Determine Student Behavior	11
Belief 2: Students Should Be Involved in Rule and Consequence Determination	13
Belief 3: Emphasis Should Be Placed on the Relationship Between the Teacher and Students	16
Belief 4: Emphasis Should Be Placed on the Wants and Needs of Students	19
Belief 5: Consequences Are Important in Behavior Management	23
Belief 6: Effective Instruction Is a Deterrent to Poor Behavior	26

Table of Contents--Continued

CHAPTER		
	Comparison of Models	29
	Classroom Meetings	30
III.	A CLASSROOM MEETING MODEL	35
	Definition of Terms	36
	Classroom Meeting Model	39
	Organizational Plan for Implementing the Classroom Meeting Model	46
IV.	FIELD TEST OF THE CLASSROOM MEETING MODEL	49
	Test Group A	49
	Test Group B	50
	Instructors of Test Groups	51
	Procedures	52
	An Emphasis Should Be Placed Upon Teacher/ Student Relationships	53
	Students Should Be Involved in Rule and Consequence Determination	53
	An Emphasis Should Be Placed Upon Students' Needs and Wants	54
	Participation and Achievement	55
	The Model as a Predictor of Achievement and Attendance	56
	Evaluation of Meetings and Instruction	56
	Test Hypotheses	57
	Selection of Statistical Analysis	60
V.	DATA COLLECTION	62
	Organizational Plan	63

Table of Contents--Continued

CHAPTER		
	Field Test	63
	Hypotheses	63
	Collection of Data	64
	Assumptions and Limitations	73
VI.	SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS	80
	The Problem	80
	The Review of Literature	81
	The Model	81
	Lesson Plan	82
	Test	82
	Evaluation of the Model and Meetings	83
	Conclusions	84
	Classroom Meeting Model	85
	Recommendations Based Upon the Field Test	86
	The Model's Influence Upon Achievement and Attendance	89
	Recommendations	90
	Recommendations for Using the Model	92
APPENDICES	96
A.	Suggested Organizational Plan	97
B.	Classroom Meeting Survey	101
C.	Interviewer's Script	104
D.	Permission Slip With Cover Letter for Parents	106
E.	Permission Slip With Cover Letter for Students	109

Table of Contents--Continued

F. Review Panel for Validation of Model	112
G. Student Evaluations of Meetings	114
H. Approval Letter From Human Subjects Institutional Review Board	117
BIBLIOGRAPHY	119

LIST OF TABLES

1. Comparison of Classroom Management Beliefs Commonly Supported in the Literature With the Emphasis Placed Upon Each by Four Authors and Their Disciplinary Models	3
2. Three Methods of Resolving Conflicts (TET)	21
3. Sample Organizational Plan for Classroom Meeting Model--90-Day Semester	48
4. Two-Tailed t Test for Significant Mean Difference Between Research and Control Groups A by Probability (Ninth Grade)	66
5. Two-Tailed t Test for Significant Differences Between Research and Control Groups B by Probability (Seventh Grade)	70
6. Correlations Between Survey Variables and Achievement and Attendance	74

LIST OF FIGURES

1. Classroom Meeting Model	5
2. Ownership of Problem in TET	28

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to develop, validate, and field test a classroom meeting model to aid in classroom management. Classroom management is defined as maintaining a classroom environment which fosters a good relationship between all participants, produces rules and consequences which are agreed upon by a majority of participants, encourages the child's understanding of his needs and respect for the needs of others, and most importantly, where students are participating and achieving.

The Problem

The Gallup Poll of 1988 cites the lack of discipline second behind drug usage as a major concern for public schools. The most common classroom discipline problems are nonviolent, petty disruptions (Bielefeldt, 1988). Eighty percent of all disruptions are only students talking to students (Jones, 1979). A common problem is lack of relationship and a sense of identity between teachers and students (Kelley, 1978). Added to this is a premise that children behave in line with adult expectations (Dreikurs, 1968). Teachers and pupils justify their own behavior by referring to the behavior of the other (Creton, Wubbels, & Hooymayeis, 1989). Glasser (1989) maintained that classroom managers should speak to quality

need-satisfying education, not discipline.

Recent research has shown that the climate of a classroom is important. Such a climate emphasizes the importance of integrating student ideas (Rich, 1988). The "warmness" of the teacher helps set the tone for learning (Bloom, 1980; Stefanich & Bell, 1985). Invisible power where student needs are addressed is added by Gordon (1974). Encouragement by classmates helps facilitate this climate (Dreikurs, 1968). Bloom (1980) spoke of this setting as a classroom culture.

In this study a model is developed which addresses more than discipline. An emphasis is placed upon relationships, student involvement in rule setting, human needs, and effective problem solving, all of which are part of classroom culture and climate.

In Chapter II, the literature is reviewed. Six common beliefs are found concerning management of a classroom. These are:

1. Classroom procedures help to determine student behavior.
2. Students should be involved in rule and consequence determination.
3. Emphasis should be placed on the relationship between the teacher and students.
4. Emphasis should be placed on the wants and needs of students.
5. Consequences are important in behavior management.
6. Effective instruction is a deterrent to poor behavior.

A comparison chart (Table 1) is constructed showing the six common beliefs. These are emphasized in four popular management

Table 1

Comparison of Classroom Management Beliefs Commonly Supported
in the Literature With the Emphasis Placed Upon Each
by Four Authors and Their Disciplinary Models

	Teacher Effectiveness Training (Gordon)	Assertive Discipline (Canter & Canter)	Social Discipline (Dreikurs)	Reality Therapy and Control Theory (Glasser)
1. Classroom procedures help determine student behavior	Important	Essential	Important	Important
2. Students should be involved in rule and consequence determination	Essential	Not discussed	Essential	Essential
3. An emphasis should be placed upon teacher-student rela- tionships	Essential	Not discussed	Essential	Essential
4. An emphasis should be placed upon students' needs and wants	Important	Prohibited	Essential	Essential
5. Consequences are important in behavior control	Not discussed	Essential	Important	Important
6. Effective instruction is a deterrent to poor behavior	Not discussed	Not discussed	Important	Not discussed

models: (1) Teacher Effectiveness Training (Gordon, 1974), (2) Assertive Discipline (Canter & Canter, 1976), (3) Social Discipline (Dreikurs, 1968), and (4) Reality Therapy and Control Theory (Glasser, 1965, 1989).

Development of the Classroom Meeting Model

In Chapter II six common beliefs and four management models from Table 1 are compared. Student responsibility is stated or implied in three of the six beliefs. These are:

1. An emphasis should be placed upon teacher-student relationships.
2. Students should be involved in rule and consequence determination.
3. An emphasis should be placed upon students' needs and wants.

Support is given to these beliefs in all of the models except Assertive Discipline (Canter & Canter, 1976). The following Classroom Meeting Model is designed considering these three beliefs. Three purposes frequently appear for classroom meetings: (1) to set rules and consequences, (2) to problem solve, and (3) to build relationships and satisfy needs. A specific problem-solving procedure (Ford, 1984; Gordon, 1974) is used in this model.

The Classroom Meeting Model

In Chapter III, the Classroom Meeting Model is designed as an equilateral triangle (Figure 1). The three meeting types are

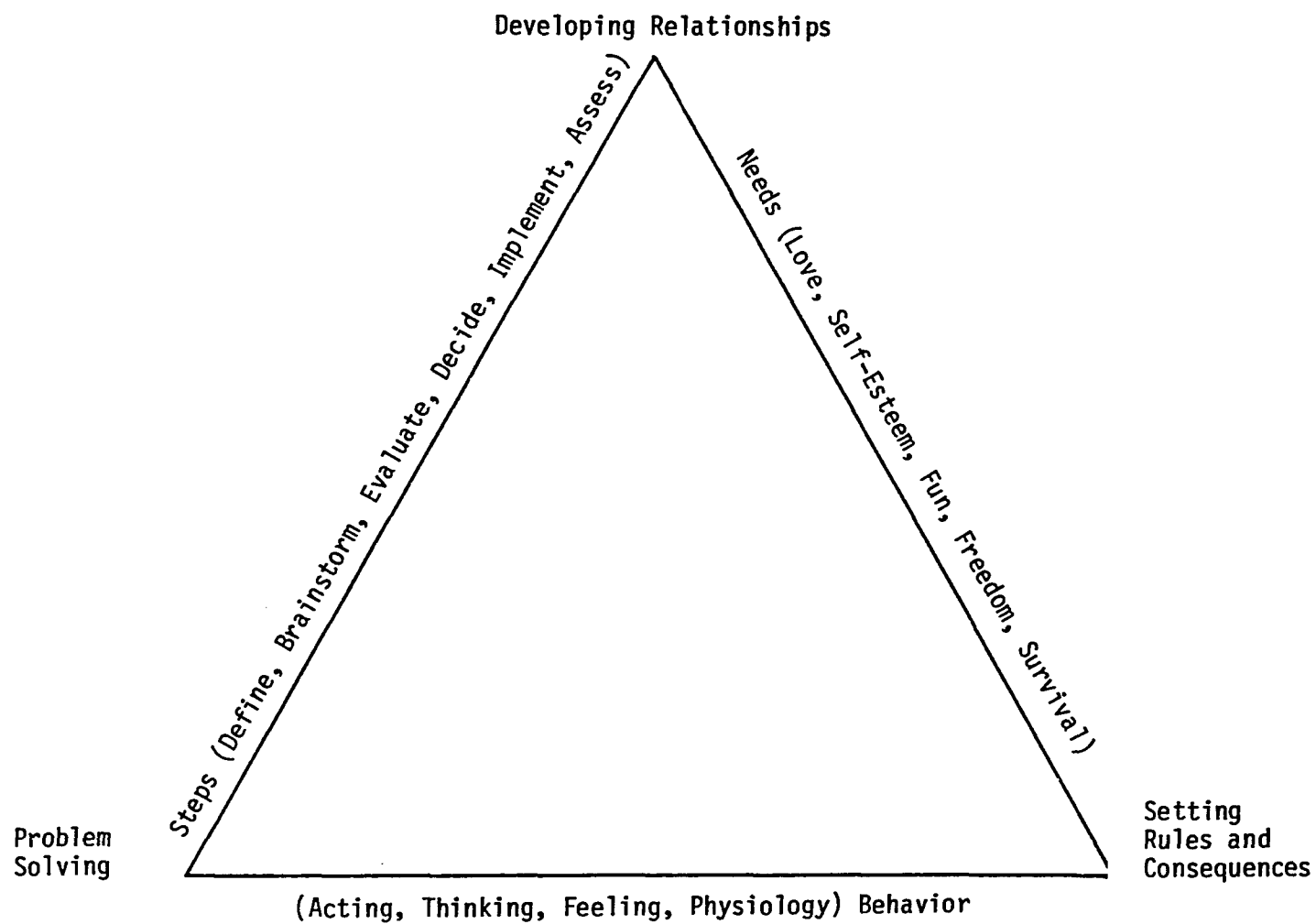


Figure 1. Classroom Meeting Model.

located at the angles. Following clockwise around the triangle each line represents elements which support the preceding meeting type. An understanding of these elements is paramount to the effectiveness of the corresponding meeting. For effective relationship development an understanding of each other's needs is important (Gordon, 1974). In this model the basic needs as presented by Glasser (1965), love, self-esteem, fun, freedom, and survival, are emphasized. In setting rules and consequences, total student behavior is considered. Total behavior includes: acting, thinking, feeling, and physiology (Glasser, 1986). The third meeting type, problem solving, is included to support the other two and held frequently as problems arise (Dreikurs, 1968). The six steps which follow are suggested by Gordon (1974) and supported by Ford (1984). These include: defining, brainstorming, evaluating, deciding, implementing, and assessing.

Specific terms are defined in Chapter III to facilitate a common language. Reality Therapy and Control Theory (Glasser, 1965, 1989) are referred to in support of the basic needs component as well as in the definition of behavior. "Natural consequences" are also accepted from Reality Therapy. Consequences as defined in Assertive Discipline (Canter & Canter, 1976) and punishment are not recommended in this model for classroom management.

Validity of the Model

The support found in the related literature is used as a validation procedure for the model. Also, professional validation was

completed. A panel of educators was asked to review the Classroom Meeting Model. Only internal content validity is defended.

Organizational Plan

Although many teachers plan for instructional activities, planning the management of a classroom is not as common (Kelley, 1978). For this model, an organizational plan is developed. The detailed plan is located in Appendix A and condensed in Chapter III. This plan is designed to be used for one semester, which is the duration of the field test.

Field Test

Two classrooms were selected to test the Classroom Meeting Model. A junior high school, in a metropolitan area with a population in excess of one million, was selected. The duration was for one semester which is 90 days. Test Group A was a ninth grade basic law class. A corresponding control group was selected. Stratified random sampling was used for selection of the control group to account for reading abilities and proportions of special education students in the test group. Test Group B was a seventh grade science class. Again, a corresponding stratified random control group was selected to account for reading ability and proportion of special education students. Test Group A was a newly formed class, while Test Group B had been meeting for one semester. Both teachers volunteered to participate. Neither the students in the test groups nor in the control groups knew they were participating.

Procedure

Teachers who participated met for 3 hours with the researcher. Instructions were given in using the model. Also, Reality Therapy and Control Theory were reviewed. The test began on the first day of the second semester and concluded with the last day. A total of 9.5 hours of classroom meeting time and instruction in basic needs, behavior, and problem solving was used by each test group. The meeting and instructional sessions of the model were to be evaluated by the students, so that the researcher could be reasonably sure the model was being followed.

Collection of Data

Seventeen test questions and subsequent test hypotheses are developed in Chapter IV. These concern relationships between students as well as between students and teachers, fairness of the classroom rules, orderliness of the classroom, whether needs of fun and freedom were being met, and whether students were participating, achieving, and attending.

A student survey was designed for data collection. This was validated by a panel of professionals. Telephone interviewing was selected as the means of collecting data. An assumption was made that validity would be greater using this technique as compared to a written survey. Achievement was measured using an average of the two 10-week marking period grades for the seventh grade groups and a final semester grade for the ninth grade groups.

Certain assumptions and limitations are understood in the model design and test. Internal validity is assumed adequate in both the model and the survey. External validity is not. The importance of relationship, student involvement in rule determination, and problem solving is supported. A relationship between these is only assumed. Test groups were selected partially for convenience and the teachers' willingness to cooperate. Both teachers had a reputation among their peers as good managers. The model is recommended for further testing with poor or dysfunctional classroom managers.

Some danger is inherent in the telephone interview technique used for data collection. Interview bias and reactive measures by interviewers and interviewees are possible. An assumption was made that students would naturally respond somewhat positively to interview questions.

In Chapter V, a statistical interpretation of the data is completed. Chapter VI contains the recommendations for use of the data and statistical analysis.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this study was to develop, validate, and field test a classroom meeting model to aid in classroom management. In this chapter literature is reviewed pertaining to classroom management. Four classroom management models are discussed as they relate to six common beliefs found in reviewed literature. In Chapter I these relationships are shown in Table 1. The chapter is divided by the six beliefs. The four models are discussed under each belief. The chapter concludes with a discussion of classroom meetings.

Six common beliefs found in literature are:

1. Classroom procedures help determine student behavior.
2. Students should be involved in rule and consequence determination.
3. Emphasis should be placed on the relationship between the teacher and students.
4. Emphasis should be placed on the wants and needs of students.
5. Consequences are important in behavior management.
6. Effective instruction is a deterrent to poor behavior.

Four authors discussed in comparison to these beliefs are: (1) Gordon (1974, Teacher Effectiveness Training), (2) Canter and Canter (1976, Assertive Discipline), (3) Dreikurs (1968, Social

Discipline), and (4) Glasser (1965, 1989, Reality Therapy and Control Theory).

Belief 1: Classroom Procedures Help
Determine Student Behavior

Classroom management is preparational and pedagogical, while discipline is a natural result of such procedure. Management ability is prerequisite to being an effective teacher (Brophy, 1983).

Rule setting as the basis of classroom procedure is supported in the literature. Authors have recommended establishing rules early in the school year (Bielefeldt, 1988; Brophy, 1983; Evertson, Emmer, Sanford, & Clements, 1983; Yorke, 1988). Student participation in rule making is emphasized by Bielefeldt (1988). Developing only a few rules for management is added by Bloom (1980).

The application of rules is as important as setting them. Emphasis should be placed on consistent monitoring and communication of rules (Spettel, 1983). In addition, communication between parents and teachers is recommended (Kelley, 1977). Quick responses to students, the ignoring of minor inattention, teaching the rules, and consistent monitoring are advocated by Brophy (1983).

While setting rules is important, other factors may contribute to classroom management. These include timing, preparation, friendly confrontation, and teacher positioning (Bielefeldt, 1988; Brophy, 1983). The four authors in Table 1 support the importance of, but do not necessarily agree on, what constitutes effective classroom procedure.

Teacher Effectiveness Training (TET)

A conducive classroom environment, including simple rules and procedures posted within the classroom, is advocated in TET. However, teachers should be tolerant of a variety of student behaviors in order for learning and teaching time to be sufficient (Gordon, 1974).

Assertive Discipline (AD)

AD was developed with classroom procedure as a nucleus. Using this model a teacher assertively expresses his own needs and wants to the class. He then determines what is acceptable behavior. The student is rewarded or punished according to his behavior. Firm limits are set in the process. Administration, as well as parents, are expected to reinforce these. Rules and limits are planned by the teacher and communicated on the first day of school. Student participation is not, however, advocated (Canter & Canter, 1976).

Social Discipline (SD)

The teacher, using SD, is a responsible guide who plans his lessons, is warm and friendly, and displays a sense of humor. He shows impartiality and distinguishes between the behavior and the student who is behaving. Procedure is emphasized and is determined with involvement of the students. Involvement enhances relationship and is important to Social Discipline (Dreikurs, 1968).

Reality Therapy and Control Theory (RT and CT)

RT was developed as an alternative to psychoanalytical methods. A conclusion was reached that these methods placed responsibility for behavior upon external forces. In RT responsibility is placed upon the individual (Glasser, 1965). Control Theory was developed later to explain human behavior (Glasser, 1984). Each student chooses his own behavior, according to CT and behavior is made up of four parts: activity, thinking, feeling, and physiology. By using a method such as Assertive Discipline, a teacher can control activity but not the other three components of behavior. This total behavior should be addressed by the teacher in helping the students satisfy their needs and wants. School officials do not need to be overly concerned with discipline problems if teachers use effective procedures and address student needs adhering to CT (Glasser, 1989).

Belief 2: Students Should Be Involved in Rule and Consequence Determination

Teachers may want their students to help produce five or six rules. Acceptable and unacceptable behavior can be discussed along with these rules. Appropriate consequences may be discussed as a group for unacceptable behavior. Class discussions may also be appropriate concerning the limitations of individual and class rights. Class discussions on the teacher's style and pace may also be appropriate (Reis, 1988). Sharing of goals and agreement between students and the teacher on disciplinary policies and practices may help promote orderly behavior (Ford, 1984). Also, teacher and

student formulation of rules can aid in promoting a peer culture in the classroom. A social and instructional climate may be set by this relationship between students and teachers (Kelley, 1978). Avoiding harsh punishment, educators seem to be relying more on humanitarianism and democracy in the nurturing of children. An environment, which is student centered, incorporating problem-solving activities which promote self-esteem and belonging, aids in reducing poor behavior more than punishment (Rich, 1988).

Teacher Effectiveness Training (TET)

Teacher and student participation in rule making is an essential component of TET. Teachers relinquish power and a language of "nonpower" is substituted. All parties join together to search for solutions to mutual problems. Power becomes relatively equal in the process. Ownership of a problem becomes critical and may interfere in the relationship. Students are given the power to solve problems, keeping in mind their needs and those of others (Gordon, 1974).

Assertive Discipline (AD)

Unlike Teacher Effectiveness Training, student participation as a component in rule making is not included in AD. Instead, a "broken record" routine is advocated. Here the teacher repeats his wants until the child understands. The teacher is responsible for setting rules. These rules are not debatable by the students. The teacher determines consequences for rule violations and rewards for

good behavior (Canter & Canter, 1976). Canter and Canter did argue, however, that students participate in choosing their behavior, even if the teacher determines what is right and wrong.

Social Discipline (SD)

Social disciplinarians believe students and their teacher should work together to resolve problems. One child's problem is a class's problem, according to this model, and class discussions are extremely important. Five possibilities for these discussions are: (1) good things that happened during the week, (2) ways to improve the climate of the classroom, (3) individual problems, (4) individual responsibilities, and (5) individual future plans. Children should be treated as responsible, worthwhile citizens, capable of sharing in classroom decisions, according to Dreikurs (1968).

Reality Therapy and Control Theory (RT and CT)

In RT, involvement is a prerequisite to fulfillment of needs by students. This involvement should be with responsible adults or peers. An individual fulfilling his needs should not deprive others of the chance to fulfill theirs. Individual needs are shared in classroom discussions where informal and friendly communication takes place. Students share their ideas concerning classroom procedures in these meetings and behavior is discussed as being total, including: acting, thinking, feeling, and physiology (Glasser, 1986). Glasser (1989) proposed that a "quality world" is desired by

all individuals; this quality world is the way each individual sees his needs being met.

Belief 3: Emphasis Should Be Placed on the Relationship
Between the Teacher and Students

Relationships may develop between teachers and students in positive and negative ways. Aggressive behavior by teachers can produce aggressiveness in students. Both may justify their behavior by referring to the behavior of the other. Conversely, relationships may strengthen teachers and students when a friendly atmosphere is created. This is accomplished by the teacher as he becomes familiar with his students in and out of the classroom. Constructive challenging of poor behavior can be accomplished by the teacher when he addresses the student by his name while discussing a problem (Creton et al., 1989).

A teacher should be warm and hold a positive regard for his students. Relationship and classroom procedures, including such elements as humor and closeness of the teacher to his students, are important (Bloom, 1980; Stefanich & Bell, 1985). Teachers should show respect for their students and not use humiliation which may be irreversible and harmful to relationship building. "Of all principles . . . , relationships . . . should receive the greatest research in the near future" (Bielefeldt, 1988, p. 9).

Teacher Effectiveness Training (TET)

The TET model shows a correlation between relationship and effectiveness. Relationship is primarily achieved through communication between the teacher and his students. Furthermore, the needs of students and teachers should be mutually respected. Both should strive to be good listeners in the process. This relationship is the same regardless of the age of the students. In TET good relationships are identified in five ways: (1) They are open or transparent, (2) there is mutual caring, (3) there is interdependence, (4) there remains a separateness, and (5) each other's needs are met.

Honest relationships are emphasized in TET but teachers and students may react differently at one time or another because of this honesty. Also, teachers may be more accepting of some students than they are of others. Relationships may result in conflict but such conflict may be strengthening. Power becomes invisible and irrelevant in the process and each is to keep in mind the needs of the other (Gordon, 1974).

Assertive Discipline (AD)

Relationship between teachers and students is not an important postulate of AD. Hostility is discouraged but a teacher asserts himself towards his pupils. Appropriate behavior is recognized but the teacher is to control behavior. Rewards and punishments are at his discretion. The teacher is instructed to "maximize the

potential" of students in developing a "positive relationship" with them. However, the fulfillment of the teacher's needs precede and determine the needs of children (Canter & Canter, 1976).

Social Discipline (SD)

In SD less emphasis is placed on teacher needs and more on the needs of students. Children set goals which are related to their needs. Teachers will know the goals of students by their own feelings if they have a good relationship with them. If the teacher feels annoyed, attention may be the student's goal. Hurt feelings may indicate revenge on the part of the child. Positive confrontation is encouraged to help the teacher understand the students' goals and clarify his own feelings. This is accomplished with friendly relationships between the teacher and his students.

Stimulus response methods for management are rejected in Social Discipline. Instead, structured classroom discussions are promoted. These discussions are inclusive of all students with five possible topics: (1) good things which have happened, (2) ways to improve the class, (3) personal problems, (4) personal responsibilities, and (5) future individual and class plans. These discussions may occur weekly and last approximately 30 minutes each. Each child's problems belong to the class and are subject to discussion. Encouragement by classmates is essential and part of the total relationship in and out of group discussion (Dreikurs, 1968).

Reality Therapy and Control Theory (RT and CT)

Two elements of Social Discipline are supported in Reality Therapy as pertaining to relationship. First, stimulus response psychology does not promote relationship. Second, democracy is an important component. According to RT, relationship is best gained within the format of classroom meetings where involvement is encouraged (Glasser, 1986). In his early work with incarcerated teenagers, Glasser (1965) discovered that the most difficult but important phase of therapy was becoming involved with the patient. In addition to involvement and relationship, classroom meetings can promote free discussion and the informal and friendly atmosphere may aid the expression of ideas. In classroom meetings five basic needs may be addressed: (1) love, (2) power, (3) fun, (4) freedom, and (5) survival (Glasser, 1989).

Belief 4: Emphasis Should Be Placed on the Wants and Needs of Students

The importance of addressing the needs and wants of students is supported in literature. The teacher should learn the needs of students and look for the right way to handle each situation. Effective teachers are constantly searching for the needs which should be met, and the need for attention seems to be the greatest (Spetel, 1983). Success and recognition are also suggested as vital student needs. Disciplinary problems may result if most student needs are not met in the learning process (Brookover, 1982). Four needs are listed in the Creative Effective Discipline (CREED) model.

These are: (1) the need for attention, (2) the need for power, (3) the need for revenge, and (4) the need to succeed. Effective classroom managers should understand these needs and their importance in classroom management as well as achievement (Bloom, 1980).

Teacher Effectiveness Training (TET)

A postulate of TET is that conflicts arise when student needs are great but not addressed (see Table 2). Acquisition of power, as explained in Method III of TET, is the greatest need of students. Teacher's needs are not ignored in TET, where it is established that conflicts occur when student or teacher needs are not met. Models which are more authoritarian or permissive may create conflict. Authoritarianism addresses teacher needs only. Permissiveness addresses only those of students. In Method III, discussion between teachers and students, as to what each wants from a relationship, are encouraged (Gordon, 1974).

Assertive Discipline (AD)

Student needs, as explained with AD, are exaggerated in most schools. The rights of students are discussed and teachers are cautioned not to interfere with these. Teachers are warned, however, that students will manipulate them in the process of defending their rights. This disciplinary model raises teachers' needs above those of students. Negative consequences are important for those who interfere and positive consequences for those who help satisfy these needs. A teacher is "wishy washy" if he is nonassertive in

Table 2
Three Methods of Resolving Conflicts (TET)

Method I Authoritarian	Method II Permissive	Method III No Lose
Produces resentment	Produces resentment	Mutual search for solutions
Reduces motivation	Fosters selfishness	Power is equal
Requires heavy enforcement	Reduces productivity	Conflicts are relationship strengthening
Inhibits self-responsibility	Minimize respect for teacher	Power is irrelevant
Fosters compliance	Winner (student)	
Inhibits creativity	Resorts to power	
Reduces productivity		
Winner (teacher) must resort to power		

affirming his own needs. However, hostility and abuse, physical or verbal, in assertion is discouraged. Specific student behaviors that are needed by teachers are: (a) following directions; (b) completing assignments; (c) staying in the classroom unless permission is granted to leave; (d) working independently; and (e) keeping hands, feet, and objects to oneself. A "broken record" routine is emphasized to help teachers attain their needs and wants. This routine calls for the repetition of wants by the teacher until the child either conforms and is rewarded or is given negative consequences for not complying (Canter & Canter, 1976).

Social Discipline (SD)

Four needs that are established in Social Discipline and shared by students are: (1) to get attention, (2) to achieve power, (3) to seek revenge, and (4) to feel adequate. Students will attempt to satisfy these needs in some manner. Inability to satisfy needs results in misbehavior. Teachers can help students meet their needs by (a) giving attention and encouragement when children do not seek it, (b) appealing to children for advice and help, (c) conducting group discussions, and (d) making the child feel worthwhile. The needs of teachers are not discussed in SD. Dreikurs (1968) stated that the teacher is the "responsible guide" to his students.

Reality Therapy and Control Theory (RT and CT)

Control Theory, developed to explain Reality Therapy, has at its nucleus the basic needs of human beings. Students enter school with a "quality world" in mind. This quality world is "all (they) want" and is based upon five basic needs: (1) to love and be loved, (2) to have fun and enjoyment, (3) to feel worthwhile and have power, (4) to have freedom, and (5) to survive. A child behaves to satisfy his needs. This behavior consists of four parts, doing, thinking, feeling, and related physiology. Teachers are satisfiers of needs, not disciplinarians. If a child's needs are satisfied, as he sees them in his quality world, he will act, think, and feel positively. Even his physiology may improve (Glasser, 1989).

**Belief 5: Consequences Are Important
in Behavior Management**

A consequence is "the result of one's actions" (Webster's New World Dictionary, 1958, p. 119). Few rules and consequences may be needed in a classroom and student input may be necessary in setting rules. Consequences may be given for acceptable behavior as well as that which is unacceptable. Contingency contracts can be developed with students that include these consequences (Reis, 1988). "Adaptive discipline," where teachers and students develop contracts containing one or two specific behaviors, are suggested. These contracts contain both positive and negative consequences. Caution might be taken, however, against using punishments or teacher inflicted consequences. Over rewarding for good behavior may be detrimental as well. A reward based program establishes a system of payoff (Stefanich & Bell, 1985). Teachers may need to enforce routine disciplinary procedures, rather than administrators. This may reduce suspensions as well as other office disciplinary steps (Short, 1988). Stefanich and Bell (1985) agreed and recommended "private reprimands" rather than admonishment in front of the students' peers. Consequences also may be part of a teachers' instructional procedure. Poor behavior may be controlled by (a) teachers' looks and gestures, (b) teacher facing child squarely, (c) teacher moving toward misbehaving child, (d) body language of the teacher, and (e) use of time-out in an isolated area of the room. Good behavior can be rewarded, using similar stimulus response psychology, by time in a preferred activity area (Jones, 1979).

Teacher Effectiveness Training (TET)

In TET stimulus response methods are criticized as being overly used by teachers. The stimulus response "hoop-jump-biscuit game" is referred to. Teachers hold up a hoop, the students jump, and if they make it they get a "doggy biscuit." Threats and punishments may be used too often also. Rewards and punishments require power positions, while nonpower is stressed in TET. Here, conflicts are used to strengthen relationships in the Method III TET disciplinary model. Consequences are not openly discussed. Emphasis is on relationship building instead (Gordon, 1974).

Assertive Discipline (AD)

Assertive Discipline is partially based on the imposition of consequences by the teacher. The teacher expresses his needs to the students and their compliance elicits a reward. Noncompliance requires punishment. Both are considered consequences in AD and immediately follow behavior.

Rules are stipulated for assigning negative consequences. These are:

1. The teacher should make the consequences known to the students.
2. The teacher should feel comfortable using selected consequences.
3. The child should not like the consequence.

4. Consequences should be explained to the child as a choice for his behavior.
5. Consequences should be administered as soon as possible.
6. Consequences should be provided in a matter-of-fact manner.
7. The teacher should be consistent in administering consequences.

Limit setting consequences are (a) time-out (isolation), (b) removal of a privilege or activity, (c) detention, (d) sending the child to the office, and (e) home consequences. "Positive assertions" are equally important in AD and rewards should be given immediately following good behavior. Contracts are recommended to help facilitate reinforcement for positive behavior. The teacher's actions are important in reinforcement of all consequences. Actions may include eye contact, calling the student by name, and touching the student (Canter & Canter, 1976).

Social Discipline (SD)

Consequences are briefly addressed in SD. Logical consequences are referred to for behavior. These "logical consequences" differ from punishment because they are delivered in a caring tone of voice and with a positive attitude, keeping in mind the feelings of the student. These consequences are not to be applied when angry and should be generated with the student. Logical consequences may be seen as punishment without the development of effective relationships between students and their teacher (Dreikurs, 1968).

Reality Therapy and Control Theory (RT and CT)

As in Social Discipline, consequences are an important part of Reality Therapy. "Natural consequences" are emphasized and like "logical consequences" are considered different from punishment. Natural consequences are chosen when people choose their behavior. Each behavior has a subsequent or related consequence. Consequences are one of the original seven steps of Reality Therapy: (1) be personal with client (student), (2) deal only with the present problem, (3) get a value judgment and discuss consequences, (4) develop a plan, (5) get a commitment, (6) accept no excuses, and (7) use no personal punishment. Reality Therapy emphasizes involvement between the teacher and his students even in the assigning of consequences. Consequences are necessary and a natural result of failure to follow a plan for improvement of behavior. A recommendation in Reality Therapy is that teachers and therapists concentrate on behavior change, not consequences (Glasser, 1965).

Belief 6: Effective Instruction Is a Deterrent to Poor Behavior

Effective instruction is related to classroom management in two ways. First, instruction may be given in proper student behavior to aid in cognitive learning. Second, the instructor may attempt to create lessons which include student involvement. This aids in needs satisfaction and minimization of behavioral problems. The teacher determines what skills or knowledge are lacking. He then provides these skills and knowledge. The students may see that the

teacher provides because he cares (Spettel, 1983).

The amount of time devoted to each student is important. Time for students who are doing well should be kept minimal. Extra time for those who may be confused should be allowed. Four common "time-wasters" are used by teachers: (1) asking children to explain their work when not necessary, (2) attempting to explain too much at one time, (3) being too verbose, and (4) spending too much time observing children writing (Jones, 1979).

Students who fail to learn may misbehave because basic needs are not being met. Such misbehavior becomes a substitute source of needs satisfaction (Brookover, 1982). This belief is given support in the Creative Effective Discipline model (Bloom, 1980). Here the contention is that academic failure produces behavioral problems. Creton et al. (1989) established that low academic grades evoke disorderly behavior. Three principles seem to support a relationship between instruction and behavior (Bielefeldt, 1988). These are: (1) clear expectations of the teacher, (2) preparation for the lesson by the teacher, and (3) student reinforcement by the teacher. Brophy (1983) and Reis (1988) added to these principles the varying of seatwork according to student level, teacher organization, and time on task in the classroom.

Teacher Effectiveness Training (TET)

In TET the effect of behavior upon instruction rather than behavior as a result of instruction is emphasized. Learning is one

of three parts which make up a class period (Gordon, 1974). Figure 2 shows this.

Student owns problem
Teacher--Learning area (no problems)
Teacher owns the problem

Figure 2. Ownership of Problem in TET.

In using TET there should be discussion between the teacher and his students regarding ownership of a problem. The teacher helps a student resolve his problem but, cautiously, does not assume ownership. Other problems may belong to the teacher. This assigning ownership to problems allows for increased instructional time. In this model the underlying factor is the relationship between the teacher and his students. When this relationship is good any one of many teaching methods is appropriate (Gordon, 1974).

Assertive Discipline (AD)

In AD the effectiveness of a teacher depends upon whether his needs are being met by the students. Instruction is not mentioned as a deterrent to poor behavior. An orderly classroom is a teacher need and any misbehavior interferes with his effectiveness (Canter & Canter, 1976).

Social Discipline (SD)

Similar to TET, in SD it is emphasized that the development of relationship is a basis for effective instruction and learning. The positive should be accented to improve instruction. For example, it is better to mark correct answers than those incorrect. The teacher is seen as a "responsible guide" for his students. Similar to TET and Reality Therapy, satisfaction of student needs is a management task (Dreikurs, 1968).

Reality Therapy and Control Theory (RT and CT)

In Reality Therapy and Control Theory, learning is a behavior. A child becomes more responsible and may learn better and easier when he has his needs satisfied. The teacher helps facilitate learning by structuring his lessons and methods to help meet student needs (Glasser, 1965). Emphasis is placed upon cooperative learning where students are placed in heterogeneous learning groups. Roles in the group are divided equally and students are responsible to cooperate and complete the assigned task. Needs of belonging and power are satisfied in the process. Learning will naturally occur when needs are satisfied (Glasser, 1986).

Comparison of Models

Student responsibility is stated or implied in three of the six beliefs listed in Table 1. These are:

1. An emphasis should be placed upon relationships between teachers and students.
2. Students should be involved in rule and consequence determination.
3. An emphasis should be placed upon students' needs and wants.

Support is given to these beliefs in three models: Social Discipline (Dreikurs & Cassel, 1972); Reality Therapy and Control Theory (Glasser, 1965, 1989); and Teacher Effectiveness Training (Gordon, 1974). Classroom procedure helps determine student behavior. This is supported by these authors as well as Canter and Canter (1976). The belief that consequences are important in behavior control is supported by all except Gordon (1974). Consequences are equated with punishment by Canter and Canter (1976). Logical consequences are suggested by Dreikurs and Cassel (1972), while natural consequences are referred to by Glasser (1965, 1989). Effective instruction, as a deterrent to poor behavior, is supported (Dreikurs & Cassel, 1972). Classroom meetings may be processes that address these beliefs and may aid in the goal of increased student achievement (Glasser, 1989).

Classroom Meetings

In three of the four models in Table 1, the authors are in agreement with the reviewed literature. They support a concern for student needs and student involvement in classroom decision making (Dreikurs, 1968; Glasser, 1965, 1989; Gordon, 1974). Meetings

involving the teacher and his students, including relationship building, rule and norm setting, exploration, and satisfaction of needs, are supported throughout the reviewed literature. Three purposes frequently appear for involvement in such meetings. These are: (1) to set rules and consequences, (2) to problem solve, and (3) to build relationships and satisfy needs (Bielefeldt, 1988; Chance & Chance, 1984; Dickenson, 1985; Glasser, 1965; Kelley, 1978; Omizo & Cubberly, 1983; Reis, 1988; Rich, 1988; Short, 1988; Stefanich & Bell, 1985).

Rules and Consequences

Norm setting sessions with teacher and student involvement are useful, especially when free of imposition of values by teachers, according to Bell and Stefanich (1984) and Yorke (1988). Rules and appropriate consequences should be developed by the teacher with his students (Reis, 1988). Students share in the responsibility of rule enforcement and take ownership when they have a part in rule development (Bell & Stefanich, 1984). A suggestion is made that as few as five or six rules should be developed. With each rule, acceptable as well as unacceptable behavior should be discussed and consequences determined (Reis, 1988). Bielefeldt (1988) added that students should be involved in the administration as well as the formulation of these rules.

The participation of children in rule determination is seen, in the Social Discipline model, as democratic. Democratic management is preferred over that which is autocratic or, the other extreme,

permissive (Dreikurs, 1968). Democratic rights of students should not be ignored and their participation in rule determination may help prevent this (Rich, 1988). This participation should be in a "social group" allowing for democratic determination of classroom management (Dreikurs, 1968).

Problem Solving

An important principle of Reality Therapy is the individual's assumption of responsibility for his problems. In using this model the therapist, counselor, or teacher attempts to help others accept this responsibility. Free discussion contributes to this acceptance (Glasser, 1965). Omizo and Cubberly (1983) stated:

One of the basic objectives of using Reality Therapy principles in classroom meetings is to encourage the development of individual responsibility to foster students' belief that they rather than other persons are primarily responsible for their own academic success and failure. (p. 202)

In agreement with this problem-solving structure, Bell and Stefanich (1984) stressed that problems should be discussed by the class and the class should generate solutions. Such decision making will promote involvement, ownership of problems, and the fostering of responsibility (Short, 1988). Problem-solving circles, similar to class meetings, are suggested by Bielefeldt (1988). In addition to problems relating to classroom order, personal conflicts are discussed. Six possible steps leading to problem and conflict resolutions are suggested by Gordon (1974) and supported by Ford (1984). These are: (1) define the problem, (2) brainstorm for solutions,

(3) jointly evaluate solutions, (4) cooperatively decide which solution will be used, (5) jointly determine how to implement the solution, and (6) jointly assess the success of problem solving. A plan should be developed in problem-solving sessions to avoid similar problems in the future (Dreikurs, 1968; Glasser, 1965).

Relationship Building and Satisfaction of Needs

If the ownership of a problem is not determined, interference may develop in student-teacher relationships (Gordon, 1974). Five relationship components are taught in Teacher Effectiveness Training. If these are present, not only is a relationship enhanced but also ownership of a problem is established and mutual needs satisfaction is obtained. These components are (1) openness or transparency, (2) caring, (3) interdependence, (4) separateness, and (5) mutual needs understanding (Gordon, 1974). In Reality Therapy, involvement is substituted for relationship. Involvement with responsible adults helps students fulfill their needs. Such involvement as well as modeling by adults is part of a child's quality world or his world as he would like it to be (Glasser, 1989). Lack of close relationship is a problem common to schools. A sense of identity between students and their teacher is missing. Meetings between students and their teacher help in cultural development among peers and students. Both become involved in setting the social and structural climate of the classroom (Kelley, 1977).

Classroom meetings aid in bonding of relationships by addressing the needs of students, especially for power, in decision

making (Bloom, 1980; Chance & Chance, 1984; Dreikurs, 1968; Glasser, 1965). This was also stressed by Tatum (1982) referring to a "class club." He stated: "Teachers must accept a different role. Instead of being all knowing authorities teachers must become facilitators. Instead of organizing projects and assigning roles, teachers must draw out of young people their own talents for leadership and decision making" (p. 9).

CHAPTER III

A CLASSROOM MEETING MODEL

The purpose of this study was to develop, validate, and field test a classroom meeting model to aid in classroom management. In Chapter I, literature was reviewed which is related to classroom management. Four classroom management models were discussed in relationship to the six most common beliefs found in the reviewed literature (Table 1). Involvement and consideration of students are implied in three of the six beliefs. These are:

1. An emphasis should be placed upon teacher-student relationships.
2. Students should be involved in rule and consequence determination.
3. An emphasis should be placed upon students' needs and wants.

Classroom meetings or similar processes are also supported by the literature (Bielefeldt, 1988; Chance & Chance, 1984; Dickenson, 1985; Glasser, 1965; Kelley, 1978; Omizo & Cubberly, 1983; Reis, 1988; Rich, 1988; Short, 1988; Stefanich & Bell, 1985). In this classroom meeting model all three beliefs are addressed.

Definition of Terms

The following terms and definitions are given as they apply to the model:

Classroom meetings: These meetings are held in an informal setting. Each participant may express his feelings. The instructor is the leader but also a sharing participant. He should not be seen as a superordinate. Confidentiality is stressed at each meeting. The leader does not allow students to insult or offend others. A specific time limit is set. This may be a portion of a class period or the entire period. Caution is taken not to extend a meeting to the following day. The entire class is allowed to make decisions, keeping in mind school and teacher guidelines (Bielefeldt, 1988; Dreikurs, 1968; Glasser, 1965; Gordon, 1974; Stefanich & Bell, 1985).

Relationship: Relationship is the involvement between the teacher and his students and between students. Students and their teacher should feel comfortable sharing their quality worlds or how they believe their life should be (Glasser, 1989). Relationship is primarily achieved through open communication with mutual respect for each other's wants and needs (Gordon, 1974). Relationship is enhanced by the openness of the teacher to his students' ideas with a mutual sharing of expectations (Kelley, 1977). A classroom meeting which begins the process of communicating freely and openly takes place prior to any instruction.

Rules and consequences: In the Classroom Meeting Model, the teacher and students meet to determine classroom rules. Students are given copies of the school and district rules. No student developed rules are to conflict with those already established. Classroom rules numbering 10 or less are recommended after they are agreed upon by a majority of the participants. Consequences are determined for rule violations by the class and enforced by the teacher. All rules and consequences are related to the individual class members' needs (Ford, 1984; Kelley, 1978). Rejected in this model is an assumption that students must meet only the needs and behavioral expectations of the teacher as advocated in Assertive Discipline (Canter & Canter, 1976).

Natural consequences as advocated by Glasser (1965) are discussed and applied to rule violators. Decided by the class, each rule has a corresponding consequence "natural" to the violation. For example, a student talking excessively after a teacher's warning may be assigned a detention. However, a natural consequence may be a detention where the student remains until he can demonstrate to the teacher a specific amount of mastery of the material covered that day. Time out is an example of a natural consequence. Here a student examines his behavior and develops a plan for improvement (Glasser, 1989).

Needs: The literature supports the proposition that behavior and individual needs are interrelated (Brookover, 1982; Dreikurs, 1968; Glasser, 1965; Gordon, 1974; Spettel, 1983). In the Classroom Meeting Model, the five basic needs emphasized by Glasser (1965) are

considered. These are: (1) love and belonging, (2) fun and enjoyment, (3) power and feelings of worthiness, (4) freedom, and (5) survival. The behaviors of students as well as the teacher are scrutinized as to how they help or hinder individual needs. Students are taught to understand their needs and discuss how to meet them using accepted behavior.

Behavior: Behavior is an individual's acting, thinking, and feeling which is satisfying one or more of his basic needs at any particular moment. The physical condition of a person may also be a behavior (Glasser, 1989). People are continuously behaving. If their needs are not satisfied with positive behavior, negative behavior is the result (Dreikurs, 1968). An underlying purpose of the Classroom Meeting Model is that the student understand this and look closely at his own behavior in relationship to his needs and the needs of others. Behavior which satisfies the needs of the one behaving but interferes with a need of another must be addressed.

Problem solving: Often the responsibility for solving problems, such as, general behavior, chronic poor behavior, and lack of student motivation, is seen as belonging to the teacher. Using the Classroom Meeting Model, these are addressed by the students and teacher in a class meeting. Six steps for resolving problems, as proposed by Gordon (1974) and supported by Ford (1984), are recommended for these problem-solving meetings. These are: (1) define the problem, (2) brainstorm for solutions, (3) jointly evaluate possible solutions, (4) cooperatively decide the solution, (5) jointly determine how to implement the solution, and (6) jointly

assess the success or failure of problem solving. A solution is developed by the class, keeping in mind school and board of education policies as well as possible nonapproval by the teacher. Problem-solving sessions are not general discussion sessions but involve only agreed upon problems. For the purposes of the Classroom Meeting Model, such sessions include a predetermined time and are to last approximately 20 minutes. A problem-solving meeting may be called suddenly if an immediate problem is presented.

Classroom management: For the purpose of this model, classroom management is defined as maintaining a classroom environment which fosters a good relationship between all participants (Bloom, 1980). In this classroom, rules and consequences are agreed upon and understood by a majority of participants (Gordon, 1974). The child's understanding of his needs and respect for the needs of others is encouraged. Most importantly students are participating and achieving. Evaluation of how well a classroom is being managed should be made by the students and seen in their academic progress (Reis, 1988). Academic progress may be measured by grades, criterion referenced tests, or standardized tests. Classroom management is not necessarily classroom control. The Classroom Meeting Model is not designed as a method to control but to aid students in learning and accepting self-controls of their own behavior.

Classroom Meeting Model

The Classroom Meeting Model is illustrated as an equilateral triangle (Figure 1, p. 5). Each angle represents a meeting type.

On the line following each meeting type are listed essential elements for that meeting. An understanding of human needs is a precondition for effective relationship meetings (Gordon, 1974). To set rules and consequences, total behavior is discussed (Glasser, 1986). To allow for classroom meetings to be ongoing, the problem-solving type was integrated into the model. In three of the four models compared earlier, problem-solving is advocated (Dreikurs & Cassell, 1972; Glasser, 1965; Gordon, 1974). The steps suggested by Gordon (1974) and supported by Ford (1984) were selected.

This chapter is organized by initially defining important terms used in the Classroom Meeting Model. A description of this model with a method of implementation follows. Each component, including class meetings and instructional sessions, is described. An organizational plan for implementation is suggested. The chapter concludes with the formulation of a field test for the model.

Developing Relationship

A meeting to begin the development of relationship is held on the first day the class meets. At this meeting each participant relates something about himself including his likes and dislikes. The teacher is the leader but shares himself along with the other class members. Some basic meetings guidelines should be established. These are:

1. One person talks at a time.
2. Any person may ask a question of the speaker when he has finished.

3. No statements are accepted if they embarrass or insult another participant.

4. A time limit for the meeting is set and shared with all participants.

5. An informal atmosphere is enhanced with chairs set in a circle or students sitting on the floor.

Teachers should enhance relationships frequently (Bloom, 1980; Gordon, 1974). In this model, it is suggested that relationship meetings be held four or five times during a semester. The first session will take a class period but further sessions are to take approximately 30 minutes.

Five Basic Needs

Progressing down from the top is a line with five basic needs (Glasser, 1965). On the second day of class, the teacher explains these needs and asks for examples of how they may be met. In a circle, students are asked to discuss these needs and how they are met in their lives. Students should be asked to share what they want from the class or any wants in their lives. Other participants are then asked to decide what need is being satisfied. For illustration purposes, this example is given:

Johnny: "I want a good grade in this class."

Teacher: "Does anybody know what need Johnny is trying to satisfy?"

Mary: "Power or self-esteem!"

Teacher: "Why Mary?"

Mary: "If he receives a good grade, he will feel good about himself."

Teacher: "That is correct!"

If all needs are not addressed, the instructor should cite an example. For instance:

Teacher: "Donna, what need is being met by the opportunity to express yourself in a meeting like this?"

Donna: "Freedom?"

Teacher: "Why freedom?"

Donna: "Because I am free to say what I want without being put down."

Teacher: "That is correct."

Following a session on basic needs, a large poster should be constructed listing each need. This should be placed at the front of the room for a constant reminder.

Setting Rules and Consequences

To prepare for a classroom meeting to establish class rules and consequences, a single instructional period is planned. Here the teacher reviews, or presents for the first time, the established school rules. A student handbook, if available, would be an appropriate resource. During this period, students are introduced to the five problem-solving steps suggested by Gordon (1974) and supported by Ford (1984).

The rules and consequences meeting will take place next. The five problem-solving steps are used to facilitate discussion and produce a set of rules. While brainstorming, students relate their

ideas to basic human needs and school rules, already established.

Discussion may proceed like this:

Johnny: "For the last five minutes of a class we should be allowed to talk with our friends."

Teacher: "What need does this address?"

Johnny: "Fun or freedom."

Another example for how the discussion may proceed is as follows:

Mary: "I suggest we be allowed to have pop in class as long as we keep the room clean."

Teacher: "What need does this address?"

Mary: "Freedom."

Teacher: "Would this violate any school rule?"

Tom: "Yes. Rule 13 states that no food or beverage be consumed in class."

This meeting is not to promote anarchy. The teacher always has a veto right but it is suggested that any veto be followed with an explanation in terms of the teacher's needs or school policy. A total of 10 or less rules is recommended. These are to be sent to the students' parents, shared with the building administration, and posted in a conspicuous classroom location.

Having assumed much responsibility for determining classroom rules, the class next decides upon consequences for violating these rules. Consequences should relate to the violation or natural consequences (Glasser, 1965). They must be simple and within the guidelines of school and board of education policy. The dignity of the students is important and considered when developing these (Rich, 1988). Time out is used as a consequence but only following

consequences within the classroom.

Following the meeting on rules and consequences, the teacher conducts a lesson on behavior. The basic concepts of Control Theory (Glasser, 1984) should be addressed. Behavior is taught, using this theory, as being total and more than a single act. Discussion may take place on the thinking, feeling, and physiological aspects of behavior. Students can be challenged to do something different (change the acting part of behavior) and comment upon any change in the other components. This may lead into alternative ways of behaving to achieve their needs (Glasser, 1965).

Problem-Solving Meetings

Problem-solving meetings for this model are to be kept to 30 minutes or less and held biweekly. Gordon's (1974) six steps are used. Students should anticipate these meetings and be encouraged to suggest topics. Again, the discussion must be kept friendly and may involve such topics as classroom behavior, teaching methods, grading methods, personal problems, school administration, or interpretation of rules. The teacher may want to use the problem-solving method occasionally in a regular lesson to reinforce the process. What is paramount is that students see their input into problem solving as valuable (Omizo & Cubberly, 1983).

Validity of the Model

The Classroom Meeting Model has been developed after a review of related literature in Chapter II. The relationship aspect is

supported by Bielefeldt (1988), Bloom (1980), Creton et al. (1989), and Stefanich and Bell (1985). In three of the four examined models, relationship building is emphasized (Dreikurs, 1968; Glasser, 1989; Gordon, 1974). Consideration of the needs and wants of students is sustained by Bloom (1980), Brookover (1982), and Spettel (1983). In three of the four models an emphasis is placed on student needs and wants (Dreikurs, 1968; Glasser, 1989; Gordon, 1974). The literature supports involvement of students in the determination of rules and consequences (Ford, 1984; Kelley, 1978; Reis, 1988; Rich, 1988). Three of the four examined models support this aspect of the Classroom Meeting Model (Dreikurs, 1968; Glasser, 1986; Gordon, 1974).

Professional Validation of the Model

A panel of educators was asked to review the Classroom Meeting Model. This consisted of three building administrators: one elementary principal, one junior high curriculum coordinator, and one high school principal. Also, three teachers representing the same levels were members of the panel (Appendix F). All were asked to review the model to be tested, including the organizational plan. All agreed that the model had content merit and should be tested. They also agreed that the findings might be helpful. Each validator with the exception of the curriculum coordinator is a trainer in reality therapy and all are in positions where they are concerned with classroom management. An assumption is made that this model has internal content validity only. External validity, until further

testing, is limited. An intention is that the test described in Chapter IV will aid in validation of the model. The test itself has limitations and they are described in Chapter IV.

Organizational Plan for Implementing the Classroom Meeting Model

Effective teachers plan their instruction so that information may be disseminated and students may assimilate a basic understanding of the material. This often is not taken into consideration in planning the management of a classroom (Kelley, 1978). For the purpose of field testing and validating the Classroom Meeting Model, an organizational plan has been developed. The participating teachers followed this plan. The act of preplanning is essential for this model as it is for any teaching strategy. Kelley (1978) recommended developing a "lesson plan for classroom discipline." Suggested here are nine steps in the development of such a plan. These steps were taken into consideration in the plan which follows. These steps, condensed, are:

1. Review existing school policies.
2. Teachers and students formulate a set of rules for the class, using a brainstorming technique.
3. Review the rules developed by the class with administration.
4. Distribute copies of the rules to students, parents, colleagues, and administration.

5. Devote one or more instructional lessons to learning and discussing the rules.
6. Post adopted rules.
7. Periodically review the classroom rules.
8. Collect data for evaluation of the rules.
9. Yearly revise the plan according to evaluations.

Proposed Organizational Plan

The organizational plan for the Classroom Meeting Model is condensed here (Table 3). The plan is located in Appendix A. This plan represents approximately 9.5 hours of the 90 hours the selected sample classes met. The plan contains each of the meeting types as well as components of basic needs, total behavior, and problem-solving steps. Duration of meetings are only suggested. Behavioral disruptions result in 45% to 55% of time off task according to Brookover (1982). If this is accepted, then the time devoted to this plan may be worthwhile. Using class time for the improvement of classroom management is supported in the literature (Dickenson, 1985; Evertson et al., 1984; Ford, 1984; Glasser, 1984; Gordon, 1974; Kelley, 1977; Omizo & Cubberly, 1983; Reis, 1988; Short, 1988; Spettel, 1983; Yorke, 1988). The instructor should be careful that he does not allow time devoted to classroom management to be used as free instructional time by the students. Structure is important in organizing and implementing the Classroom Meeting Model.

Table 3

Sample Organizational Plan for Classroom Meeting Model--
90-Day Semester

Day(s)	Meeting or instruction type	Duration	Comments
1	Relationship meeting	1 period	Sharing of likes and dislikes
2	Instruction	0.5 period	Basic needs
	Relationship meeting	0.5 period	Sharing of needs
3	Instruction	1 period	School rules and problem-solving steps
4	Rules and consequences meeting	1 period	Use problem-solving steps
5	Instruction	1 period	Behavior control theory
8, 36, 65	Relationship meetings	20 minutes	
18, 32, 46, 60, 74	Problem-solving meetings	30 minutes or less	Student generated problems preferred
89	Relationship meeting	1 period	Evaluation of meetings and evaluation of class

CHAPTER IV

FIELD TEST OF THE CLASSROOM MEETING MODEL

Two classrooms were selected to test the Classroom Meeting Model. Both are in a junior high school in a metropolitan area with a population in excess of one million. This school contains Grades 7, 8, and 9 and had a 1989-90 enrollment of 903 students. The model was implemented on Day 1 of the second semester. Continuation was for 90 days which was to the end of the school year.

Test Group A

A Grade 9 basic law class was one of two test groups. Twenty-five students were randomly selected by a computer for placement into this class for the second semester. The population of the ninth grade was 313. The test class was constructed heterogeneously in ability levels. This class was chosen because the instructor had at least minimal training in Control Theory, a component of the model.

Three instructors taught basic law and each included the same units during the semester. The instructional methods were similar. The instructors met together prior to the beginning of each semester and later during the semester. A total of 10 basic law classes met during the second semester. All were basically heterogeneous except one which was an inclusive, special education and regular education

class. A special education teacher and regular education teacher teamed in this class, which included emotionally impaired, learning disabled, and nonhandicapped children.

The control group consisted of a stratified random sample selected from eight of the remaining basic law classes. Students in the inclusive team taught class were excluded from the control group. Included were 25 students with a makeup similar to the test group. The similarity was in the number of lower level reading students (below Grade 4.9 on the Gates MacGinitie Reading Test [MacGinitie & MacGinitie, 1989]) and mainstreamed special education students (both emotionally impaired and learning disabled). The total population of possible cases was 307. Students in the inclusive team taught class, as well as nonmainstreamed special education students, were subtracted to achieve this number. The test sample, therefore, represented 8.6% of the total population of possible cases.

Test Group B

A seventh grade science class was selected for the second test group. This class consisted of 34 students selected by the computer at the beginning of the school year. The total seventh grade enrollment was 319. The class was grouped heterogeneously. Unlike Test Group A, these students met together for one semester prior to the beginning of the test. These students, as those in Test Group A, had no prior experience with classroom meetings. The class was selected because of the instructor's prior knowledge of Control Theory.

A total of 10 seventh grade science classes were held at this school. Two science classes were inclusive team taught classes. Sixteen students were either in the inclusive classes or were special education students who were not mainstreamed. The total population of possible cases was 303. The control group consisted of a stratified random sample selected from 7 of the 9 remaining seventh grade science classes. Students in the inclusive team taught classes were excluded from the control group. Included were 34 students with a makeup similar to the test group. Stratified random sampling was used to control for reading level and mainstreamed special education students (emotionally impaired and learning disabled). Neither the control nor test group was told they would be part of a test. Neither group had prior experience with classroom meetings.

Instructors of Test Groups

Both Instructor A (ninth grade basic law class) and Instructor B (seventh grade science) had training in the basics of Reality Therapy and Control Theory. Instructor A was oriented to Reality Therapy as part of an in-service in an outcome based education model. Instructor B participated in the same in-service. In addition, this instructor was trained 4 days at the Center for Reality Therapy in Cincinnati, Ohio. The administrator of the field test has had extensive training in Reality Therapy and Control Theory. This administrator conducted a 2-hour training session on the Classroom Meeting Model and basic review of Reality Therapy and Control

Theory.

Both teachers were considered to have rapport with their students and to be competent classroom managers by their peers. Both responded enthusiastically about becoming involved in the project. Their students, as well as the control students, were not informed that they were part of a test.

Procedures

The purpose of this study was to develop, validate, and field test a Classroom Meeting Model to aid in classroom management. Classroom management has been defined as maintaining a classroom environment which fosters a good relationship between all participants, produces rules and consequences agreed upon by a majority of participants, allows children to meet their needs and to respect the needs of others, and promotes student participation and achievement. Three of the six most common beliefs found in the reviewed literature (see Table 1) were selected as components of the Classroom Meeting Model.

Questions to be addressed are listed here under each component. Test Group A was a ninth grade basic law class. Control Group A consisted of randomly selected students from other basic law classes. Test Group B was a seventh grade science class. Control Group B consisted of randomly selected students from other seventh grade science classes.

An Emphasis Should Be Placed Upon Teacher/Student Relationships

Research Questions

1. Will students in Test Groups A and B rate the relationship between themselves and their teacher significantly higher than the students in corresponding control groups?
2. Will students in Test Groups A and B indicate that they developed a relationship with significantly more students in that class than will students in corresponding control groups?
3. Will students in Test Groups A and B indicate that a significantly larger number of students, other than themselves, had a good relationship with the teacher than will students in corresponding control groups?
4. Will students in Test Groups A and B indicate that a significantly larger number of other students in class developed a good relationship with at least one other student in class than will students in corresponding control groups?

Students Should Be Involved in Rule and Consequence Determination

Research Questions

1. Will the students in Test Groups A and B rate the classroom rules as being significantly more fair than students will in corresponding control groups?

2. Will the students in Test Groups A and B rate the consequences for violating classroom rules as being significantly more fair than students will in corresponding control groups?

3. Will the students in Test Groups A and B indicate that they believe the classroom was significantly more under control than students will in corresponding control groups?

An Emphasis Should Be Placed Upon
Students' Needs and Wants

Research Questions

1. Will students in Test Groups A and B indicate that they had significantly more fun in class than students will in corresponding control groups?

2. Will students in Test Groups A and B indicate that they believe the majority of students had significantly more fun in class than students will in corresponding control groups?

3. Will students in Test Groups A and B indicate that they had significantly more freedom in making decisions in class than students will in corresponding control groups?

4. Will students in Test Groups A and B indicate that they believe the majority of students in class had significantly more freedom in making decisions in class than students will in corresponding control groups?

Participation and Achievement

Participation and achievement are two variables which are not components in the Classroom Meeting Model. They are, however, outcomes of well-managed classes (Glasser, 1989). They are also part of the definition of classroom management previously given. The following questions address these variables.

Research Questions

1. Will students in Test Groups A and B indicate that they participated significantly more in class than students will in corresponding control groups?

2. Will students in Test Groups A and B indicate that there was significantly more participation in class than students will in corresponding control groups?

3. Will the mean final grade for students in Test Groups A and B be significantly higher than the mean final grade for students in corresponding control groups?

One question addresses attendance.

Research Question

Will the mean number of days absent for students in Test Groups A and B be significantly less than the mean number of days absent for students in corresponding control groups?

The Model as a Predictor of Achievement and Attendance

1. Will each of the 13 variables represented in the student survey be a significant predictor of achievement measured by the mean final semester grade?

2. Will each of the 13 variables represented in the student survey be a significant predictor of attendance measured by the mean number of days missed during the second semester.

Evaluation of Meetings and Instruction

To ascertain whether or not the model was being followed in both test groups three checks were used. First, selected classroom meetings or instructional sessions were evaluated using a brief response form. The students were asked five questions. Responses were yes or no. These response forms were also to give some indication of effectiveness. The five questions were developed and validated by the two participating teachers and the researcher. Ford's (1984) problem-solving steps were used. These are: (a) define the problem, (b) brainstorm for solutions (questions), (c) evaluate possible solutions (questions), (d) decide the solutions (questions), (e) implementations of the solutions, and (f) assess the success or failure of problem solving. The following questions were included in the response forms:

1. Did you feel comfortable sharing information today?
2. Do you believe the teacher was an active participant today?
3. Do you believe what was done or taught today is useful?

4. Do you believe the majority of students participated today?

5. Do you believe the atmosphere of this class will be better because of what took place today?

The second assessment of model adherence consisted of four brief meetings with each teacher during the time of implementation. The third assessment included sharing the model with participating students. They were asked if they believed it was followed. This was done in the phone interviews at the conclusion of the test.

Test Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were examined in the field test of the Classroom Meeting Model. Test Group A was a ninth grade basic law class. Control Group A consisted of randomly selected students from other basic law classes. Test Group B was a seventh grade science class. Control Group B consisted of randomly selected students from other seventh grade science classes.

1. The mean student rating of the relationship between themselves and the teacher will be significantly different for Test Groups A and B using the Classroom Meeting Model than for corresponding control groups as measured on a scale 1 to 4 with 1 being low and 4 being high.

2. The mean student rating of the number of students with whom participants in Test Groups A and B believed they developed a relationship in class using the Classroom Meeting Model will be significantly different from the mean student rating of the number of students with whom participants in corresponding control groups

believed they developed a relationship within class, measured on a scale 1 to 4 with 1 being low and 4 being high.

3. The mean student rating of the number of students who had a good relationship with the teacher will be significantly different in Test Groups A and B using the Classroom Meeting Model than in corresponding control groups as measured on a scale 1 to 4 with 1 being low and 4 being high.

4. The mean student rating of the number of students who developed a good relationship with one or more students in class will be significantly different in Test Groups A and B using the Classroom Meeting Model than in corresponding control groups as measured on a scale 1 to 4 with 1 being low and 4 being high.

5. The mean student rating of classroom rules in Test Groups A and B using the Classroom Meeting Model will be significantly different than in corresponding control groups as measured on a scale 1 to 3 with 1 being mostly unfair and 3 being mostly fair.

6. The mean student rating of consequences for classroom rules in Test Groups A and B using the Classroom Meeting Model will be significantly different than in corresponding control groups as measured on a scale 1 to 3 with 1 being mostly unfair and 3 being mostly fair.

7. The mean student rating for the degree of control in the classroom in Test Groups A and B using the Classroom Meeting Model will be significantly different than in corresponding control groups as measured on a scale 1 to 3 with 1 being uncontrolled and 3 being under control.

8. The mean student rating for the amount of fun individually experienced in class in Test Groups A and B using the Classroom Meeting Model will be significantly different than in corresponding control groups as measured on a scale 1 to 3 with 1 being no fun and 3 being a lot of fun.

9. The mean student rating for the amount of fun the class experienced as a whole in Test Groups A and B using the Classroom Meeting Model will be significantly different than in corresponding control groups as measured on a scale 1 to 3 with 1 being no fun and 3 being a lot of fun.

10. The mean student rating for the amount of freedom in decision making that students individually believed they had in class in Test Groups A and B using the Classroom Meeting Model will be significantly different than in corresponding control groups as measured on a scale 1 to 3 with 1 being none and 3 being a lot.

11. The mean student rating for the amount of freedom in decision making students believed the majority of students had in class in Test Groups A and B using the Classroom Meeting Model will be significantly different than in corresponding control groups as measured on a scale 1 to 3 with 1 being none and 3 being a lot.

12. The mean student rating of the degree of individual student participation in class in Test Groups A and B using the Classroom Meeting Model will be significantly different than in corresponding control groups as measured on a scale 1 to 3 with 1 being very little and 3 being a lot.

13. The mean student rating of the overall participation in class in Test Groups A and B using the Classroom Meeting Model will be significantly different than in corresponding control groups as measured on a scale 1 to 3 with 1 being very little and 3 being a lot.

14. The mean final grade for students in Test Groups A and B using the Classroom Meeting Model will be significantly different than the mean final grade for students in corresponding control groups. The final grade in Test Group A and Control Group A will be that determined by the teacher. The final grade for Test Group B and Control Group B will be the mean average of the third and fourth card marking periods.

15. The mean number of complete days absent for students in Test Groups A and B using the Classroom Meeting Model will be significantly different than the mean number of complete days absent for students in corresponding control groups.

16. Some elements measured by the student survey will be better predictors of achievement as measured by the final grade than will others.

17. Some elements measured by the student survey will be better predictors of attendance as measured by the number of days absent than will others.

Selection of Statistical Analysis

A two-tailed t test was selected for Hypotheses 1-15. The intent was to determine significant differences between research and

control group means. Since the purpose of this study was to develop, validate, and field test a model, a decision was made to use a conservative $\alpha = .05$. No plans for immediate implementation of the model were considered. The possibility of committing a Type I error was accepted, keeping in mind the need for further testing.

For Hypotheses 16 and 17, a Pearson product-moment correlation was administered on each of the 13 independent variables. Prediction was sought for achievement as well as attendance. Because further investigations would be necessary, low and moderate positive correlations were addressed.

CHAPTER V

DATA COLLECTION

The purpose of this study was to develop, validate, and field test a classroom meeting model to aid in classroom management. The model was shown as an equilateral triangle (Figure 1). Each angle represents a meeting type. The sides represent meeting elements. Basic needs are on one side (Glasser, 1965). Another side contains elements of behavior (Glasser, 1984). Problem-solving steps are represented on the third side (Ford, 1984; Gordon, 1974).

A literature review validated the meeting types. Six common management beliefs were supported. These were compared with four management models: Teacher Effectiveness Training (Gordon, 1974), Assertive Discipline (Canter & Canter, 1976), Social Discipline (Dreikurs, 1968), and Reality Therapy-Control Theory (Glasser, 1965, 1984) (see Table 1).

Involvement with and empowerment of students are implied in three of the common beliefs. These are:

1. An emphasis should be placed upon teacher-student relationships.
2. Students should be involved in rule and consequence determination.
3. An emphasis should be placed upon the needs and wants of students.

Each is considered essential in three of the four management models. Assertive Discipline is an exception (Table 1). Here they are not discussed and an emphasis upon student needs is discouraged (Canter & Canter, 1976). One angle of the triangle represents relationship meetings. Another represents rules and consequence meetings. The third represents problem-solving meetings which are supported by Gordon (1974), Ford (1984), and Glasser (1968).

Organizational Plan

An organizational plan appears in Appendix A. This has been condensed in Chapter III (Table 3). Three meeting types were recommended. Essential components were included. Such a lesson plan for management is recommended by Kelley (1978).

Field Test

The field test consisted of two research groups. Research Group A was a ninth grade basic law class. This was a newly formed class. Research Group B was a seventh grade science class. This class had been meeting for one semester. Control Group A consisted of a stratified random sample of ninth grade basic law students in other classes. Control Group B consisted of a stratified random sample of seventh grade science students in other classes.

Hypotheses

Thirteen hypotheses were tested relating to: relationships within the classroom, rules and consequences, and basic needs of fun

and freedom. Classroom control was tested as one of the 13 response items. An assumption here was that students would understand this better than classroom management. Participation was a constituent of the definition for classroom management and therefore also tested. A hypothesis was developed to explore a relationship between the model and achievement. Final grades were used for achievement. An assumption was made that classroom meetings would result in increased attendance. Therefore, hypotheses were stated testing the variable of days absent. Hypotheses for grades and attendance may be found in Chapter IV, Numbers 14 and 15. Hypotheses 16 and 17 predict correlations between each of the 13 surveyed variables with grades as well as attendance.

Collection of Data

Data for Hypotheses 1 through 13 were collected by a telephone survey (Appendix B). The questions were developed by the two participating teachers and the researcher. Attendance and achievement data were obtained from final report cards. Because achievement data (grades) were to be used for a purpose outside of the school, parental and student permission forms were collected (Appendices D and E). Mean responses from the survey were tested for significant group differences. Mean grades and attendance were likewise tested. A significance level was determined at $\alpha = .05$. Limitations, assumptions, and weaknesses are addressed later in this chapter. Relationships between Groups A and B are not addressed in this study but are recommended for later research.

Ninth Grade Basic Law, Group A

Only Hypothesis 7 was accepted at $\alpha = .05$. The mean student rating for the degree of control in the classroom in the research group using the Classroom Meeting Model will be significantly different than in the control group or measured on a scale 1 to 3 with 1 being uncontrolled and 3 being under control. In Table 4 it is shown that $t = 2.68$, with a critical value of 2.04.

Other Variables

Of the remaining 12 variables addressed in the survey, the means of the experimental group were more positive than those of the control group in all but one. Testing for the number of relationships that students developed with their peers, there was no difference. These are listed according to probability levels in Table 4. Although no statistical significance is defended, the first four, or approximately 25%, are addressed in Chapter VI.

Differences in Grades and Attendance

The hypothesis that a significant difference between final grades for the research and control groups would be found was rejected. Rejection was also determined for the hypothesis for days absent as the dependent variable. Any difference in grades or attendance is attributed to chance.

Table 4
Two-Tailed t Test for Significant Mean Difference Between
Research and Control Groups A by Probability
(Ninth Grade)

H	Variable	Group	Mean	<u>SD</u>	<u>SE</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>p</u>
7	Rate of control	Research	2.69	0.48	0.12	2.68	.012
		Control	2.11	0.76	0.18		
11	Freedom class had as a whole	Research	2.75	0.45	0.11	1.84	.074
		Control	2.49	0.51	0.12		
9	Fun class had as a whole	Research	2.63	0.50	0.13	1.72	.094
		Control	2.33	0.49	0.11		
12	Student's participation	Research	2.63	0.50	0.13	1.54	.134
		Control	2.33	0.59	0.14		
14	Final grades	Research	9.38	2.83	0.71	1.53	.137
		Control	7.83	3.03	0.72		

Table 4--Continued

H	Variable	Group	Mean	<u>SD</u>	<u>SE</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>p</u>
10	Rate of freedom (student's)	Research	2.75	0.45	0.11	1.53	.138
		Control	2.44	0.71	0.17		
6	Rating of consequences	Research	2.81	0.40	0.10	1.45	.156
		Control	2.56	0.62	0.15		
5	Rating of rules	Research	2.69	0.48	0.12	1.44	.161
		Control	2.39	0.70	0.16		
13	Overall participation	Research	2.75	0.45	0.11	1.41	.168
		Control	2.44	0.78	0.19		
3	Other students who had relationship with teacher	Research	4.00	0.00	0.00	1.29	.205
		Control	3.80	0.51	0.12		
8	Rate of fun (student's)	Research	2.69	0.48	0.12	1.27	.212
		Control	2.44	0.62	0.15		

Table 4--Continued

H	Variable	Group	Mean	<u>SD</u>	<u>SE</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>p</u>
1	Student's relationship with teacher	Research	3.13	0.72	0.18	1.25	.220
		Control	2.78	0.88	0.21		
4	Other students who had relationships with other students	Research	3.76	0.48	0.11	0.14	.889
		Control	3.72	0.67	0.16		
15	Days absent	Research	6.38	7.40	1.90	-0.03	.975
		Control	6.44	5.50	1.10		
2	Student's number of relationships with other students	Research	4.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.000
		Control	4.00	0.00	0.00		

Note. Critical value = 2.04, $\alpha = .05$. Research group $n = 16$. Control group $n = 18$.

Seventh Grade Science, Group B

Only Hypothesis 5, that a significant difference would be found, was accepted at $\alpha = .05$. The mean student rating of classroom rules in the research group using the Classroom Meeting Model will be significantly different from that of the control group as measured on a scale 1 to 3, with 1 being mostly unfair and 3 being mostly fair. In Table 5, 2.14 is shown as the t value. The critical value is 2.01.

Other Variables

Of the remaining 12 variables addressed in the survey, the means of the experimental group were more positive than those of the control group in all but one. Only the variable of control that was seen by the students was in a different direction. These are listed, according to probability levels, in Table 5. Although no statistical significance is defended, the first four are also addressed in Chapter VI.

Differences in Grades and Attendance

The hypothesis that a significant difference between final grades for the research and control groups would be found was rejected. Rejection was also determined for the hypothesis for days absent as the dependent variable. Any difference in grades or attendance is, again, attributed to chance.

Table 5
Two-Tailed t Test for Significant Differences Between
Research and Control Groups B by Probability
(Seventh Grade)

H	Variable	Group	Mean	<u>SD</u>	<u>SE</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>p</u>
5	Rating of rules	Research	2.83	0.49	0.10	2.14	.038
		Control	2.43	0.73	0.15		
11	Freedom class had as a whole	Research	2.61	0.50	0.10	1.95	.058
		Control	2.30	0.56	0.15		
3	Other students who developed relationships with the teacher	Research	3.61	0.78	0.16	1.74	.088
		Control	3.09	1.20	0.25		
10	Rating of individual freedom	Research	2.48	0.51	0.11	1.72	.093
		Control	2.22	0.52	0.11		
1	Student's relationship with teacher	Research	2.65	0.71	0.15	1.67	.101
		Control	2.26	0.86	0.18		

Table 5--Continued

H	Variable	Group	Mean	<u>SD</u>	<u>SE</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>p</u>
6	Rating of consequences	Research	2.74	0.45	0.09	1.46	.152
		Control	2.48	0.73	0.15		
7	Rating of control	Research	1.91	0.60	0.12	-1.14	.261
		Control	2.13	0.69	0.15		
9	Fun class had as a whole	Research	2.22	0.52	0.11	1.01	.316
		Control	2.04	0.64	0.13		
8	Rating of individual fun	Research	2.22	0.52	0.11	0.79	.433
		Control	2.09	0.60	0.12		
12	Student's participation	Research	2.35	0.57	0.12	0.67	.506
		Control	2.22	0.74	0.15		
2	Student's number of relationships with other students	Research	3.96	0.21	0.04	0.59	.561
		Control	3.91	0.29	0.06		

Table 5--Continued

H	Variable	Group	Mean	<u>SD</u>	<u>SE</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>p</u>
14	Final grade	Research	8.22	3.06	0.64	0.58	.564
		Control	7.61	3.97	0.83		
4	Student/peer relationships	Research	3.91	0.29	0.06	0.39	.702
		Control	3.87	0.46	0.10		
15	Days absent	Research	6.61	5.54	1.16	0.35	.728
		Control	5.87	8.48	1.77		
13	Overall participation	Research	2.17	0.72	0.15	0.19	.849
		Control	2.13	0.82	0.17		

Note. Critical value = 2.01, $\alpha = .05$. Research group $\underline{n} = 23$. Control group $\underline{n} = 23$.

Correlation of Survey Variables With Achievement and Attendance

Hypothesis 16 reads that some variables of the survey will be better predictors of achievement than others. In Hypothesis 17 it is predicted that the same is true with attendance. To determine predictive value, a Pearson product-moment correlation was administered on each of the 13 independent variables.

Survey Variables and Achievement

Three variables were found to be statistically significant predictors of achievement as measured by mean final grades. These are: the amount an individual believed he or she participated in class, the amount of freedom an individual believed he or she had in making classroom decisions, and the extent a student believed relationships were developed in class (Table 6).

Survey Variables and Attendance

Only one variable seemed to be a possible predictor of attendance as measured by the number of days absent. This was the amount an individual believed he or she participated in class. This is shown in Table 6.

Assumptions and Limitations

Certain limitations were understood in this field test. Some assumptions were also made in the design of the test. The purpose of this study was to develop, validate, and field test a classroom

Table 6
Correlations Between Survey Variables and
Achievement and Attendance

	<u>R</u>	<u>R</u> ²	<u>F</u>	<u>α</u>
Correlation Between Survey Variables and Achievement				
Variable 12. The amount an individual believes he or she participates in class	.44	.19	18.870	.0000
Variable 10. The amount of freedom an individual believes he or she had in making decisions in class	.53	.28	14.670	.0000
Variable 4. The extent of relationship building in class	.59	.35	13.690	.0000
Correlation Between Survey Variables and Attendance				
Variable 12. The amount an individual believes he or she participates in class	.29	.08	7.162	.0091

meeting model. To have assumed validity external to the testing situation would not have been appropriate.

Review of Literature

The review of literature supported management models which involve students in decision making and advocate concern for students. Of the four examined models one was deficient in these areas. This is Assertive Discipline (Canter & Canter, 1976). There was no intent to discredit this discipline model. However, there is

a need to examine it further. An assumption was made in development of the Classroom Meeting Model that Assertive Discipline contains few viable postulates and little reference was made to it.

Of the six common beliefs about classroom management, three were included in the model composition. These were:

1. An emphasis should be placed upon teacher-student relationships.
2. Students should be involved in rule and consequence determination.
3. An emphasis should be placed upon students' needs and wants.

Three of the six beliefs did not become part of the model. The assumption was that they were not specifically oriented towards student involvement. These were:

1. Classroom procedures help to determine student behavior.
2. Consequences are important to behavior management.
3. Effective instruction is a deterrent to poor behavior.

Research is recommended to test these beliefs.

The Model and Organizational Plan

In the model which was tested, an organizational plan was developed. Substantial literature supports the use of classroom meetings (Bielefeldt, 1988; Chance & Chance, 1984; Dickenson, 1985; Glasser, 1965; Kelley, 1978; Omizo & Cubberly, 1983; Reis, 1988; Short, 1988; Stefanich & Bell, 1985). However, only Kelley (1978) advocated structuring a management process. The organizational plan

in the Classroom Meeting Model was developed as a method for implementation. This plan and subsequent time variables should be held to closer examination.

Although support is given to include: development of relationships (Gordon, 1974), involvement of students in rule and consequence determination (Glasser, 1975) and problem solving, in the Classroom Meeting Model (Ford, 1984; Gordon, 1974), it was only assumed they are interrelated. Further testing may involve considering each as a separate variable.

Content Validity of the Model

A limitation of this model is its lack of external validity. In the development form it has little predictability. Perusal of the results may warrant further testing. Internal content validation was accomplished by the support of a professional panel.

Test and Control Groups

Test Groups A and B were selected for convenience and the willingness of teachers to cooperate. Also, each had some training in Reality Therapy and Control Theory. Furthermore both were seen by peers and administrators as having few classroom management problems. A suggested test of this model would be to use classes in which management problems exist. A question remains whether or not Test Groups A and B are truly randomized. The randomization was the result of computer scheduling. However, a determination was made to use this form of randomization for convenience.

Control groups were selected to help validate success of the model. Possible deficiencies exist in these groups, including differences in teacher personality and instructional methods. The control groups were formulated using stratified random sampling. This better aligned them to the test groups, controlling for reading ability and the number of special education students.

Comparisons between Test Groups A and B may be inappropriate and separate analysis may be necessary. The reader is reminded that Test Group B had been meeting for one semester, while Group A was newly organized.

Instructor Effect Upon Process

In examination of the data, the reader is cautioned regarding the possible influence of the teacher upon the findings. Longitudinal studies are recommended in the future to account for teacher effect. The participating teachers in this pilot study seemed very comfortable with the model.

Collection of Data

The questions asked in the interview were constructed by participating teachers and the researcher. They solicited only opinions. Although care was taken in the training of the interviewers, a possibility of interview bias was present. Also, students may have been hesitant to answer sincerely.

A common interpretation was assumed in the interview questions on fun and participation. This assumption may not have been true.

However, it was understood that fun is a basic need (Glasser, 1965). This was to be interpreted by the students being interviewed. Participation was also to be interpreted by each student. Achievement was measured by final grades and the mean final grade point average of the research and control groups. Although grade point is a common reference for achievement, criterion referenced tests, if available, would have been preferred.

Content Validity of the Survey

Validation was determined for the survey by the teachers who constructed the questions. Internal validity only was defended. The survey was not at that time being examined for external validity. The reader should be careful not to assume for other populations. One question was constructed for each variable. Further investigation of the model should include careful construction and validation of a survey. Multiple questions for each variable are recommended.

Interaction Effects of Selection Biases and X

All participants in this research were selected from one school. No attempt was made to control interaction variables. The model may be more or less effective for different populations.

Reactive Measures

In the undertaken study, a danger of reactive measures was prominent. One reactive measure was that of role selection.

Although the students did not know they were part of a study, the instructors did. There was also a danger of the interviewers' effects upon the responses of the interviewees. Added to this were response sets or the tendency of the subjects to respond in certain predictable ways. An assumption may be made that students responded somewhat positively to interview questions.

Extraneous Variables

The randomization of the groups was assumed to control for extraneous variables. True randomization of the research group is questionable. Teachers were not randomly assigned. An assumption was made of similar teaching methods. This was not true in all cases.

The telephone survey was conducted during summer vacation. This may have lowered the response rate. Of 25 possible interviews for Control and Research Groups A, 16 took place in the research group and 18 took place in the control group. In Research Group B, 23 were interviewed out of 35. The same was true for the control group.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to develop, validate, and field test a classroom meeting model to aid in classroom management. A definition of classroom management was developed. This is: maintaining a classroom environment which fosters a good relationship between all participants (Bloom, 1980), produces rules and consequences which are agreed upon by a majority of participants (Gordon, 1974), encourages the child's understanding of his needs and respect for the needs of others, and most importantly, where students are participating and achieving in a quality educational program (Reis, 1988).

The Problem

The Gallup Poll of 1988 cited the lack of discipline as a major concern for public schools (Bielefeldt, 1988). Most disruptions in the classroom are petty (Jones, 1979). Teachers need to foster relationships with their students (Kelley, 1978). Fostering relationships is part of need satisfying education. If students have this, few discipline problems arise (Glasser, 1989).

The Review of Literature

The three important tasks of this study were to develop, validate, and pilot test a classroom meeting model. In Chapter I, a table was developed (Table 1). Six beliefs were fixed on the vertical plane. Each is supported throughout the literature. Three of these beliefs concern involvement and consideration of students: (1) An emphasis should be placed upon teacher-student relationships, (2) students should be involved in rule and consequence making, and (3) an emphasis should be placed upon student needs and wants.

Four models used in schools are positioned on the horizontal plane. These are: Teacher Effectiveness Training (Gordon, 1974), Assertive Discipline (Canter & Canter, 1976), Social Discipline (Dreikurs, 1968), and Reality Therapy-Control Theory (Glasser, 1965). In three of these models there is agreement with the selected beliefs. Only Canter and Canter fail to do this.

The Model

The three meeting types are located at the angles. Following clockwise around the triangle each line represents elements which support the preceding meeting type. An understanding of these elements is paramount to the effectiveness of the corresponding meeting. For effective relationship development an understanding of each other's needs is important (Gordon, 1974). In this model the basic needs as presented by Glasser (1965), love, self-esteem, fun, freedom, and survival, are emphasized. In setting rules and

consequences, total student behavior is considered. Total behavior includes: acting, thinking, feeling, and physiology (Glasser, 1986). The third meeting type, problem solving, is included to support the other two and held frequently as problems arise (Dreikurs, 1968). The six steps which follow are suggested by Gordon (1974) and supported by Ford (1984). These include: defining, brainstorming, evaluating, deciding, implementing, and assessing.

Lesson Plan

Appendix A is a lesson plan for using this model over a 90-day semester. The plan appeared in an abbreviated form in Chapter III (Table 3). In this plan a meeting and instruction in behavior occur each day of the first week. Relationship and problem-solving meetings are interspersed throughout the remainder of the semester.

Test

Two instructors volunteered to field test the Classroom Meeting Model. Group A consisted of Grade 9 basic law students. Group B consisted of Grade 7 science students. The school was a Grade 7 through 9 junior high school located in a suburban area with a population over one million. Both groups consisted of a research and a control group. The teachers were in-serviced and asked to follow the model for the second semester. Both had some training in Reality Therapy and Control Theory.

Evaluation of the Model and Meetings

To check if the plan was being followed, students completed evaluations after each meeting. Consultations with the teachers took place weekly. They were asked to evaluate the model in writing.

Instructor Comments

Both instructors were positive in their comments. Neither had tried classroom meetings before. Instructor A, whose class was just formed at the onset, stated: "I probably enjoyed the meetings as much or more than the students." She attributed this to being an active listener. She contended that instruction of basic needs was "extremely important," but she enjoyed problem-solving meetings the most. Her students "picked the topics and ran the meetings." On the last day a secret ballot vote was taken. Overwhelmingly, they rated the meetings "enjoyable." They concurred that the teacher should continue class meetings. Teacher A also stated: "I felt good about this class, maybe because I knew more about each student."

The seventh grade science class had been meeting for one semester before the model was introduced. There were a number of discipline occurrences in the class during that time. Teacher B stated:

I believe the overall attitude of the class began to change. The students were highly motivated, more enthused, respectful to one another, and concerned about one another. As far as myself, I wish I had begun Control

Theory in the beginning of the year. I found the classroom was a pleasant place to be. . . . I had missed the wonderful personalities the first semester because I used Assertive Discipline. . . . I learned that I can be myself and kids respect you for that.

This teacher chose to continue using classroom meetings based upon Control Theory. Her recommendation and intentions were to begin this model immediately at the commencement of the class.

Check on Model Adherence

Student evaluations were collected after each meeting to substantiate the use of meetings in the classroom. No significance was associated with these evaluations. The results are interesting, however, and those of Days 1, 18, and 90 are included in Appendix G in the form of time-series graphs.

Conclusions

Comparison of Models

A review of literature on classroom management was completed. This review leads to possible conclusions. One is that classroom procedures help determine student behavior. This includes such procedures as organization of the classroom, early rule setting, and consistent monitoring of students (Brophy, 1983; Spettel, 1983). All four compared models support this conclusion.

Inclusion of Students

The literature supports inclusion and empowerment of students in classroom management. One model prohibits this. Caution should be taken by administrators and teachers in accepting this model, Assertive Discipline (Canter & Canter, 1976), for this reason. Students should be participants with the teacher and develop a relationship with him (Dreikurs, 1968; Glasser, 1989; Gordon, 1974). Student participation in rule and consequence determination may create a conducive learning environment. Purposely fostering a caring environment where relationships develop helps meet the basic need of love and belonging.

Classroom Meeting Model

This model was developed after reviewing the literature and is supported by the review. A recommendation is that teachers experiment with it. The teachers who used this model in the pilot study were positive about it, as were a majority of the students. Although greater significance was sought in the model variables, conclusions can be drawn from the field test.

A suggestion for teachers concerned with classroom management would be to review the literature for themselves. Next, they should examine the model or create their own in relationship to what is found in the literature. A further suggestion would be to examine the components of Assertive Discipline using the literature as a standard.

Recommendations Based Upon the Field Test

Significant Findings

Control in the Classroom

A significant difference at $\alpha = .05$ level was found between the research and control Groups A in the rating of classroom control. The ninth grade research group rated classroom control higher than did the control group. The seventh grade research mean was lower but to no significance. These contrasting findings may be attributed to the newness of the ninth grade law class, whereas the seventh grade science class students witnessed a change from assertive management to inclusion of students in the management process. Not unlikely, these students observed a loss of control. The ninth grade research group experienced control in which they took part.

Classroom meetings force students to assume responsibility. The instructor shares power with the students. Misbehavior is no longer only the instructor's problem. This may be difficult for students to accept. They may have experienced only assertive teachers before. With these teachers students await the proper stimulus, whether a reward or punishment, for their behavior (Gordon, 1974). Using classroom meetings, the instructor does not necessarily reward or punish. The rules the students break are their own.

Rating of Classroom Rules

Both research groups rated the class rules as being fair. The seventh grade research group rated this fairness somewhat higher at the $\alpha = .05$ level than did the control group. A change from assertive discipline may have accounted for this. The new rules belonged to the students. Furthermore, the students' understanding of this behavior, based upon Control Theory, may have made a difference. Discipline problems may disappear if students' needs are met and they understand their own behavior (Glasser, 1989).

Variables for Further Research

In Chapter V, Tables 4 and 5, the 15 surveyed variables are listed by probability level. Only one variable in each group was determined to be significantly different for the research group at $\alpha = .05$. However, keeping in mind the need for further research, using this model, the next three variables with the highest probability are discussed. For the ninth grade these are: classroom freedom in decision making, fun in the classroom, and personal participation as seen by the individual students. The seventh grade variables with the highest but not significant probability are: classroom freedom in decision making, personal freedom to make decisions as seen by the individual students, and personal relationships with the teacher as seen by individual students.

Freedom

Both research groups rated the freedom in decision making within the class higher than the control groups. Probability levels were .074 for the ninth grade and .058 for the seventh. In rating personal freedom, both research groups were higher than the control groups. Probability levels were .135 for the ninth grade and .093 for the seventh. These results have no statistical significance for the pilot test and could have resulted by chance. Further research is recommended in the relationship between this model and freedom in making classroom decisions. Teachers who are apprehensive about allowing students freedom may want to try the model. The best controller of freedom may be the students themselves.

Fun

The ninth grade research group rated classroom fun higher than the control group at a probability level of .094. Interestingly, the seventh graders did also but at a $p = .316$. Individual fun was rated higher by both research groups with respective probability levels of .219 and .433. No statistical significance is implied but the relationship between fun and the tested model should be further examined.

Participation

The ninth grade research group rating of their individual participation was higher than the control group at the $p = .134$ level.

This also may merit further examination. Classroom meetings by nature should increase student participation. However, student participation is included in many instructional processes. It is recommended that longitudinal studies, including teachers who change from an assertive style, be made.

Relationships

The seventh grade research group rated the number of relationships they observed between students and the teacher greater than the control group at a $p = .088$ level. They also rated their personal relationship with the teacher greater at a $p = .101$ level. Both were rated greater by the ninth grade research group but at lower probability levels. The literature is very supportive of teacher-student relationships (Bloom, 1980; Stefanich & Bell, 1985). A recommendation is that this variable be further tested in accordance with the model. Also, teachers may want to work at developing relationships with their students using this model.

The Model's Influence Upon Achievement and Attendance

Predictions were made of the model effect upon achievement and attendance. Significant differences were hypothesized between research and control groups. Achievement as measured by the final grade point average was higher for both research groups. However, the research groups did not differ significantly from the control groups. A recommendation is made here for further testing. Preferred to grade point averages may be criterion referenced tests.

Given as pre- and posttests, these may be better measures of achievement.

Attendance, measured by the mean number of days absent, was not significantly different in either group. Testing of the model's effect upon attendance in a school where students had the right to attend or not attend specific classes might be beneficial. Some high schools have such a policy and would be appropriate sites to study this model.

Variables as Predictors of Achievement

Three variables were found to correlate moderately with final grades. These seem to be the best predictors of achievement but could be spurious relational patterns. Further research would be recommended. These predictors are participation, freedom, and classroom relationships. A multi-comparison of classrooms where a student rating of these variables are compared to the students' achievement would be appropriate. Only one variable was found to be a possible predictor of attendance. This was participation in class. Again, further research is recommended.

Recommendations

Additional research is recommended in classroom management. The strength of this study was the development of a model to aid in classroom management. Only 2 of the 14 variables tested were rated significantly greater in at least one of the test groups.

Empirically there is weakness in the model. Testing, with the following improvisations, is recommended.

Population

This research was conducted in one building, with two participating classes. If results are to be generalized, external validations should be increased. To increase external validity, a study could be undertaken including two or more separate schools. The number of participating classes should be increased. Different grades, socioeconomic populations, and private versus public schools may furnish valuable data.

Correlational Study

The data of this study could be used to examine relationships between variables and outcomes. Outcomes for this research were grades and attendance. Behavioral problems were not considered. Predictors of behavioral problems may be examined, including such possible research questions as: Does a student's understanding of his basic needs or total behavior relate to the number of discipline referrals to the principal? Or, is the extent of a teacher/student relationship a predictor of the number of that student's discipline problems? If it is true that behavioral problems result in 45% to 55% of time off task, justification may be added to this type of research (Brookover, 1982).

Selection of Teachers

The teachers in this research were selected for their knowledge in Reality Therapy and Control Theory and their willingness to cooperate. The teachers themselves may have influenced variance. Research, utilizing teachers who do not have this knowledge as well as those who are considered poor classroom managers, may be advantageous. In either case the teacher should be given proper in-service on the model and acquire a general understanding of Reality Theory and Control Theory. The evaluation of the model by the teacher would also increase in importance.

Untested Beliefs

Two beliefs, supported by literature, were not included in the model or research. Investigation of these would be important. One possibility is an exploration of classroom procedures to determine effectiveness. Another would be investigating effective instructional techniques as a deterrent to poor behavior. Many popular positions are being subscribed to, including cooperative learning outcome based methods and effective schools. Research on these and others is recommended.

Recommendations for Using the Model

Organizational Plan

The organizational plan for the model is a guide. The instructor should feel free to modify it to his schedule. An additional

strategy may be beneficial. This is to allow students to call problem-solving meetings. These should always be called one day before they take place. Limits should be set.

Classroom Control

Classroom control may vary in definition according to the teacher. The ninth grade students rated this variable significantly greater than the control group. Yet the teacher seemed to allow them freedom in making decisions with her. Control using the Classroom Meeting Model will be shared and include self-control. Sanctions will be agreed upon by all participants.

Fun

The teacher should interject fun into the relationship meeting. This can be established first by having students arrange themselves into a circle in an innovative way. Having them organize by birthday is often used. They can have fun doing it and will end up near someone who may not be their friend. Fun which may hurt others must be controlled. This may be a good topic for a problem solving meeting. Guidelines for fun can be established.

Freedom

Some classrooms are operated coercively using boss management. Freedom in the classroom allows for lead management (Glasser, 1990). Freedom is a basic human need. In application of this model decisions are arrived at mutually. Care is taken to stay within school

and school board policies. Freedom does not include the right to violate someone else's rights.

Relationships

The pilot test gave some support to a relationship between the model and student-teacher relationships. In relationships participants share. Both teachers in this study became comfortable with sharing themselves with the students. The adage that teachers should begin the class being tough is questionable. Relationship building begins on the first day. Respect for one another should grow. Teachers should not be afraid to allow this.

In true relationships, one person's actions will not interfere with another's needs. If they do the class will recommend consequences. The respect which is nurtured by relationship development is between students and between students and the teacher.

Rules and Consequences

The rules developed by the research classes were few. However, prior to establishing rules, a lesson was taught on behavior. Control Theory is recommended as an instructional base for this. In Control Theory, the individual controls behavior. Behavior is more than an action, but includes thoughts and feelings. Physiology makes up the fourth component. Control Theory allows for the exploration of alternative behaviors, which helps the individual satisfy his basic needs of love, power, freedom, and fun.

In the rule setting meeting, consequences are determined. Students at first will want to choose consequences which they have seen former teachers choose. These are often painful or uncomfortable. The teacher should direct them toward consequences which are related to the behavior.

Variables as Predictors

The variables of freedom, participation, and the number of students seen developing relationships in class were determined to be predictors of achievement. Participation was determined to be a predictor of attendance also. Such relationships are not cause and effect. Teachers should, however, examine them closely. A question all teachers should ask themselves is: Is what I am doing getting me what I want? Hopefully what they want is for students to attend and achieve. If this is not happening, possibly a change in classroom management style is appropriate. The literature is clear and this study is supportive that a classroom where the teacher and students relate and respect each other, where students participate in rule setting and are free to make decisions, where an emphasis is placed upon needs, management of that class will improve, and there will be less interference in what education is all about--learning.

APPENDICES

Appendix A
Suggested Organizational Plan

Suggested Organizational Plan

Day 1. Relationship Meeting

- A. Arrange the room with students in a circle.
- B. The teacher is the leader and a participant.
- C. Each participant shares his likes and dislikes. Others may comment upon or ask questions.
- D. If time remains, participants share what they did over vacation or another subject selected by students or teacher.
- E. Do this for one period.

Day 2. Instruction in Basic Human Needs

- A. Use a normal classroom arrangement.
- B. Use the instructional methods with which you are most comfortable.
- C. Refer to "Control Theory in the Classroom" (Glasser, 1987).
- D. The duration should be kept under 25 minutes.

Relationship Meeting

- A. Place the chairs in a circle.
- B. Participants discuss ways individual needs are met.
- C. Participants share specific wants, and the leader solicits from others what need or needs are being met.
- D. The duration is the remainder of period.

Day 3. Instructional Session

- A. The teacher familiarizes students with school rules, using a published handbook if available.
- B. Introduce the problem-solving steps.

- C. List the problem-solving steps on a chart and display them in front of the room.
- D. The duration is one period.

Day 4. Rules and Consequences Meeting

- A. Develop 5 to 10 classroom rules using the problem-solving steps.
 - 1. Stay within constraints of school rules.
- B. Develop consequences for rule violations.
 - 1. Include the use of the time out room.
- C. Post the rules in front of class.
- D. Distribute the rules and possible consequences to students, parents, and administration.

Day 5. Instruction

- A. Discuss the meaning of behavior. Refer to "Control Theory in the Classroom" (Glasser, 1987).
- B. Discuss the relationship between behavior and needs.
- C. Brainstorm alternative behaviors which can help meet basic needs.
- D. The duration is one class period.

Days 8, 36, & 65. Relationship Meetings

- A. Do not problem solve in these meetings.
- B. Discussion should be in terms of needs being or not being met or participants may want to say something nice to other participants.
- C. The duration is approximately 20 minutes.

Days 18, 32, 46, 66, & 74. Problem-Solving Meetings

- A. Use the problem-solving steps.

- B. Any topic is acceptable.
 - 1. No participant should be embarrassed or offended.
- C. Possible topics include:
 - 1. General classroom behavior.
 - 2. Instructional methods.
 - 3. Grading methods.
 - 4. Personal problems (keep anonymous).
 - 5. A specific classroom rule.
- D. Duration is 30 minutes maximum.

Day 89. Final Meeting

- A. Use this for oral evaluation.
 - 1. Class
 - 2. Problem-solving meetings.
 - 3. Relationship meetings.
 - 4. Suggestions for improvement.

Appendix B
Classroom Meeting Survey

Classroom Meeting Survey

1. Was your relationship with your teacher:
 - (1) poor?
 - (2) ok?
 - (3) good?
 - (4) very good?

2. With how many students did you develop a good relationship?
 - (1) 0
 - (2) one
 - (3) two
 - (4) three or more

3. How many students, other than yourself, had a good relationship with the teacher?
 - (1) 0
 - (2) one
 - (3) two
 - (4) three or more

4. How many students, other than yourself, developed a good relationship with another student in class?
 - (1) 0
 - (2) one
 - (3) two
 - (4) three or more

5. How would you rate the rules in this class?
 - (1) most were unfair.
 - (2) there were approximately an equal number of fair and unfair rules.
 - (3) most were fair.

6. How would you rate the consequences (punishments) for violating rules in this class?
 - (1) most were unfair.
 - (2) there were approximately an equal number of fair and unfair consequences.
 - (3) most were fair.

7. How well was the class under control?

- (1) uncontrolled
- (2) controlled enough
- (3) under control

8. How much fun did you have in this class?

- (1) no fun
- (2) some fun
- (3) a lot of fun

9. How much fun did the class have as a whole?

- (1) no fun
- (2) some fun
- (3) a lot of fun

10. How much freedom do you believe you had in making decisions in class?

- (1) none
- (2) some
- (3) a lot

11. How much freedom do you believe the majority of students had in making decisions?

- (1) none
- (2) some
- (3) a lot

12. How much did you participate in this class?

- (1) very little
- (2) some
- (3) a lot

13. Overall, how much student participation was there in this class?

- (1) very little
- (2) some
- (3) a lot

Appendix C
Interviewer's Script

Interviewer's Script

Please follow this script while conducting interviews. Parent or guardian permission must be granted before the student is interviewed.

Parent

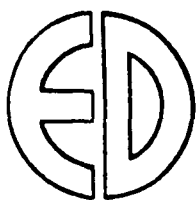
Hello! My name is _____. The principal, Mr. _____ is examining specific teaching methods being tested by some teachers. He has asked me to speak with _____ and ask a few questions. Answers will not be used to evaluate any teacher's ability and all information will be kept anonymous and confidential. May I ask a few questions of _____? (The parent may want to know the questions. Please read all or some to the parent if he or she desires.)

Student

Hello _____. My name is _____. Would you answer a few questions concerning your science/law class? The responses will be given to Mr. _____ but your name will not. Please think in terms of this class since February of this year!

Thank you!

Appendix D
Permission Slip With Cover Letter for Parents



EAST DETROIT PUBLIC SCHOOLS

OAKWOOD JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL
14825 Nehls
East Detroit, Michigan 48021
Phone 445-4600

Dr. John F. Gardiner
Superintendent of Schools

Mr. Gerald LeCureux
Principal

Mr. Dennis Wolinski
Assistant Principal

Mr. Werner Schroeder
Curriculum Coordinator

Mrs. Mildred Ryckman
Counselor

Mr. Jere Thomas
Counselor

Dear Parent,

As part of my requirement for an advanced degree I have developed a series of classroom meetings to aid teachers in the management of their classrooms. As part of a study using these meetings, I am looking at the relationship between these meetings and student grades. Your child has participated in a class where these classroom meetings have taken place or is part of a randomly selected group of students who have not participated in such meetings.

I am asking your permission to use your child's final grade in _____ to answer the following two questions:

1. Will significantly more students in the participating classes achieve their expected grade (all students were asked to predict their final grade at the onset of this study) than those in the non-participating groups?
2. Will the average of the grades in the participating classes be significantly higher than the average of the grades of non-participating students?

Your child's individual grade will be kept confidential and his/her name will not be used in the reporting of information. In signing below, you are granting permission for me to use your child's final grade in _____ for the above stated purpose. Without this signed permission your child's grade will not be used in the collection of information. No penalty or loss of service will be encountered by your child if both you and your child do not grant such permission.

For further information regarding this study and collection as well as use of information, please feel free to call me at 445-4600.

Sincerely,

Gerald LeCureux
Principal

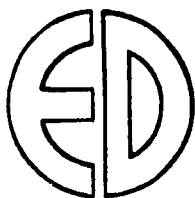
PERMISSION SLIP

You may use my child's _____ final grade in
_____ for the purpose stated above. I
understand all information will be kept confidential and my child's
name will not be used in the reporting of any information.

Child's Name _____

Signature of Parent or Guardian _____

Appendix E
Permission Slip With Cover Letter for Students



EAST DETROIT PUBLIC SCHOOLS

OAKWOOD JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL
14825 Nehls
East Detroit, Michigan 48021
Phone 445-4600

Dr. John F. Gardiner
Superintendent of Schools

Mr. Gerald LeCureux
Principal

Mr. Dennis Wolinski
Assistant Principal

Mr. Werner Schroeder
Curriculum Coordinator

Mrs. Mildred Ryckman
Counselor

Mr. Jere Thomas
Counselor

Dear Student,

As part of my requirement for an advanced degree I have developed a series of classroom meetings to aid teachers in the management of their classrooms. As part of a study using these methods, I am looking at the relationship between these meetings and student grades. You have participated in a class where these classroom meetings have taken place or are part of a randomly selected group of students who have not participated in such meetings.

I am asking your permission to use your final grade in _____ to answer the following two questions:

1. Will significantly more students in the participating classes achieve their expected grade (all students were asked to predict their final grade at the onset of this study) than those in the non-participating groups?
2. Will the average of the grades in the participating classes be significantly higher than the average of the grades of non-participating students?

Your individual grade will be kept confidential and your name will not be used in the reporting of information. In signing below, you are granting permission for me to use your final grade in _____ for the above stated purpose. Without this signed permission your grade will not be used in the collection of information. No penalty or loss of service will be encountered by you if you and your parent or guardian do not grant such permission.

For further information regarding this study and collection as well as use of information, please feel free to call me at 445-4600.

Sincerely,

Gerald LeCureux

PERMISSION SLIP

You may use my _____ final grade in
_____ for the purpose stated above. I understand
all information will be kept confidential and my name will not be
used in the reporting of any information.

Student's Name _____

Student's Signature _____

Appendix F

Review Panel for Validation of Model

Review Panel for Validation of Model

Linda Johnson, Ph.D., R.T.C., Principal
Crescentwood Elementary School
East Detroit, Michigan

Werner Schroeder, Curriculum Coordinator
Oakwood Junior High School
East Detroit, Michigan

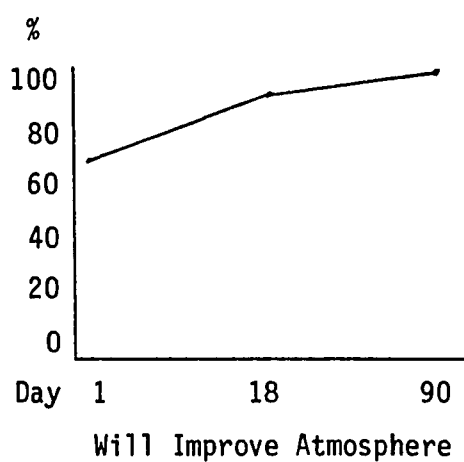
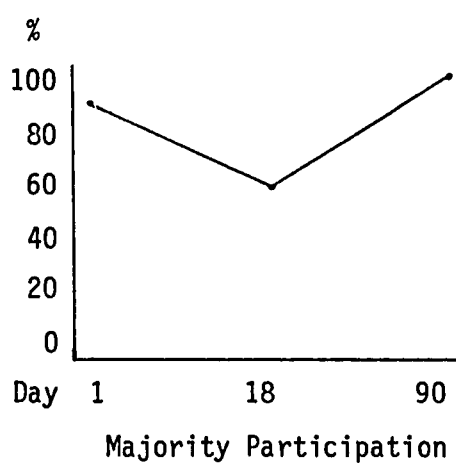
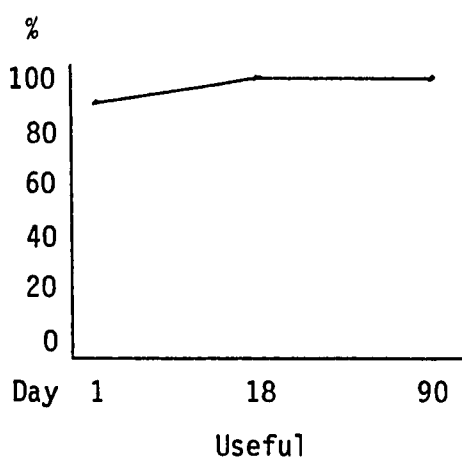
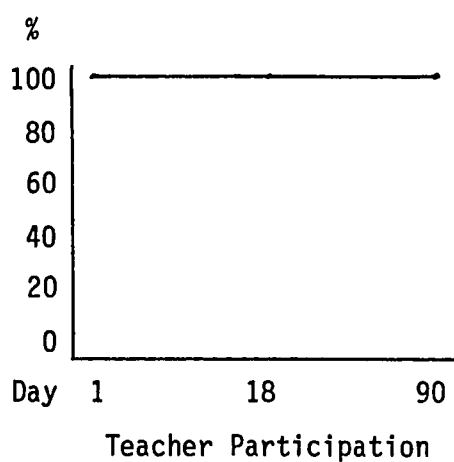
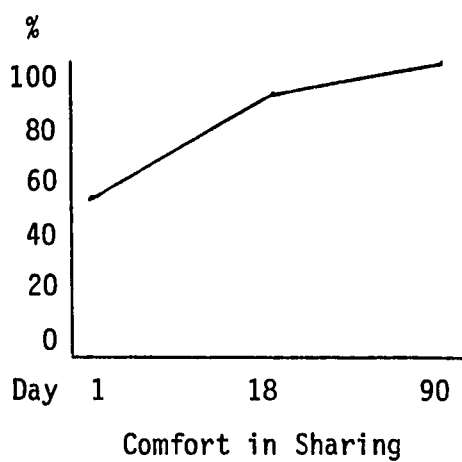
Arthur Miller, R.T.C, Principal
East Detroit High School
East Detroit, Michigan

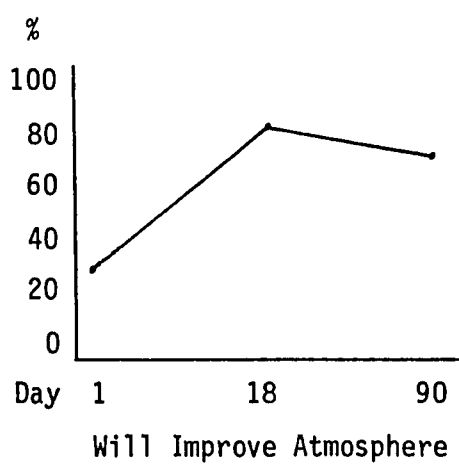
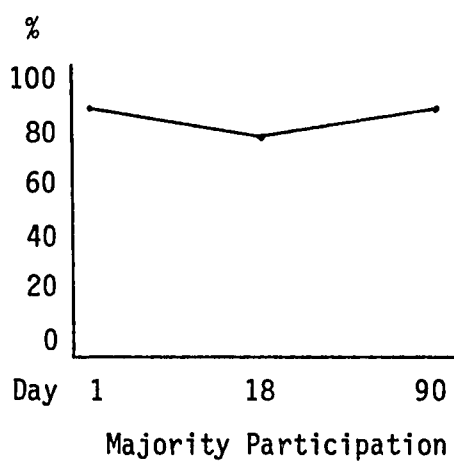
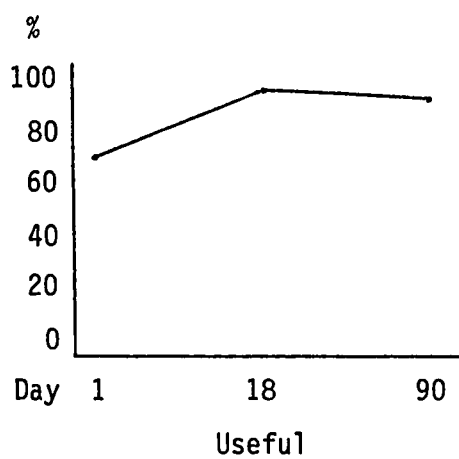
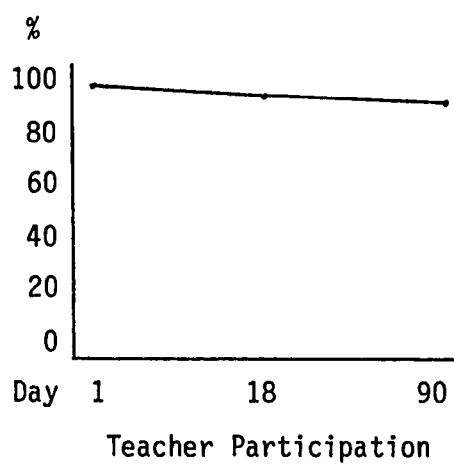
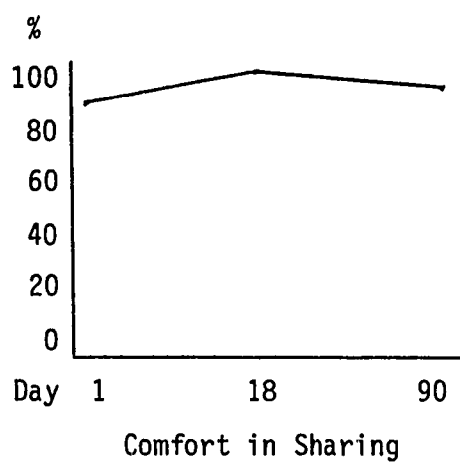
Dianne Miller, Sixth Grade Teacher
Pleasantview Elementary School
East Detroit, Michigan

Nina Hardewich, Teacher
Oakwood Junior High School
East Detroit, Michigan

David Clark, Teacher
East Detroit High School
East Detroit, Michigan

Appendix G
Student Evaluations of Meetings





Appendix H

Approval Letter From Human Subjects
Institutional Review Board

WESTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY

Date: March 21, 1990

To: Gerald LeCureaux

From: Mary Anne Bunda, Chair *Mary Anne Bunda*

This letter will serve as confirmation that your research protocol, "A Proposed Reality Therapy Based Classroom Meeting Model to Aid in Classroom Management", has been approved under the exempt category of review by the HSIRB. The conditions and duration of this approval are specified in the Policies of Western Michigan University. You may now begin to implement the research as described in the approval application.

You must seek reapproval for any changes in this design. You must also seek reapproval if the project extends beyond the termination date.

The Board wishes you success in the pursuit of your research goals.

xc: E. Kelley, Educational Leadership

HSIRB Project Number 90-01-24

Approval Termination March 21, 1991

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Babbie, E. R. (1973). Survey research methods. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Bell, L. C., & Stefanich, G. P. (1984). Building effective discipline using the Cascade model. Clearing House, 58(3), 134-137.
- Bielefeldt, T. (1988). The challenge of classroom discipline. Eugene: Oregon School Study Council. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 301 972)
- Bloom, R. B. (1980). Teachers and students in conflict: The creed approach. Phi Delta Kappan, 61, 624-626.
- Brookover, W. B. (1982). Creating effective schools. Holmes Beach, FL: Learning Publications.
- Brophy, J. (1983). Effective classroom management. School Administrator, 140(6), 33-36.
- Canter, L., & Canter, M. (1976). Assertive discipline. Los Angeles, CA: Lee Canter & Associates.
- Chance, E. W., & Chance, P. L. (1984, Fall). Class meetings: Fulfilling students' pathways to power. Journal of Reality Therapy, pp. 43-48.
- Creton, H. A., Wubbels, T., & Hooymayeis, H. D. (1989). Escalated disorderly situations in the classroom and the improvement of these situations. Teaching and Teacher Education, 5(3), 205-215.
- Cummings, C. (1986). Teaching makes a difference. Snohomish, WA: Snohomish Publishing.
- Dickenson, D. K. (1985). Creating and using formal occasions in the classroom. Anthropology and Education Quarterly, 16, 47-62.
- Dreikurs, R. (1968). Psychology in the classroom. New York: Harper & Row.
- Dreikurs, R., & Cassell, P. (1972). Discipline without tears. New York: Hawthorn Books.
- Evertson, C. M., Emmer, E. T., Sanford, J. P., & Clements, B. S. (1983). Improving classroom management: An experiment in

- elementary school classrooms. The Elementary School Journal, 84(2), 173-188.
- Ford, R. (1984). Discipline strategies for teachers of problem students. Washington, DC: National Institute of Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 253 529)
- Fraser, B. J., & Tobin, K. (1988). Psychosocial environment in exemplary teachers' classrooms. New Orleans, LA: American Educational Research Association. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 295 819)
- Gay, L. R. (1976). Educational research (2nd ed.). Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill.
- Glasser, W. (1965). Reality therapy: A new approach to psychiatry. New York: Harper & Row.
- Glasser, W. (1969). Schools without failure. New York: Harper & Row.
- Glasser, W. (1984). Control theory. New York: Harper & Row.
- Glasser, W. (1986). Control theory in the classroom. New York: Harper & Row.
- Glasser, W. (1989, November 2). [Personal communication.]
- Glasser, W. (1990). Quality school. New York: Harper & Row.
- Gordon, T. (1974). TET: Teacher effectiveness training. New York: Peter H. Wyden.
- Hitz, R. (1988). Assertive discipline: A response to Lee Canter. Young Children, 43(2), 25-26.
- Isaac, S., & Michael, W. B. (1985). Handbook in research and evaluation (2nd ed.). San Diego, CA: EdITS Publishers.
- Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (1990). Circles of learning (3rd ed.). Edina, MN: Interaction.
- Jones, F. H. (1979). The gentle art of classroom discipline. The National Elementary Principal, 58(4), 26-32.
- Karrass, C. L., & Glasser, W. (1980). Both-win management. New York: Lippincott & Crowell.
- Kelley, E. A. (1977). Developing a lesson plan for classroom discipline. Journal of the Association of Teacher Educators, 1(2), 41-45.

- Kelley, E. A. (1978). School reorganization in Nebraska: A chronic controversy. Catalyst, 1(4), 41-53.
- MacGinitie, W. H., & MacGinitie, R. K. (1989). Gates MacGinitie Reading Test (3rd ed.). Chicago: Riverside.
- Marotz, B. (1983). Alternatives to behavioral classroom management. Detroit, MI: International Convention of the Council for Exceptional Children. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 229 987)
- McCormack, S. (1987). Assertive discipline: What do we really know? San Diego, CA: San Diego County Office of Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 286 618)
- Miller, D. (1989). Teaching responsible behavior with Reality Therapy and Control Theory. Unpublished master's thesis, Central Michigan University, Mt. Pleasant.
- Nelsen, J. (1987). Positive discipline. New York: Ballantine Books.
- Omizo, M. M., & Cubberly, W. E. (1983). The effects of reality therapy classroom meetings on self-concept and locus of control among learning disabled children. The Exceptional Child, 30(3), 201-209.
- Palardy, J. M. (1988). Behaviorism: An approach to more effective discipline. The Teacher Educator, 24(1), 10-15.
- Reis, E. M. (1988). Effective teacher techniques: Implications for better discipline. Clearing House, 61, 356-357.
- Rich, J. M. (1988). Punishment and classroom control. Clearing House, 26, 261-264.
- Ryan, J. F. (1984). Modifying attitudes of pre-service secondary education students toward discipline in the classroom. Dallas, TX: Southwest Educational Research Association. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 241 480)
- Short, P. M. (1988). Effectively disciplined schools: Three themes from research. NASSP Bulletin, 72(504), 1-3.
- Silberman, C. E. (1970). Crises in the classroom. New York: Random House.
- Spettel, G. B. (1983). Classroom discipline--now? Clearing House, 56, 266-268.

Stefanich, G. P., & Bell, L. C. (1985). A dynamic model for class-room discipline. NASSP Bulletin, 69(479), 19-25.

Tatum, J. B. (1982). Peer participation: A key to responsibility. Winston-Salem, NC: Winston-Salem State University. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 013 371)

Webster's new world dictionary. (1958). New York: World.

Yorke, D. B. (1988). Norm setting: Rules by and for the students. Vocational Education Journal, 63(5), 32-33, 47.

A CLASSROOM MEETING MODEL FOR TEACHER USE IN CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Gerald L. LeCureux, Ed.D.

Western Michigan University, 1991

The purpose of this study was to develop, validate, and field test a classroom meeting model to aid in classroom management. In the review of literature, six common beliefs were found. Four classroom management models were discussed in relationship to each belief and a classroom meeting model was then developed. Control Theory (Glasser, 1984) was selected as a psychological base.

The Classroom Meeting Model may be illustrated as an equilateral triangle. The angles represent three types of classroom meetings: relationship development, rule and consequence determination, and problem solving. Along the sides, elements of the meetings are represented: basic needs, components of behavior, and steps for problem solving.

A one-semester classroom meeting plan was developed. This plan was field tested in a seventh grade science class and a ninth grade basic law class. Two control groups were randomly selected. All classes were located in a junior high school in a metropolitan area with a population in excess of one million. A telephone survey was conducted with test and control group students. The survey questions were developed to provide information about elements of the model. Internal validity of the survey was established. In

addition, grades and attendance were measured.

A relationship at the $p = .05$ level was found between the model and perceived classroom control in the ninth grade research group. A relationship at $p = .05$ was found between the model and student rating of classroom rules by the seventh grade research participants. The mean ratings of 12 of 13 surveyed variables were higher for the ninth grade research group as well as 12 of 13 for the seventh grade research group. The findings of this research seem consistent with the literature that student participation, freedom, and relationship are important in classroom management. Further implementation and examination were recommended.